Full Thesis for the Degree of Master of Commerce

Toward a Culture of Engagement

Leveraging the Enterprise Social Network

Garth Alistoun

Rhodes University

Department of Information Systems

Supervisor – Christopher Upfold

Abstract

This research aims to provide a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement within a chosen South African private sector company. Based on an extensive review of interesting literature and the application of a grounded theory process in a chosen case, this research work provides a theory of enterprise social networking sustaining and growing employee engagement together with an explanatory theoretical framework that makes the theory more practical.

Employee engagement is defined as “the harnessing of organisation member’s selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.” This research regards employee engagement as a three part concept composed of a trait (personality/cognitive) aspect, a state (emotional) aspect, and a behavioural aspect. Research has shown that employee engagement has an unequivocal positive impact on business outcomes, such as profitability, business performance, employee retention and productivity. Employee engagement can be regarded as a culture if it is abundant within the organization’s employee population.

Gatenby *et al.* (2009) propose that employee engagement is fostered by creating the desire and opportunity for employees to connect with colleagues, managers and the wider organisation. This standpoint is supported by Kular *et al.* (2008) who state that the “key drivers of employee engagement identified include communication, opportunities for employees to feed their views upward and thinking that their managers are committed to the organisation.” Further indicators of employee engagement include strong leadership (particularly in the form of servant leadership), accountability, a positive and open organisational culture, autonomy, and opportunities for development.

One of the key facets of employee engagement is connection. A complementary definition of social media, an umbrella under which enterprise social networks fall, is that “(it) is more of a relationship channel, a connection channel. Each and every tweet, update, video, post, is a connection point to another human being. And it’s the other human being who will determine your worth to them.” Social media provides participants with access to a larger pool of resources and relationships than they would normally have access to. This enlarged relationship/resource pool is a result of expanding human and social capital enabled through social media tools.

In order to produce a theory of enterprise social networking sustaining and growing a culture of employee engagement a rigorous grounded theory methodology coupled with a case study methodology was applied. The case study methodology was used to identify a suitable research site and interesting participants within the site while the grounded theory process was used to produce both qualitative and quantitative data sets in a suitability rigorous fashion. The corroborative data was then used to discover and define the emergent theory.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the following individuals and groups for their contribution to the completion of this research work:

To Chris Upfold – I could not have ever found a better supervisor. Thank you for your dedication, advice and for putting up with my random, not always on topic, office pop-ins.

My wife – It has been a tough but rewarding couple of years. Thanks for always being there for me and for all your love.

To the ‘case company’ – Thank you to everyone at the company for your cooperation and help. You have all made this Masters far easier and better than it would otherwise have been.

My family – Thanks for all of your support over the years that has led to the completion of this thesis. Love you all with all of my heart.

God – Though I am not the best son by many leagues I pray that I am an ever improving one.

Declaration

I acknowledge that all of the references are complete and accurate and that, unless otherwise stated, the work herein is my own.

Garth Alistoun

Table of Contents

Table of Figures

Table of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the research work, stating the research context, question and the organisation of the thesis to follow.

Context of the Research

Employee engagement is defined by Kahn (1990: 694) as “the harnessing of organisation member’s selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.” An actively engaged individual takes calculated risks and is always learning, feels stretched by their work, takes personal satisfaction from the quality of their work, and finds work to be stressful but rewarding and fun (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 22). An actively disengaged employee is bored and frustrated by their work, is publicly negative about the company, is always looking for someone to blame, and is likely to be searching for alternative employment (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 22). Research has shown that engaged employees have an unequivocal positive impact on business outcomes (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 3; Kular *et al.*, 2008: 1; Gallup, 2008: 1). These impacts include increased profitability, business performance, employee retention, competitiveness, productivity and earnings per share in publicly traded companies (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 3; Kular *et al.*, 2008: 1; Gallup, 2008: 1). Not only are positive increases shown, but decreases in absenteeism, inventory shrinkage, safety incidents and quality defects can also be observed (Gallup, 2008: 3).

Current trends indicate that employee engagement has not been widely targeted as a key performance driver (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 7). International surveys have determined engaged employees to be as little as 12% of the total working population in nations such as Thailand, China, Australia, New Zealand, Singapore and Japan (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 7-8). Surveys have identified noticeable differences between the national averages of engaged and disengaged employees; Mexico and Brazil show the highest numbers of engaged employees and Japan and Italy show the lowest (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 8). The international average of surveyed nations has been determined by Gallup (2008: 1) to be 33% of the workforce within organizations.

Employee engagement is fostered by creating the desire and opportunity for employees to connect with colleagues, managers and the wider organisation (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 8). This standpoint is supported by Kular *et al.* (2008:1) who state that the “key drivers of employee engagement identified include communication, opportunities for employees to feed their views upward and thinking that their managers are committed to the organisation.” Further indicators of employee engagement include strong leadership (particularly in the form of servant leadership), accountability, a positive and open organisational culture, autonomy, and opportunities for personal development (Kular *et al.,* 2008: 11).

As already stated, one of the key drivers of employee engagement is ‘connection’ (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 8). According to Deloitte (2009: 8), the three most important connections for optimal role performance are: connecting people in ways that promote development; connecting people to a sense of purpose; and connecting people to the resources that they need to perform their roles. Deloitte (2009: 14) further define the mechanisms through which these connections can be made. For the purposes of this research, the following three areas will be addressed: collaborative tools, stimulating high-quality relationships, and cultivating communities (Deloitte, 2009: 14). Deloitte propose that the tool through which these mechanisms are best delivered is enterprise social networking (Deloitte, 2009: 21).

The internet, and more recently Online Social Networking (OSN), has been shown to supplement and sometimes replace face-to-face interaction in creating social capital (Wellman *et al.,* 2001: 444; Ellison *et al.,* 2007: 1146). OSN’s have been associated with the formation of ‘weak ties’ which allow for the creation of larger networks of loose relationships and provide access to resources (Ellison *et al.,* 2007: 1146; DiMicco *et al.*, 2008: 9). This creation of large, loose networks of relationships is directly supportive of the ‘connections’ which form the basis for employee engagement as proposed by MacLeod and Clarke (2009:8).

One of the mechanisms through which Enterprise Social Networks creates engagement is proposed to be social capital. Social capital is defined by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998: 243) as “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network.” Social capital has been shown to increase organizational commitment, provide the ability to ‘mobilize collective actions’, and promote psychological well-being (Ellison *et al.,* 2007: 1145-46). Any lack of social capital can be associated with social disorder, reduced organizational participation and distrust between community members (Ellison *et al.,* 2007: 1145). The resources which accrue through social capital to members of the community include: access to shared and private information, relationships, and the capacity for group action (Ellison *et al.,* 2007: 1146). Based on the resources that social capital provides, improvements in personal and organizational innovation, learning, decision-making and problem-solving may be experienced (Deloitte, 2009: 10).

Research Aims and Goals

This research aims to provide a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement within a chosen South African private sector company.

The goals of the research are to:

1. Propose a survey tool that will be a measure of engagement.
2. Determine the current employee engagement levels in a selected South African private sector company currently making use of social networking using the employee engagement survey created in goal 1.
3. Generate a theory of how enterprise social networking generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement.

Methods, Procedures and Techniques

Research Paradigm: This research will be conducted using an interpretivist research paradigm. The interpretivist paradigm is intended to provide piercing insight into "…the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it" (Schwandt, 1994: 118). Ontologically, interpretivists believe that social reality is based on people's definition of it (Neuman, 1997: 69); reality is hence subjective for interpretivists. The consistent epistemological position is that understanding social reality requires understanding how practices and meanings are formed and informed by the language and norms shared by humans working towards some shared goal (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991:14). In interpretive research, the knowledge emerges from the data, rather than being pre-formulated, tested and refined (Andrade, 2009: 44).

Sampling: The target population are employees in a selected South African private sector company who make use of an enterprise social network during their workday. A theoretical sampling method is employed which refers to "…being flexible to determine… individuals to be included in the research, those which provide appropriate comparable data [and might prove valuable] for generating categories" (Dey, 1999: 5). For the purposes of this research all of the target company's employees are considered to be a part of the theoretical sample.

Data Gathering: This research subscribes to a grounded theory methodology for the purposes of data collection. This is because the grounded theory methodology allows for the combination of different methods with the purpose of revealing a case from a diversity of viewpoints; a process known as corroboration (Andrade, 2009). This feature of the grounded theory methodology will be useful in the course of this research work which will have both quantitative and qualitative methods employed. The chosen sample company will be approached by the researcher in order to gain top management support for the research. Once the support of top management has been secured, the quantitative survey can be rolled out to the organisation's members. The respondents will be contacted via email in order to inform them of the purpose of the research and their part in it, taking particular ethical research issues into account. A web link to the composite employee engagement measure will be distributed via email to each of the participants and their participation will be requested. The online questionnaire will be available for limited time period and all responses will be kept in confidence. Post the analysis of the composite employee engagement measure results, personal interviews will be conducted with a selection of theoretically interesting members in order to discover impediments to and stimulators of engagement within the company's context. The data gathered will not be made available to the sample company until analysis has been completed and the information has been cleansed to remove any indication of who the respondents were.

Data Analysis: Raw data will be captured and tabulated in Microsoft Excel. Thereafter the questionnaire data will be analysed quantitatively in order to determine the engagement level of each of the respondents. The data will be sorted by the engagement score that each respondent is allocated based on their responses in the questionnaire. Based on the sorted engagement data, patterns will emerge providing a clearer picture of the company's engagement context. Making use of these patterns and the sorted engagement data, particular individuals will be identified and invited for one-on-one semi-structured interviews with the researcher. These interviews will be recorded with a dictaphone for further analysis. The recordings will at no point be shared with anyone other than the researcher and the research supervisor without the specific consent of the respondent. The voice recordings will be analysed qualitatively to determine particular stimulators or impediments of employee engagement found within the company's enterprise social network. The data collection and analysis will end once a point of theoretical saturation is reached.

Ethical Issues: The research will be required to adhere to the requirements of the Rhodes University Ethics Committee. The ethical guidelines, as provided by the Ethics Committee, will be followed in the creation and administration of the survey instruments used in the course of the research work.

Summary of Results

Given that the goal of this research is to produce a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement; the result of this is a theory. Based on the evidence gathered the theory states that "An enterprise social network sustains and grows a culture of employee engagement by positively impacting the organisational society and positively impacting the way that organisational members work and develop." Coupled with this theory is a final theoretical framework that defines and describes how the enterprise social network is positively impacting the organisational society and the way that members work and develop. The final theoretical framework is considered to be generalizable and hence may be used in other organisational contexts to produce similar results.

Organisation of Thesis

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the research work, stating the research context, question and the organisation of the thesis to follow.

Chapter 2: Employee Engagement

This chapter introduces the multi-perspective concept of Employee Engagement, provides reasons for interest in it and how it may be generated and measured in organizations.

Chapter 3: Social Networks, Social Media and Social Capital

This chapter considers the nature of social networks, the academic complexity of social media and the concept of social capital as a function of social networks.

Chapter 4: Organizational Culture and Leadership

Building on chapters 2 and 3, chapter 4 provides an overview of organizational cultures as well as leadership styles that are linked with Employee Engagement generation.

Chapter 5: The Questionnaire and the Initial Theoretical Framework

This chapter details the structure of the questionnaire to be used to measure Employee Engagement. An initial theoretical framework of enterprise social networking creating and sustaining Employee Engagement is also provided.

Chapter 6: Research Methodology

This chapter details the methodological outlook of the research as well as the procedure to be followed in generating the theory of enterprise social networking generating and/or sustaining Employee Engagement.

Chapter 7: Results

In this chapter, the results of the survey process and the interview process are detailed.

Chapter 8: Discussion

The discussion chapter concludes the research through the proposal of a theory of enterprise social networking sustaining and growing a culture of Employee Engagement. Included is a final theoretical framework that details the processes sustaining and expanding the culture of Engagement within the social network.

Chapter 2: Employee Engagement

This chapter introduces the multi-perspective concept of Employee Engagement, provides reasons for interest in it and how it may be generated and measured in organizations.

Introduction

The first section of this chapter describes the multi-dimensional concept of employee engagement by analysing definitions using a framework for defining engagement. The levels of engagement from fully engaged to disengaged are then described, providing the reader with a picture of what an engaged individual would feel, and how they would behave. Subsequently, the business case for employee engagement is detailed, illustrating the key role that engagement plays in improving business performance. After the business case is defined, the drivers of employee engagement are described, describing the organisational conditions required to foster engagement. The final section deals with the measurement of engagement by critically analysing three survey instruments against the framework for defining engagement, one another, and the drivers of engagement, in order to determine their applicability as measures of employee engagement.

Defining employee engagement

Employee engagement (EE) lacks a universal definition (Ferguson, 2007: 3), with MacLeod and Clarke (2009: 8) stating that they had found more than 50 different definitions for the concept of employee engagement in the course of their research alone. The lack of a precise and common definition of EE should not be regarded as an indication that it lacks conceptual grounding or applicability in real-world settings (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 5). A universal definition and means of measurement is however required if EE is to be targeted as a driver of competitive advantage, and if any strategies put in place to develop it, can be reliably measured (Ferguson, 2007: 2).

A framework for defining EE

In order to better define and communicate the concept of EE, a framework for defining EE is provided by Macey and Schneider (2008). The framework is divided into three components, each defining an aspect of EE as it may be used in research and in business (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 5). These components are: trait engagement, state engagement and behavioural engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 5).

At the broad, Macey and Schneider (2008: 6) define trait engagement as positive views of work and life. More exactly, these positive views are purportedly the result of four dispositional constructs: positive affect (PA), conscientiousness, proactive personality and autotelic personality (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 19). Trait PA is described by Macey and Schneider (2008: 19) as a ‘precise’ definition of an engaged individual; in this way, trait PA is the tendency to regularly experience PA as a state (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 19). Trait PA serves as a frame through which work experiences are perceived and how an individual will behave in response to these experiences (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 20). Macey and Schneider (2008: 20) suggest that positive affect is best measured through emotional dimensions with an activation component (i.e. enthusiastic, energetic, determined) rather than evaluative dimensions (i.e. happy, cheerful, pleased). Staw (2004) proposes the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) as an effective measurement instrument for PA. As mentioned, additional concepts related to trait engagement are conscientiousness, proactive personalities and autotelic personalities. Conscientiousness includes both industriousness and order as defining characteristics with industrious individuals being described as “hard-working, ambitious, confident and resourceful” (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 20). Macey and Schneider (2008: 20) propose that conscientiousness will correlate particularly to the generalized compliance facet of organizational commitment behaviour as will be discussed in the behavioural engagement section. Smith *et al.* (1983: 657) define generalized compliance as “…an impersonal form of conscientiousness that indirectly helps others within the organization; this includes behaviours that define what a good employee ought to do, such as attendance, punctuality, working overtime, and not spending time on personal telephone calls.” A proactive personality is defined by the general tendency to create or influence one’s working environment (Crant, 1995) and has been indicated in facilitating career success (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 20). Proactive personality was found by Crant (1995) to explain individual performance discrepancies even after considering the impacts of conscientiousness and trait positive affect. Autotelic personalities engage in activities for their own sake, rather than for specific gains or rewards (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 20). Autotelic individuals are recognizable as being open to new challenges, are persistent in the face of adversity, and are ready to engage (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 20).

State engagement, referring to an individual’s psychological state, has received the most attention of any of the components of employee engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 6). Engagement has previously been defined by a loose combination of job satisfaction (a measure of how satisfied one is with their working arrangement), job involvement (defined by Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005: 244) as “the degree to which an employee psychologically relates to his or her job and the work performed therein.”), organizational commitment (a psychological state of attachment to the organization) and psychological empowerment (defined by Spreitzer (1995:1443) as feelings of purpose, competence, self-determination and the ability to make a difference) (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 6-10). Macey and Schneider (2008: 6) propose that, while the former constructs are certainly closely related to a state of engagement, engagement is more precisely defined by a combination of states of absorption (defined by Dictionary.com (2011) as “to involve the full attention of; to engross or engage wholly”), attachment (defined by Dictionary.com (2011) as “a feeling that binds one to a person, thing, cause, ideal, or the like; devotion”) and enthusiasm (defined by Dictionary.com (2011) as “absorbing or controlling possession of the mind by any interest or pursuit; lively interest”) toward one’s job and the organization in which they work (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 6).

Behavioural engagement, a positive performance construct, is described by Macey and Schneider (2008: 15) as including innovative behaviours, demonstrating initiative, proactively seeking out opportunities for contribution to the organization, and exceeding, within a specified frame of reference, what is typically required of the employee. This exceeding of expectations was referred to as “discretionary effort” by Towers-Perrin (2003: 1), defined as the giving of extra time, brainpower and energy than would normally be required. However, Macey and Schneider (2008: 15) posit that the simple giving of more time, brainpower or energy limits the concept of behavioural engagement. Brown (1996), whom Macey and Schneider (2008: 15) cite in their argument, suggested that an involved (or engaged) individual would certainly give more, but would also work ‘smarter’, or perform tasks differently from their disengaged counterparts. Behavioural engagement, when expressed in terms of atypical or different behaviours, is closely linked with the behavioural concepts of organizational commitment behaviour, role expansion and personal initiative (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 15).

Organizational commitment as defined by Porter *et al.* (1974) is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. It can be identified by three factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exercise considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to retain membership in the organization.

Organizational commitment behaviours (OCB), also called citizenship behaviours, were defined by Smith *et al.* (1983: 653-654), as “… myriad acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures of goodwill, generalized compliance, altruism and other (such actions)". Smith *et al.* (1983: 653-654) went further to say that citizenship behaviours go beyond the formal requirements of an employee's role. A strong link can be seen between the Brown (1996) position on the different way that engaged individuals work, and the Smith *et al.* (1983: 653-654) definition of OCB. Smith *et al.* (1983: 654) also note that citizenship behaviours lubricate an organisation's social machinery and provide the needed flexibility for an organization to deal with unforeseen difficulties.

Personal initiative and proactivity was found by Frese and Fay (2001) to imply going beyond what is considered normal or is obvious within a role or organisational context. Macey and Schneider (2008: 18) posit that personal initiative and proactivity emphasise adaption to existing or anticipated stimuli. This adaption does not have an employee focus, but rather a focus on the organisation where employees are more responsive to organizational challenges and opportunities than to personal ones (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 18). Macey and Schneider (2008: 18) argue that this organisationally focused adaptive behaviour is consistent with the rapidly changing work environment, the fluidity of organisational roles, and the need for quick responses to opportunities and threats in the business environment of today.

Organizational role theory, a study of the manner in which employees accept and execute an array of roles in task-oriented and hierarchical systems (Parker and Wickham, 2005: 2), may have no explicit link to previous engagement theory, but should be considered given its applicability in defining behavioural engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 17). Role theory has long recognised that people holding the exact same position in a company often perform the requirements of the position differently from one another (Morgeson and Hemingway, 2005: 399; Grant and Hofmann, 2011: 9). Differences in the execution of the individual's role is put down to the differing tasks that each chooses to perform to meet the role requirements, achieving the same goal, but in many observably different ways (Morgeson and Hemingway, 2005: 399). This recognition is directly supportive of the Brown (1996) position on the different way that engaged individuals work.

Role expansion, a sub-area of role theory, is defined by Macey and Schneider (2008: 17) as behaviour that reveals consideration toward a more diverse array of tasks than would be usual or typical. Morgeson and Hemingway (2005: 399) define role expansion as behaviours that extend beyond formal job requirements, providing a yet clearer link with the concept of behavioural engagement, as previously defined as exceeding, within a specified frame of reference, what is typically required of the employee (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 15). Grant and Hofmann (2011: 10) note that employees who define their roles broadly, are seen as being more effective by their supervisors, are more motivated and able to perform their roles more proficiently and adaptively, as well as engage in citizenship behaviours with greater frequency. Role expansion has been found to be dependent on job satisfaction (a measure of how satisfied one is with their working arrangement), commitment, fairness perceptions, leadership, autonomy and personal ability (Morgeson and Hemingway, 2005: 399).

At this point it can be seen that behavioural engagement, whether viewed from an OCB, role expansion or personal initiative perspective, has a common element of exceeding expectations, not only by doing more, but also executing tasks differently.

Unpacking the definitions

Given the lack of a clear definition of EE and the resulting Macey and Schneider (2008) framework, it would be prudent to explore a selection of differing definitions of EE.

The first definition, provided by Gatenby *et al.* (2009: 4), is that “engagement is about creating opportunities for employees to connect with their colleagues, managers and wider organisation. It is also about creating an environment where employees are motivated to want to connect with their work and really care about doing a good job.” The common verb in this definition is ‘connect’. Dictionary.com (2011) define connect as “to join, link, or fasten together; unite or bind.” This definition, when filtered through the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework, appears to have features of both behavioural engagement and state engagement. The behavioural engagement feature is implied by the statement that “employees are motivated to want to connect with their work and really care about doing a good job”, this denotes that employees want to do something because they feel engaged. The behaviour appears to be dependent upon the state of connection/engagement created through “opportunities for employees to connect with their colleagues, managers and wider organisation” as well as “creating an environment” conducive to behavioural engagement.

Another definition of EE is that “engagement is positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values. An engaged employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organisation. The organisation must work to nurture, maintain and grow engagement, which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee” (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 9).

This definition is similar to one provided by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004: 296) who posited that engagement is a positive and fulfilling work-related psychological state that is characterized by vigour ("energetic activity; energy; intensity" (Dictionary.com (2011)), dedication (defined by Dictionary.com (2011) as "devotion wholly and earnestly, as to some person or purpose"), and absorption. Commonality appears to exist between the Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) definition of EE and the state engagement feature of Macey and Schneider (2008) framework. The terms vigor, dedication and absorption in the former construct could be easily interchanged for enthusiasm, attachment and absorption as used in the latter construct. However, both the Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) the Robinson *et al.* (2004) definitions of EE only relate to the psychological state of engagement, hence limiting their applicability in defining the whole of EE when viewed through the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework.

The fourth definition is provided by Lockwood (2007: 2) as "the extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organization, how hard they work and how long they stay as a result of that commitment." The common denominator of the definition is the word "commit" which would have more in common with organizational commitment behaviour (OCB) than engagement. It was noted that OCB is a single aspect of behavioural engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 15) and hence cannot be representative of the concept as a whole.

The final definition to be discussed, proposed by Kahn (1990: 694), is that EE is "the harnessing of organisation member's selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances." The cognitive features of the definition refer to an employee's beliefs about the organisation in which they work, its leaders, and the conditions under which they work (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3). The emotional features refer to the feelings associated with the cognitive beliefs, specifically whether they have positive or negative attitudes toward their workplace (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3). The physical features of the definition refer to energy that an employee puts into their work and organisation (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3). Kular *et al.* (2008: 3) summarise that the Kahn (1990) definition of EE is that an employee is both psychologically (emotional and cognitive aspects) and physically present in their organisational role.

In terms of the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework for understanding EE, the Kahn (1990) definition appears to cover all of the aspects of the framework. The Kahn (1990) definition has physical, emotional, and cognitive features, where the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework has trait, state, and behavioural aspects. In relating the framework and the definition, the physical and the behavioural aspects should be seen as similar. Given that the behavioural engagement definition is “exceeding expectations, not only by doing more, but also executing tasks differently” (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 15), and the physical part of the Kahn (1990) definition is defined as “the energy that an employee puts into their work and organisation” (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3), the two concepts can be viewed as comparable although not perfectly aligned. For the concepts to be the same, the Kahn (1990) definition would need to note that the physical aspects of engagement do not only regard the giving of more energy by an employee into their work and organisation, but also performing their role differently from what would be normal for the organisation.

The cognitive features of the Kahn (1990) definition refer to “an employee’s beliefs about the organisation in which they work, its leaders, and the conditions under which they work” (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3). Wolfradt and Dalbert (2003: 16) note that beliefs have an interdependent relationship with personality, each impacting on and forming the other. This would indicate that the cognitive part of the Kahn (1990) definition is dependent on, and important to, the employee’s personality in determining whether they will have positive or negative beliefs about the organisation in which they work. It can therefore be stated that the cognitive aspects of the definition are directly supportive of the trait engagement aspects as previously defined in the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework.

The Kahn (1990) definition for EE has an emotional aspect which are the feelings associated with the cognitive beliefs held by the employee, specifically whether they have positive or negative attitudes associated with their workplace beliefs (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3). Macey and Schneider (2008: 6) theorise that the positive feelings and attitudes, or psychological states, that an engaged employee should experience are absorption, attachment and enthusiasm toward their work and workplace. By seeing the Kahn (1990) definition as referring to the absorption, attachment and enthusiasm states of the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework, the two can be viewed as being synonymous with regard to the emotional and state aspects of the respective constructs.

What does engagement look like?

BlessingWhite (2011: 5) describe full engagement as the intersection between maximum organizational contribution and maximum job satisfaction. Maximum contribution makes sense in terms of the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework for defining EE, but job satisfaction was found to be an insufficient indicator of engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 6-10). It was instead proposed that absorption, attachment and enthusiasm are better descriptors of EE (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 6). Figure 1 below, illustrates the BlessingWhite (2011: 5) description of full engagement:

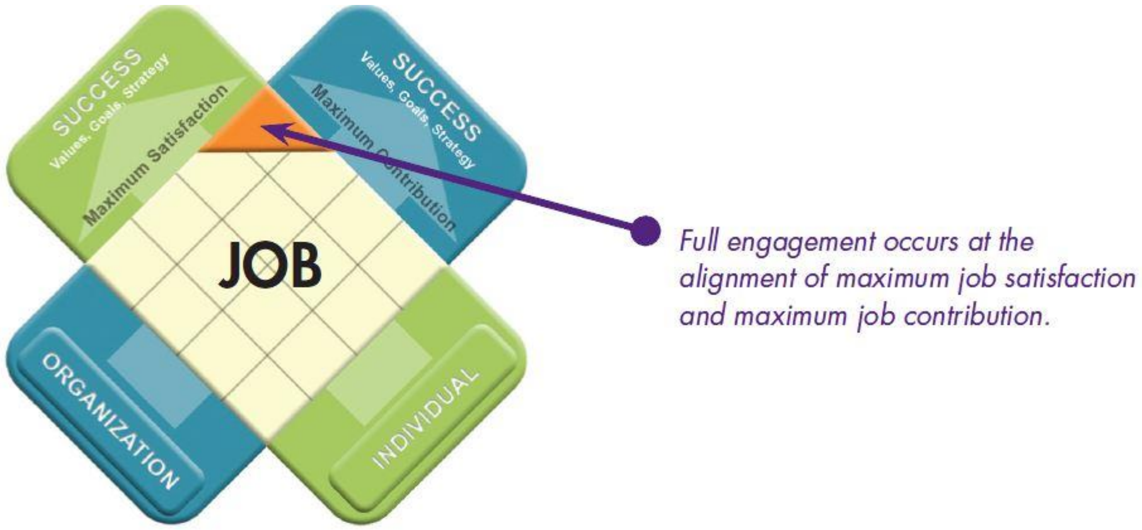

Figure 1: Full engagement (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6)

BlessingWhite (2011: 6) define five levels of engagement plotted against the axes of contribution and satisfaction:

1. The first and highest level is the intersection of maximum contribution and maximum satisfaction, the **fully engaged** (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). These employees' personal interests align with the interests of the organization and contribute fully to the success of the organization (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6).

2. The next level, '**the almost engaged'**, have medium to high contribution and satisfaction (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). These employees are high performers and are reasonably satisfied with their work; they are not however consistently absorbed, enthused or attached to their work (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6).

3. The '**honeymooners and hamsters**' level is firstly defined by employees new to the work environment (honeymooners) who have not yet had a chance to contribute but are happy to be in the workplace, hence having high satisfaction (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). Secondly, the hamsters are those employees who choose to work on non-essential tasks which add little value to the organisation; they may even be 'hiding' in their position with high satisfaction but low contribution (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6).

4. The next level is the '**crash and burners**', a group defined by high organizational contribution but suffer from low satisfaction (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). The crash and burners feel disillusioned and exhausted, being high contributors, but are not meeting many of their own goals (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6).

5. The final level is the **disengaged**, those employees with low to medium satisfaction and low to medium contribution (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). This group is the most disconnected from organizational priorities, often feel neglected and do not meet their own definitions of success (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). Since they feel so negative about their work, they are often negative about the organization, eroding company morale and performance (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6). If they cannot be brought to a higher engagement level, their exit would be of benefit to the company as well as themselves (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6).

The five levels of EE are illustrated in figure 2:

Figure 2: The five levels of EE (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6) [Copyright © BlessingWhite, Inc. All Rights Reserved.]

Rogal and Warner (2010: 2) provide a synopsis of the differences between the fully or actively engaged, and the disengaged. An actively engaged individual takes calculated risks and is always learning, feels stretched by their work, takes personal satisfaction from the quality of their work, and finds work to be stressful, but rewarding and fun (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 22). An actively disengaged employee is bored and frustrated by their work, is publicly negative about the company, is always looking for someone to blame, and is likely to be searching for alternative employment (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 22). Kular *et al.* (2008: 5), based on the findings of Kahn (1990), go further to say that disengaged employees are characterized by incomplete role performances, are effortless, automatic and robotic in their workplace behaviour.

Employee engagement also has a positive impact on employee wellbeing (MacLeod and Clark, 2009: 59). The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) in the UK, found that employees who are cognitively engaged by their work and organizational are three times more likely to experience six key positive emotions than negative ones (MacLeod and Clark, 2009: 59). The six key positive emotions are: enthusiasm, cheerfulness, optimism, contentment, calmness, and feeling relaxed (MacLeod and Clark, 2009: 59). The six key negative emotions are stated by MacLeod and Clarke (2009: 59) as being: miserableness, worry, depression, gloominess, tenseness, and uneasiness. The CIPD also found that those employees who were behaviourally (physically) engaged were ten times more likely to experience the positive emotions than the negative ones (MacLeod and Clark, 2009: 59).

The business case for employee engagement

Employee engagement (EE) has received growing attention from both consultants and researchers in recent years (Gatenby *et al.*, 2009: 2; Saks, 2006: 600). This interest has been generated through the discovery of a positive relationship between EE and business outcomes (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 6). These outcomes include customer loyalty, profitability, productivity, revenue, employee retention, competitiveness and earnings per share in publicly traded companies (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 3; Kular *et al.*, 2008: 1; Gallup, 2008: 1). Not only can improvements in these outcomes be measured, but also decreases in absenteeism, safety incidents, shrinkage and quality defects (Harter *et al.*, 2009: 26). To quantify the impact on these business outcomes, Harter *et al.* (2009: 26) discovered that business units with the highest number of engaged employees have an 83% probability of generating higher than average business performance. Comparatively, business units with the lowest number of engaged employees only have a 17% probability of higher than average performance (Harter *et al.*, 2009: 26). Harter *et al.* (2009: 26) note that the difference between business units with a low density of engaged employees and those with a high density results in an average performance discrepancy of:

- 12% in customer loyalty
- 16% in profitability
- 18% in productivity
- 25% in employee turnover for high-turnover companies
- 49% in employee turnover for low-turnover companies
- 49% in safety incidents
- 27% in shrinkage

- 37% in absenteeism
- 60% in quality defects

A monetary example provided by Lockwood (2007: 3), based on a study by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), is that of Molson Coors, a brewing company in North America. It was found that an engaged employee was five times less likely than their disengaged counterparts to have a work related safety incident (Lockwood, 2007: 3). The costs associated with safety incidents equated to $63 per engaged employee in comparison to $392 per disengaged employee (Lockwood, 2007: 3). By promoting employee engagement in the workplace, Molson Coors was able to save $1,721,760 in safety costs in 2002 (Lockwood, 2007: 3).

A 2007 article by Bryan Ott in the Gallup Management Journal summarised a 2004-2005 Gallup study into the correlation between EE and earnings per share (EPS) (Ott, 2007: 1). Ninety (90) publicly traded companies from around the world were identified and were required to:

- Have performed a Gallup employee engagement survey so that an accurate comparison between companies could be made (Ott, 2007: 1), and,
- Have public financial data for the baseline period, 2001-2003, available, as well as for the study period, 2004-2005 (Ott, 2007: 1).

In order to control the variability of EPS between different industries, companies were compared to their direct competition (Ott, 2007: 2). Similar companies' data was combined and analysed over a longer period of time in order to get a better idea of patterns associated with high- and low-engagement organizations in the different industries (Ott, 2007: 2). The findings of the study are summarised in figure 3.

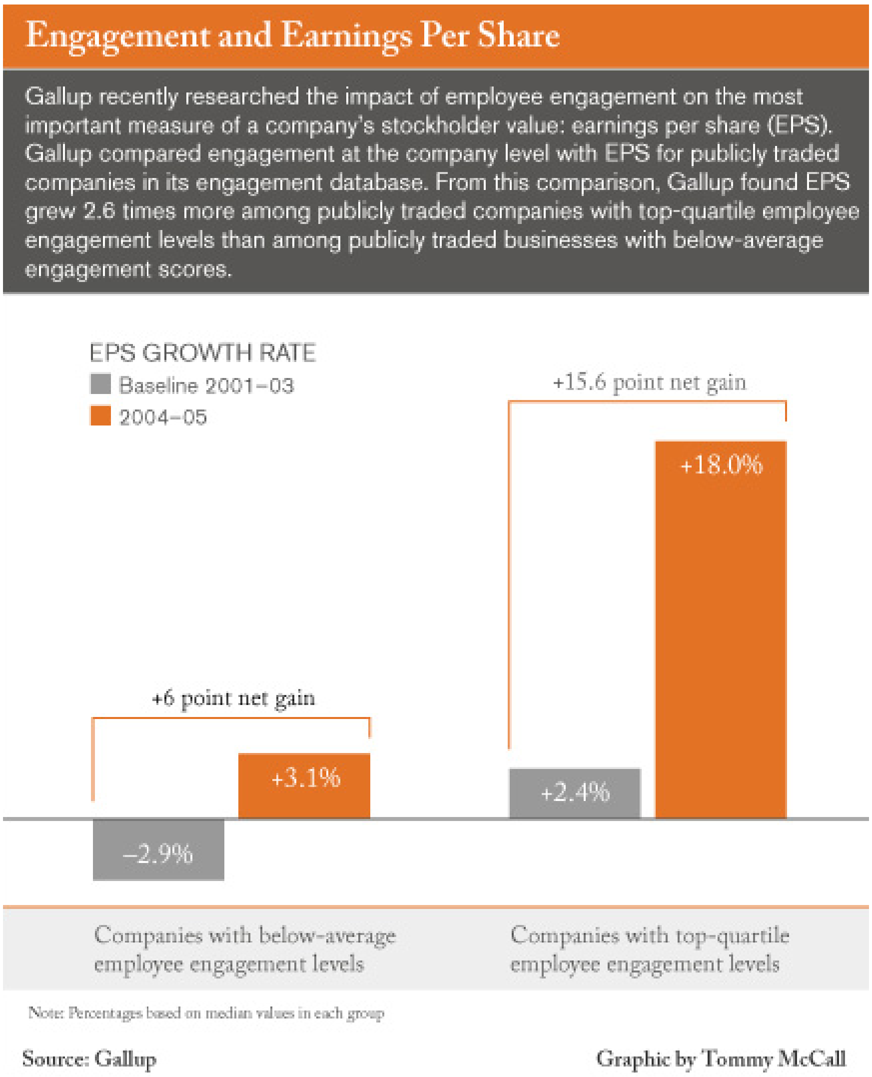

Figure 3: Engagement and EPS (Ott, 2007: 2)

Both Gallup and the Chartered Management Institute suggest a strong relationship between engagement and innovation (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 12). In an interview with Professor Julian Birkinshaw of the London Business School, MacLeod and Clarke (2009: 12) quote him as saying "…you cannot foster true innovation without engaged employees." This statement was confirmed in a Gallup survey in 2006, which found that two-thirds of engaged employees strongly agree that their workplace, through managers and colleagues, brings out their most creative ideas (Krueger and Killham, 2007: 2). In contrast, fewer than 1 in every 10 disengaged workers made the same assertion (Krueger and Killham, 2007: 2).

Other claims made in favour of employee engagement include:

- Engaged employees take an average of 2.69 sick days per year in the UK in comparison to 6.19 days for their disengaged counterparts (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 14). The CBI estimate that sick days taken in the UK amount to an annual economic loss of £13.4 billion (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 14).
- 70% of engaged employees believe that they know how to service customer needs, while only 17% of disengaged employees say the same thing (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 14).
- An engaged employee is 87% less likely than a disengaged employee to leave the organisation in which they work (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 14).
- 67% of engaged employees advocate their company, while only 3% of disengaged workers do the same (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 14).

Current trends indicate that employee engagement has not been widely targeted as a key performance driver (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 7), but with its strong positive relationship with business outcomes, engagement is a critical driver of business success (Lockwood, 2007: 2). To gain the rewards of an engaged organization, every individual, from employee, to manager, to executive, must be accountable for creating an environment conducive to engagement (BlessingWhite, 2011: 4).

Stimulators of engagement

Saks (2006: 602) suggest that six areas of an organisation are key to a state of either engagement or burnout (defined by Dictionary.com (2011) as fatigue, frustration, or apathy resulting from prolonged stress, overwork, or intense activity). These six areas are: workload, control, rewards and recognition, community and social support, perceived fairness, and values (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 5; Saks, 2006: 602). Engagement is concomitant to a sustainable workload, the feeling of having choice and control, appropriate recognition and rewards, a supportive organization/work-community, the impression of fairness and justice, and meaningful and valued work (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 5; Saks 2006: 603).

Robinson *et al.* (2004: 21) suggest that the strongest driver of engagement is a sense of being valued and involved. This driver is made up of four components:

1. Involvement in decision-making (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 21)

2. The extent to which employees feel able to voice their ideas, managers listen to their outlooks and value their inputs (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 21)

3. Opportunities for employees to develop themselves professionally (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 21)

4. The degree to which the organization is concerned with employees' health and well-being (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 21)

In relation to the fourth component of the value and involvement driver, Towers Perrin found that the most important driver of engagement was the extent to which employees believed that senior management had a sincere interest in their health and wellbeing (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009: 81).

MacLeod and Clarke (2009: 81) suggest that an engaged organisation is created through the following drivers:

- **Leadership** that provides a clear strategic vision, purpose, and blueprint for how each individual contributes to the purpose. Organisational aims, values and norms are communicated in a clear, strong and transparent manner. What the executive management needs to do in order to lead effectively, is illustrated in the diagram below:

Table 1: Executive engagement actions (MacLeod and Clark, 2009)

	Prevalence rank order (% who agree or strongly agree)	*Potential impact* rank order (gap in engagement levels of those whose leaders behave this way vs. population at large (31%))
Link the work of the organization to a larger purpose	1 (60%)	4 (10 pts)
Act in alignment with our organization's core values or guiding principles	2 (59%)	3 (10 pts)
Communicate honestly	3 (53%)	2 (12 pts)
Have created a work environment that drives high performance	4 (49%)	1 (13 pts)

- **Engaged managers** should facilitate and empower employees, rather than control or restrict them. They are committed to their charges' wellbeing by showing appreciation, respect and by providing rewards and recognition for employees' contributions. An illustration of the behaviours and of an effective manager and the behaviour's prevalence is provided below:

Table 2: Manager engagement actions (MacLeod and Clark, 2009)

	Strong correlation (gap of 40-43 pts between % Engaged and Disengaged whose managers act this way)	*Very strong* correlation (gap of 47 pts+ between % Engaged and Disengaged whose managers act this way)
Most prevalent actions (65% or more agree or strongly agree)	▷ Delegates assignments effectively ▷ Treats me like an individual with unique interests and needs ▷ Asks for and acts on my input	▷ Encourages me to use my talents
Less prevalent actions (60% or less agree or strongly agree)	▷ Provides me with regular, specific feedback on my performance	▷ Recognizes and rewards my achievements ▷ Has built a sense of belonging in our department or team

- An **employee voice** is encouraged whereby employee inputs are sought out, listened to, and employees can see that their opinions are valued and make a difference to the organisation. A strong sense that the organisation listens and is responsive to employee views enables the employee voice.

- **Integrity** is mandated in the organisation where behaviour conforms to stated values, leading to organisational trust.

Bakker and Demerouti (2008: 211) suggest that job resources play a key role in creating engagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2008: 211) define job resources as physical, social, or organisational aspects which:

- Reduce job demands and associated physiological and psychological costs,

- Are functional in achieving work goals; and

- Stimulate personal growth, learning and development

In particular, it has been found that social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy, and learning opportunities are positively associated with EE (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008: 211).

Robinson *et al.* (2004: 24) suggest that the following areas are of fundamental importance to engagement:

- Good quality line management - managers who:
    - care about their employees,
    - keep them informed,
    - treat them fairly,
    - encourage high performance,
    - take an interest in employees career goals,
    - provide opportunities for training and development,
- Two-way open communication:
    - employees are able to voice ideas,
    - employees are informed about things relevant to them,
- Effective co-operation:
    - between departments and functions,
    - between management and trade unions,
- A focus on developing employees:
    - employees feel that the organisation takes a long term view of their value,
    - employees receive the training they need to perform their work,
    - employees are provided with fair access to development opportunities,
- A commitment to employee wellbeing:

  - the organisation takes occupational health and safety seriously, seeking to minimize accidents, injuries, violence and harassment,
  - the company takes appropriate action should a problem arise,
- Clear and accessible human resource policies and practices:
  - executives and line managers are committed to company policies and practices
  - particular regard is shown by management toward performance reviews and equal opportunities,
- Fairness with regard to pay and benefits:
  - The organisation's pay and benefit schemes must be fair both internally and externally,
- A harmonious work environment:
  - employees are encouraged to respect and help one another.

Of the above, Robinson *et al.* (2004: xii) suggest that: good line management, two-way communication, effective internal co-operation, a development focus, commitment to employee wellbeing, and clear and accessible HR policies and practices, are the most important of their drivers of engagement.

BlessingWhite (2011: 9-10) note the following about engagement:

- The more senior you are the organization, the more likely you are to be engaged
- Engagement levels are higher amongst older employees
- Gender is a differentiator in some, but not all, geographic locations
- Contrary to an assumption that engagement decreases as an organization gets bigger, there is no pattern to suggest a negative relationship between company size and EE
- Engagement appears to increase with years of employment in the organisation. This view is however refuted by Ferguson (2007), who found the opposite to be true

- If an employee works in a client facing department or a department responsible for driving the company's short term strategy, they are more likely to be engaged

Social Exchange Theory

Although these authors indicate psychological, physical or organisational conditions that are necessary for engagement to exist, they do not fully explain why individuals respond to these conditions with differing degrees of engagement. Social exchange theory (SET) provides a strong argument for the cause and effect of engagement (Saks, 2006: 603).

SET involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 874). These interactions are interdependent (outcomes are based on a combination of parties' efforts) and rely on the actions of another person (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 874). These interdependent interactions have the potential to create high-quality relationships, but only under particular circumstances (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 874).

One of the pillars of SET is that relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal and mutual commitments (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 875). From an EE standpoint, trust is important for an engaged employee (BlessingWhite, 2011: 15). The most significant trust relationship for creating engagement in an organisation is between the employee and the executive rather than the employee and their immediate manager (BlessingWhite, 2011: 15). A high-quality relationship can only be built if the active parties conform to certain rules of exchange (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 875). The most important and beneficial rule is that of reciprocity (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 875).

Reciprocity, or payment in kind, is a bidirectional transaction, where both parties' actions are dependent on the behaviour and actions of the other (Rousseau, 1989: 128; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 876). Since the 1960's, reciprocity has been used to explain positive employee behaviour and the formation of positive employee attitudes (Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 219). In the 1980's, reciprocity was also used to explain organizational loyalty as well as positive employee behaviours that were neither formally rewarded, nor contractually enforceable (Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 219). Research suggests that positive, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization or its representatives, will create obligations, that the employee will satisfy with positive, beneficial behaviours directed at the organization (Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 219). It was also found that employees will seek to reciprocate in a way that maximizes the likelihood of the exchange partner noticing the effort (Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 219). This is because the feeling of indebtedness can only be reduced if the exchange partner is benefitted by the reciprocal action/behaviour (Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 219). Social exchange partners strive to maintain a balance within the relationship (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002: 5). If the relationship is perceived as being out of balance by both or either partners, they will attempt to return the relationship to equilibrium by exchanging physical and social resources (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2002: 5).

As already noted, reciprocity is a social *transaction* which suggests that an exchange of resources takes place. The resources that are exchanged through a reciprocal transaction have either economic or socio-emotional value (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 881). The economic resources of SET are information, money, goods, and services (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 880). The socio-emotional resources of exchange are love, status and citizenship behaviours (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 880; Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 220). The economic resources generally address financial needs and are usually tangible; the socio-emotional resources provide an individual with the knowledge that they are valued and/or treated with dignity (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 881).

Within the workplace there are two types of reciprocal relationships: exchange and communal relationships (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 882). Exchange relationships demand repayment within a particular time frame, involve the exchange of economic or quasi-economic goods, and are motivated by self-interest (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 882). An example of a workplace exchange relationship would be the economic relationship between an employee and the company for which they work. An employee works for a company in exchange for money, reciprocally, the company demands time and expertise from the employee in exchange for the money. Communal relationships are more open-ended and less time specific, involve the exchange of socio-emotional benefits, and emphasise the needs of the other party (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 883). A workplace example would be a manager taking the time to recognize, without an economic exchange, the contributions of the employees under their charge. This recognition could be as simple as a pat on the back or the giving of an employee of the month award.

Failure to meet the obligations of the exchange relationship will erode the quality of the relationship between the reciprocal parties (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004: 52). Frequent communication, sharing of information and a common frame of reference generally creates a high level of perceived and objective agreement on the obligations between the reciprocal parties (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004: 55). However, where there exists a discrepancy between the beliefs held by each of the parties regarding their relationship and the obligations implied by the relationship, mutual agreement, and hence reciprocity, cannot exist (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004: 55). As noted earlier, beliefs are an important feature of personality and an individual's cognitive process, both of which play an important part in an individual's predisposition to experience sustained states of employee engagement (Kular *et al.*, 2008: 3; Wolfradt and Dalbert, 2003: 16; Macey and Schneider, 2008: 19). A shared understanding is therefore critical for an effective trust relationship to exist between reciprocal parties.

Measuring engagement

The first consulting firm to popularize engagement in the workplace and administer engagement surveys was Gallup, an international business consulting firm (Harter *et al.*, 2009: 4). Gallup used, and still use, the proprietary Q^{12} employee engagement instrument, a twelve question survey that aims to be the minimum number of questions required to attract, focus and keep the most talented employees (Forbringer, 2002: 1). The Q^{12} questions are as follows:

1. I know what is expected of me at work.
2. I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right.
3. At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day.
4. In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work.
5. My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person.
6. There is someone at work who encourages my development.
7. At work, my opinions seem to count.
8. The mission or purpose of my company makes me feel my job is important.
9. My associates or fellow employees are committed to doing quality work.
10. I have a best friend at work.
11. In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress.

12. This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow.

These twelve questions are provided with a five point Lickert scale ranging from “extremely satisfied” (5) to “extremely dissatisfied” (1) (Harter *et al.*, 2009: 8).

The Institute for Employment Studies (IES), a UK based consultancy for human resource management, have also developed a twelve statement employment engagement survey (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 14). The questions in the IES survey are as follows:

1. I speak highly of this organisation to my friends.
2. I would be happy for my friends and family to use this organisation’s products/services.
3. This organisation is known as a good employer.
4. This organisation has a good reputation generally.
5. I am proud to tell others I am part of this organisation.
6. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
7. I find that my values and the organisation’s are very similar.
8. I always do more than is actually required.
9. I try to help others in this organisation whenever I can.
10. I try to keep abreast of current developments in my area.
11. I volunteer to do things outside my job that contribute to the organisation’s objectives.
12. I frequently make suggestions that improve the work of my team/department/service.

The final engagement survey to be discussed is the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), a 17 item measure of engagement. The instrument was developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) and is based on their definition of employee engagement as earlier described as a positive and fulfilling work-related psychological state that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 4-5). As was previously stated, these three states define state engagement alone.

The UWES is broken down into three sections each dealing with one of the states of emotional engagement (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5). Vigour has six questions associated with it (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5):

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time
5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally
6. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well

Dedication is assessed by the following five items (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5):

1. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose
2. I am enthusiastic about my job
3. My job inspires me
4. I am proud of the work that I do
5. To me, my job is challenging

The final state, absorption, is measured by these six items (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5):

1. Time flies when I am working
2. When I am working, I forget everything else around me
3. I feel happy when I work intensely
4. I am immersed in my work
5. I get carried away when I am working
6. It is difficult to detach myself from my job

The UWES is measured on a seven point frequency scale, ranging from 0, “never”, to 6, “always/every day” (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2006: 714).

IES note that organisations have a choice between standardised and customised engagement surveys (Robinson *et al.*, 2004). A standardised survey may not be entirely suitable for the organizational context, but allows for external benchmarking (Robinson *et al.*, 2004). Alternatively, a customised survey would be perfectly tailored to the organisational context, but would not allow for inter-organisational comparability (Robinson *et al.*, 2004).

Rogal and Warner (2010: 7), of DecisionWise consulting group, regard customized surveys as the most beneficial means of measuring engagement. Two of the problems that they sight with standardised EE surveys are:

- Organizations and consultancies rely too much on external benchmarking (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 7)
- Because organisations are externally focussed, there is an emphasis on increasing the engagement ‘score’ rather than on improving performance (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 6)

Rogal and Warner (2010: 26) recommend a customized internal survey. The internal survey will allow for the creation of internal benchmarks which will allow the organization to compare administrations, trend engagement against historical organisational change, and test the effectiveness of change initiatives (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 16). The business will also be able to create a personalised model for creating engagement within the business’ unique context as well as assess the drivers and inhibitors of engagement which may be distinctive to the organisation’s operating environment (Rogal and Warner, 2010: 16).

Conclusion

An accurate definition of employee engagement should contain definitions of the three facets of engagement: state/emotional, behavioural/physical, and cognitive/trait. Employees fall into one of five levels of engagement depending on their contribution to their organization, and how attached, absorbed and enthused they are. The business case for engagement showed a clear positive relationship between engagement and business performance indicators, including customer loyalty, profitability, productivity, revenue, employee retention, competitiveness and earnings per share. The drivers of engagement indicated that a high quality relationship between employee, manager and executive is critical for creating engagement. This relationship is dependent on perceptions of value, fairness, and openness, as well as the development of trust, loyalty and mutual commitment over time. The final section on measuring engagement showed that a customized survey is the optimal means of measuring engagement in order to best align the engagement survey process with organisational goals, strategies and needs. In the next chapter, social media and its associated concepts will be discussed in order to gain an understanding of the workings of an enterprise social network.

Chapter 3: Social Networks, Social Media and Social Capital

This chapter considers the nature of social networks, the academic complexity of social media and the concept of social capital as a function of social networks.

Introduction

Following on from chapter 2, chapter 3 introduces the concept of social networks, social media and social capital. The first section is a definition of a social network, followed by the antecedents of social network formation. The next section introduces the multi-faceted and contentious concept of social media and aims to provide some coherence in an incoherent field of study. Social capital is then described in terms of its definition, applicability in online discourses and the resources that it offers to employees.

Social Networks Defined

A network is defined by Brass (2011: 4) as a collection of nodes and a set of ties between the nodes that denote some form of relationship or lack thereof. In the context of a human social network, the nodes represent actors in the form of individuals, groups, or organizations. The actors are connected by:

1) **Similarity**: location, gender, interest, etc.
2) **Social relations**: kinship, friendship, roles, etc.
3) **Interactions**: advice, comments, etc.
4) **Flows of information**

Brass (2011: 5) notes that typical organizational behaviour research displays the links between actors as some form of interaction, or one of the more abstract concepts of trust, friendship or influence. The particular content of the relationships is however, only limited by the interest of the researcher (Brass, 2011: 5).

In the realm of social psychology, the basic social unit of the network is the dyadic relationship, which can also be called the one-to-one relationship (Brass 2011: 5). Brass (2011: 5) criticises this unit by noting that the term ‘network’ implies more than one link between actors. The value of the network perspective is that it goes beyond the one-to-one, and considers the structural organization of *many* actors (Brass, 2011: 5). Brass (2011: 5) cite Simmel (1950) and Krackhardt (1998) as positing the triad as the minimum unit for network analysis. The triad exhibits the relationship between dyads by having two links connecting three actors (Brass, 2011: 5-6).

The triad, illustrated in figure 4, introduces the concept of indirect relationships and paths (Brass, 2011: 6). This concept was popularized in Travers and Milgram's (1969) 'An Experimental Study of the Small World Problem'. In the study, a group of participants in Nebraska (the 'starters') were selected and assigned an arbitrary 'target' in Boston, Massachusetts (Travers and Milgram, 1969: 428). The starters were given several items of information regarding the target and were required to move a letter from themselves to the target by making use of their acquaintances, but not directly. The resulting 'chain' between the starter and the target would only end when the letter reached the target, or an acquaintance refused to participate in the experiment (Travers and Milgram, 1969: 428). Of the letters that reached the target, it was found that the mean number of links between starter and target was 4.6 or 6.1 depending on the indirect path chosen, in this case business connections or the target's hometown respectively (Travers and Milgram, 1969: 432). Brass (2011: 6) notes that this finding led to the idea of "six degrees of separation" between people and the associated term, "it's a small world".

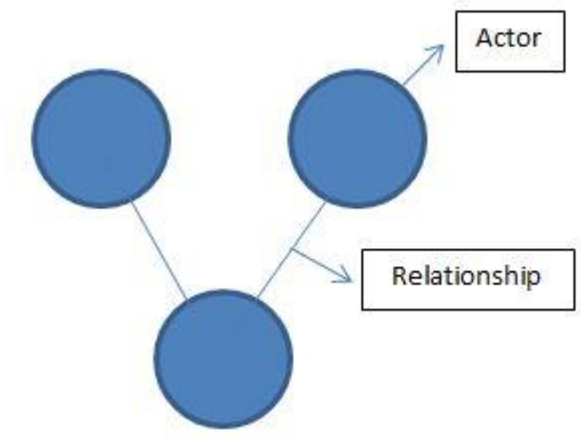

Figure 4: The Triad (Brass, 2011)

Concomitant to the concept of indirect links and paths is the assumption that resources of some kind flow through the connections in a social network (Brass, 2011: 6). An illustration of the resources moving between the actors in a social network was given in the previous chapter when Social Exchange Theory was introduced. The resources identified in SET included information, money, goods, services, love, status and citizenship behaviours (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 880; Settoon *et al.*, 1996: 220). To remind the reader, citizenship behaviours were defined by Smith *et al.* (1983: 653-654), as "… myriad acts of cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures of goodwill, altruism and other (such actions)".

The final assumption of social network research, as provided by Brass (2011: 7), is that the network itself provides the opportunities and constraints that affect the outcomes of participating groups and individuals. This assumption means that the relationships between the actors in the network may be used to interpret their behaviour (Brass 2011: 7).

To summarise the definition of a social network:

1. A social network is a structure of nodes/actors (individuals, groups or organizations)
2. Relationships or links exist between the nodes
3. The minimum unit of the social network is the triad (see figure 4)
4. The triad introduces indirect paths between actors
5. There is a flow of resources between the actors based on the relationships between them
6. The structure of the network directly impacts the behaviour of the actors and hence can be used to explain their behaviour

Antecedents of a Social Network

One might assume that modern communication technologies (online social networks, mobile telephony, email, etc.) would lessen the need for physical proximity between actors in order to foster stable and reliable relationships. However, many researchers have shown that there is no replacement for a shared locale in the formation of social bonds (Brogatti and Cross, 2003; Fulk and Steinfeld, 1990; Monge and Eisenberg, 1987). Not only is a shared location important, but also a shared social proximity between actors (Brass, 2011: 27). Brass (2011: 27) note that an actor is more likely to form a relationship with another actor up to two links away from them than one who is three or more links away.

Two studies of social networks within hierarchical organizations performed by Tichy *et al.* (1979) and Shrader *et al.* (1989) have particular significance for this research. Brass (2011: 27) suggests that superiors and subordinates in organizations who are directly linked hierarchically would find it difficult to avoid regular interaction. Brass (2011: 25) proposes that repeated interaction leads to social structure. As such, it would be reasonable to assume that an informal social network would exist parallel to the institutionalized hierarchy of the organization based on regular patterns of interaction, a shared social context and physical proximity (Brass, 2011: 27). Brass (2011: 25), making use of the work of Barley (1990), suggests that the resulting parallel social structure represents stable patterns of actor behaviour, interaction and interpretation. The patterns become institutionalized and constrain the behaviour of the actors within the social structure; the constrained behaviour in turn reinforcing and validating the patterns of the social structure (Brass, 2011: 25). Brass (2011: 25) goes on to suggest that the entrenched patterns of behaviour, interaction and interpretation facilitate social interaction in much the same way as language facilitates communication.

Tichy *et al.* (1979), cited by Brass (2011: 27), found that a higher density of interaction and connectedness exists in organic organizations than in mechanistic organizations (see Table 3 for a comparison of organic and mechanistic structures). The organic organizational structure is important to the context of this research and will be discussed in the Chapter to follow.

Table 3: Mechanistic versus Organic Organisations (Sisaye and Birnberg, 2010)

Dimensions	Organic structures	Mechanistic structures
Organizational structures	Loose, decentralized, and flexible structures	Centralized, orderly, and highly controlled inflexible structures
	Provide discretion in resolving conflict and ambiguity	Provide rules and regulations to resolving conflict and ambiguity
	Limited structures increase communication and fast response to environmental changes	Complex structures limit the ability to respond fast to environmental changes
Management control systems	Less reliance on budgetary goals by pursuing balanced strategies	Emphasis on budgetary goals for performance evaluation
Modes of communication	Prevalence of less rules and regulations	Dominance of organization rules and regulation
	Lateral and horizontal communication	Vertical top-down communication
Degree of autonomy	Loosely governed structures promote higher degree of autonomy	Centralized structures diminish autonomy and increase management hierarchy and administrative intensity
	Job descriptions are loose. Jobs that are less specified and flexible allow employees to engage in a variety of work settings that are stimulating, less repetitive and low boredom	Job descriptions are rigid. Specialize jobs and specificity of roles make the tasks rigid contributing to monotony and boredom
Change orientation	Proactive to change	Reactive to change
	Look for the present and future	Emphasis on the past
	Responsive to innovation	Less responsive to innovation change
Approaches to innovations	Specialization, autonomy, lateral communication, and network structure support the initiation of innovations	Hierarchy of authority, management control, and top-down decision making, and communication enhances the implementation if innovations
Relationship to innovation	Support technical innovations-new technologies, products, and services	Support administrative innovations-new organizational structures, policies, strategies, and administrative procedures

Sources: Adapted from Burns and Stalker (1961, pp. 568-9), Damanpour (1987, pp. 685-7), Gosselin (1997), Perrow (1986) and Scott (1981)

In a similar study to that of Tichy and Fombrun (1979), Shrader *et al.* (1989) found that organic organizations were characterised by high density social networks, with a high degree of connectivity between actors, complexity, symmetrical interactions and a low number of social clusters. Symmetrical relationships are characterised by reciprocity, empathy, apology, dialogue, respect, justice and revenge (Beaumont, 2009). The characteristics of a symmetrical relationship are described in table 4 below.

Table 4: Characteristics of Symmetrical Relationships (Beaumont, 2009)

Reciprocity	As introduced in the previous chapter, reciprocity is an exchange relationship which seeks to maintain a social balance between the reciprocal parties. Reciprocity can be interpreted as a principle of fair exchange (Beaumont, 2009).
Empathy	Empathy is the ability to perceive a situation from the point of view of another (Beaumont, 2009). Empathy creates the opportunity for shared

understandings as introduced by the concept of SET in the previous chapter.

Apology Associated with reciprocity, apology is a social mechanism that is used in an attempt to offset the loss suffered by another (Beaumont, 2009). Apology is used when the loss experienced cannot be undone by the offender.

Dialogue Dialogue is the exchange of ideas between peers (Beaumont, 2009). Beaumont (2009) postulates that all other interactions are asymmetrical.

Respect Respect is the recognition of the existence a symmetrical relationship and the adherence to the obligations of the symmetrical relationship (Beaumont, 2009).

Justice Justice is a principle of equality before the rules of the relationship/organization/nation/etc. (Beaumont, 2009). Fairness is often used as a synonym for justice (Beaumont, 2009).

Revenge Revenge is the destructive side of reciprocity (Beaumont, 2009). Revenge is used to restore balance after receiving symmetrical injury, harm or loss (Beaumont, 2009).

To follow is a narrative of the six antecedents of social networks as proposed by Brass (2011: 27-34), being homophily, balance, human and social capital, personality, culture and, clusters and bridges.

Homophily

As stated earlier, both physical and social proximity provide a much needed context for the formation of relationships between actors. However, Brass (2011: 27) notes that actors do not form relationships with everyone in their shared physical and social space. This is because similarity breeds connection between actors (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 415). This is the concept of homophily, named such by Lazarsfeld & Merton (1954), a phenomenon observed as early as the times of Plato (424/423 BC – 348/347 BC) and Aristotle (384 BC – 322 BC) (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 416). Homophily does not dictate that connection formation between dissimilar actors does not occur, but rather that connection forming between similar parties occurs at a significantly higher rate than between dissimilar parties (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 416). The emergent fact of homophily is that relational and physical resources will become localized within groupings of similar individuals (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 416). Lazarsfeld & Merton (1954) identified two types of homophily, separation by *status* and separation by *values* (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 419). Status similarity is composed of all the usual measures that segregate societies, in approximate order of salience: race, ethnicity, gender, age, religion, occupation and behavioural patterns (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 419). Value similarity is based on the similarity of actor ability, belief, attitude and aspiration (McPherson *et al*, 2001: 428).

Brass (2011: 28) suggests that actor similarity eases communication, increases the predictability of actor behaviour, creates interpersonal trust, encourages reciprocity and reinforces identity of self. As an example, interactions between *dissimilar* parties is likely to be infrequent, not reciprocal, have less importance in the mind of either party, be asymmetrical, unstable, weak, and have a higher rate of interactional decay (Brass, 2011: 28). Brass (2011: 28) state that similarity of actors may be positively related to the degree of connectedness in social networks, a feature of organic organizational structures described earlier.

Comparative homophily does not *perfectly* predict the creation of connections between actors as similarity may lead to competition for limited resources, and actor diversity may be complementary which would lead to a superior quality of decision making (Brass, 2011: 28).

In an organizational context, a particular demographic or personality homophily may be encouraged through an organization’s selection, socialization and reward processes (Brass, 2011: 29). This would suggest that an actor's level of connectedness and integration with others in the organisation would be influenced by their similarity to the emergent organizational personality/demographic profile, and would provide a logical explanation for the marginalization of minorities (Brass, 2011: 29).

Balance

As previously introduced, balance can refer to the perceived symmetry of a relationship or it may refer to the theory of cognitive balance proposed by Heider (1946). The reader may refer to table 4 for a review of the characteristics of symmetrical relationships. Cognitive balance posits that attitudes towards actors and causal unit formations are influenced by one another; causal unit formations may refer to particular situations, events, ideas or things, etc. (Heider, 1946: 107). A unit, or relation, is formed between two actors based on the causal factor and is regarded as balanced if the complete entity (actors and causal factors) has the same dynamic character in all respects, either positive or negative (Heider, 1946: 107). To illustrate:

- Actor *a* likes (*L*) object *o*
- Actor *a* likes (*L*) actor *b*
- Actor *b* made object *o*
- Actor *b* likes (*L*) object *o* that they made
- Hence *aLo*, *aLb* and *bLo*
- This causal relation is positively balanced

To illustrate an imbalanced relation:

- Actor *a* likes (*L*) object *o*
- Actor *a* dislikes (~*L*) actor *b*
- Actor *b* made object *o*
- Actor *b* likes (*L*) object *o* that they made
- Hence *aLo*, *a~Lb* and *bLo*

- This relation is imbalanced

If the relation is imbalanced, forces towards a balanced state will arise (Heider, 1946: 108). Either the dynamic character of the entity will change to reflect a balanced state, or the relations will change through actor actions or through the cognitive reorganization of the relation (Heider, 1946: 108). If balance cannot be achieved, the existing state of imbalance will produce tension (Heider, 1946: 108).

In a social network context, balance is used to explain the formation of weak ties between actors, as exemplified in the concept of ‘a friend of my friend is my friend; a friend of my enemy is my enemy’ (Brass, 2011: 30).

Human Capital, Social Capital and Affect

Brass (2011: 31) cites Lin (1999) in suggesting that actors with a large amount of human capital (skills, abilities, resources, expertise) would be attractive social partners for actors with less human capital. Such a relationship possibility would be tempered by the person with more human capital’s conceivable reluctance to partner with lower status actors (Brass, 2011: 31). None the less, such a situation would indicate that human capital creates social capital; social capital being “…the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 119). Conversely, actors with more social capital would be attractive social partners for those actors with less (Brass, 2011: 31). Having a relationship with someone with a large amount of social capital would give an actor access to a larger pool of resources through the available indirect relations (Brass, 2011: 31). Access to a larger pool of resources would indicate the formation of human capital: thus social capital creates human capital, an observation made by Coleman (1990) (Brass, 2011: 31). Brass (2011: 31) hence proposes that human capital creates social capital, which in turn creates more human capital, which creates more social capital, and so on.

Psychological affect (emotion) also plays a key moderating role in the formation of social bonds (Brass, 2011: 31). Casciaro and Lobo (2008: 655) state that a critical aspect of an organization’s social structure is the organization’s affective structure. They go further to say that network researchers (Gouldner, 1954; Blau, 1955; Lincoln and McBride, 1985; Podolny and Baron, 1997; Gibbons, 2004) often draw a line between task-related ties and personal ties based on person liking; with the inference that person liking and emotion only have influence over personal ties (Casciaro and Lobo, 2008: 655). However, network and organizational scholars (Allen and Cohen, 1969; Brass 1984; Burt, 1992; Ibarra, 1992; Haythornthwaite and Wellman, 1998) have shown a significant overlap between the task and affective structures of an organization (Casciaro and Lobo, 2008: 655). This finding has significant meaning in terms of how emotion and person-liking impact resource access in such organizational processes as collaboration, coordination, and innovation; all of which depend upon the organization's informal social network (Casciaro and Lobo, 2008: 656). Casciaro and Lobo (2008: 676) made the following discoveries regarding affect and competence in task interaction:

1. Affect is a moderator of competence in predicting task interaction. In the words of Brass (2011: 31), people are more likely to choose the 'lovable fool' than the 'competent jerk' in task interactions. This finding is illustrated in figure 5.

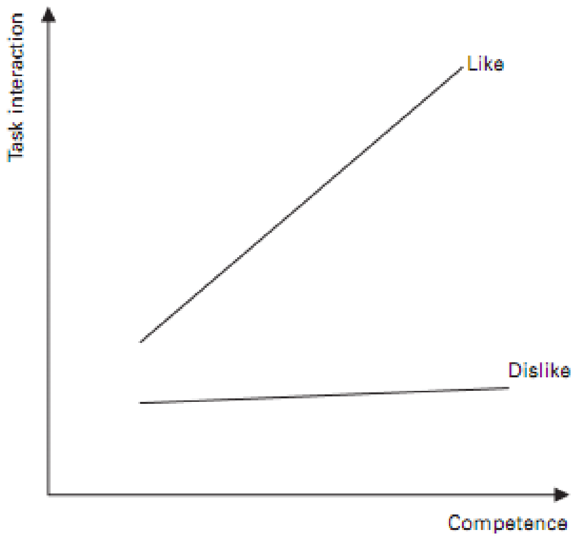

Figure 5: Affect as a moderator of competence predicting task interaction (Casciaro and Lobo, 2008: 676)

2. Affect is a moderator of task interaction in predicting competence. This is because "…people selectively seek out, notice, and interpret data in ways that reinforce their existing attitudes" (Casciaro and Lobo, 2008: 677). This finding is illustrated in figure 6 over page.

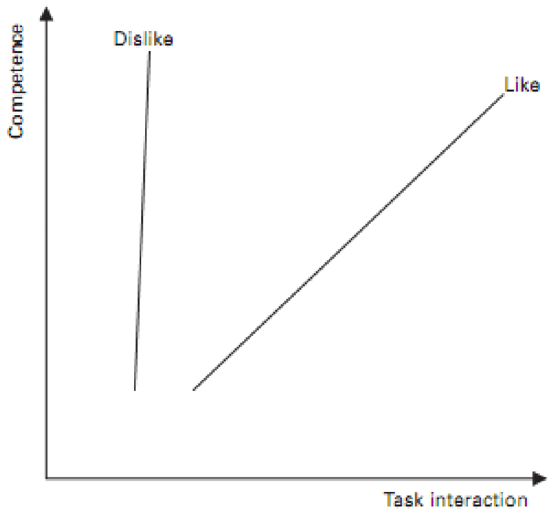

Figure 6: Affect as a moderator of task interaction in predicting competence (Casciaro and Lobo, 2008: 676)

Personality

Social network perception, as described by Casciaro (1998), is an individual's ability to perceive social connections and social network structure. Casciaro (1998: 331) notes that some people have "… an uncanny knack for knowing who's friends with whom, who works with whom, or who sleeps with whom in their work-setting, neighbourhood, or circle of friends." Others are less adept as perceiving the structure of their social networks (Casciaro, 1998: 331). The ability to be aware of social connections has important significance at the individual, group and organizational levels (Casciaro, 1998: 332). At the individual level, effective perceivers in a social network are more capable of getting the resources they want, because they know which social connections to exploit (Casciaro, 1998: 332). This positive association between effective perception and resource access has a subsequent effect at the group level (Casciaro, 1998: 332). This effect was demonstrated in a study by Ancona (1990) and Ancona and Caldwell (1992) which analysed the external effectiveness of teams in an organization and the role that scouts and ambassadors play in the team's effectiveness. Scouts and ambassadors are those team members who observe and manipulate the external environment in order to secure the resources the team requires for its continued existence (Casciaro, 1998: 332). While the studies did not directly analyse the impact of accurate social perception on scout and ambassador effectiveness, Casciaro (1998: 332) posits that accurate perception of the social networks from which the needed resources come would greatly enhance the group's effectiveness. At the group, organizational and inter-organizational levels, Casciaro (1998: 332) suggests that boundary-spanning roles are best played by those individuals who best perceive the social channels through which resources flow.

Other personality traits have been shown to play a role in social network formation and structure. One of the traits identified by Mehra *et al.* (2001) is that of self-monitoring: an individual’s predisposition to monitoring social cues and presenting an image of self that the audience wants to see (Brass, 2011: 31). Self-monitors have been found to tend to fill structural gaps in social networks, connecting with actors who are not themselves connected (Brass, 2011: 31). A 2006 study by Kalish and Robins (2006) found that individualism, neuroticism and a high locus of control were related to the formation of structural holes within a social network.

Brass (2011: 32) indicates that many studies of individual traits and their impact on social network structure lack a sound theoretical basis. For this reason, individual trait studies often find few correlates and cannot explain much of the measurable variance in results.

Corporate Culture

Current research suggests that cooperative cultures versus competitive cultures plays an important role in moderating social networks (Brass, 2011: 32). Brass (2011: 32) does however recommend that more research is required to assess the full impact of national and organizational cultures on social network formation and structure.

Clusters and Bridges

As already discussed, homophily and balance would indicate that the world is organized into social clusters of close-friends and family with similar demographic profiles and value systems (Brass, 2011: 32). Actors within these clusters tend to reinforce one another and become more similar, fostering tightly woven cliques (Brass, 2011: 33). Returning to Travers and Milgram’s (1969) study, it is the bridges that link clusters that allow resources to move between clusters and make it ‘a small world’. In their study, Travers and Milgram (1969) found that letters that circulated within a single social cluster never reached their intended destination. Only those letters that reached a bridge between clusters were able to move closer to the recipient (Brass, 2011: 33).

With homophily and balance being such powerful factors in social circles, one might ask why bridges exist at all. Granovetter (1973) and Burt (1992) found that there are particular advantages to bridging clusters. Focusing on resources within clusters, particularly information, Granovetter (1973) and Burt (1992) both discovered that information circling within a single cluster soon becomes timeworn and loses its value. Bridges are able to access novel information that exists within other clusters, gaining new insights and perspectives that play an important role in creative and innovative processes (Granovetter, 1973; Burt, 1992). Brass (2011: 33) suggests that many other factors can influence the formation of bridges between clusters but more research is required to identify the significant factors.

Social Media

Social media is a term which has generated a fair amount of debate in scientific and business circles as far as its actual meaning is concerned (Mangold and Faulds, 2009: 358; Blackshaw and Nazzaro, 2006: 2; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010: 60-62; Asur and Huberman, 2010: 1; Bradley, 2010). Blackshaw and Nazzaro (2006: 2) suggested that social media "…describes a variety of new sources of online information that are created, initiated, circulated and used by consumers intent on educating each other about products, brands, services, personalities, and issues." Making use of this definition, Mangold and Faulds (2009: 358) posit that social media is an umbrella term for a wide range of online word-of-mouth platforms as illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5: Social Media Examples (Mangold and Faulds, 2009: 358)

Type	Example(s)
Social networking sites	Facebook, Google+, MySpace
Creative works sharing sites	YouTube, Flickr, Creative Commons
User-sponsored blogs	The Unofficial Apple Weblog, Cnet.com
Company-sponsored blogs	Apple.com, P&G's Vocalpoint
Company-sponsored cause/help sites	Click2quit.com, Dove's campaign for real beauty
Invitation-only social networks	ASmallWorld.net
Business networking sites	LinkedIn

Collaborative sites	Wikipedia
Virtual Worlds	Second Life, World of Warcraft
Commerce communities	eBay, Amazon, Craig's List
Podcasts	
News delivery sites	Current TV
Educational material sharing sites	MIT OpenCourseWare, MERLOT
Open source software communities	Mozilla's spreadfirefox.com, Linux.org
Social bookmarking sites	Digg, Reddit, del.icio.us, Newsvine

The suggestion that social media is an online word-of-mouth platform is supported by Erik Qualman (2009) in his book *Socialnomics*. Qualman (2009) takes the concept a step further by proposing that social media moves beyond word-of-mouth into world-of-mouth. Where word-of-mouth has the potential shortcomings of being: (1) slow to spread, and (2) the original meaning can be altered or misunderstood as the message spreads, world-of-mouth has the ability to instantly reach the eyes/ears of a massive, global audience (Qualman, 2011: 2). Secondly, Qualman (2011: 2) notes that the messages sent via social media are in a digital format, which makes it less likely for world-of-mouth to be altered or misunderstood by recipients.

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) sought to define social media by differentiating it from the seemingly related concepts of Web 2.0 and User Generated Content. Web 2.0 is described as a new way in which people make use of the World Wide Web (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010: 60-61). Where Web 1.0 was a platform where content and applications were created by individuals; Web 2.0 represents a technological platform and paradigm shift toward participatory and collaborative content generation (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010: 61). User Generated Content (UGC) is used to describe publicly available content on the Web created by end users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010: 62). The OECD (2007) states that Web content must meet three requirements in order to be qualified as UGC: (1) the content must be publicly available on a website or, must be available on a social networking site to a select group of people, (2) the content must demonstrate some level of creative effort, and (3) the content must have been created in an end user's private capacity, rather than professionally with a commercial interest.

Making use of the concepts of Web 2.0 and User Generated Content, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010: 61) propose that "…social media is a group of internet based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content."

Asur and Huberman (2010: 1) define social media as "…a category of online discourse where people create content, share it, bookmark it and network at a prodigious rate." Similarly Bradley (2010), a group vice-president of Gartner Research, defines social media as "…a set of technologies and channels targeted at forming and enabling a potentially massive community of participants to productively collaborate", but includes six core principles that he suggests gives social media its value. The six core principles are:

1. Participation
    - Social media is a vehicle for mass collaboration (Bradley, 2010). Without community participation, no value can be gained through social media (Bradley, 2010).
2. Collective
    - In social media, participants collect around the content to contribute rather than individually creating content and distributing it (Bradley, 2010).
3. Transparency
    - Participants are aware of one another's contributions and are able to use, reuse, enhance, confirm, critique and rate the content generated (Bradley, 2010).
4. Independence
    - No coordination between participants is required for the generation of content (Bradley, 2010).

5. Persistence

    - The content generated through social media collaboration is stored in a persistent state and can be viewed, enhanced and shared as and when participants choose (Bradley, 2010).

6. Emergence

    - This principle is the recognition that one cannot optimize, control, design, predict or model all collaborative interactions as one would a fixed business process (Bradley, 2010). It is the realisation that one of social media's benefits is that it is an environment where social structures can naturally emerge (Bradley, 2010).

Given the Bradley (2010) definition of social media, perhaps the most relevant definitions for social media are generated in the social media platforms themselves. Making use of the social networking site Google+, entrepreneur and community member Vasile (2011) provided the following definition for social media, "Social Media is about communication. Social Media is about being social. It's about communication on a two-way level. It's about engagement." Fellow community member and social media specialist Stenger (2011) had the following to say about social media, "Social Media is more of a relationship channel, a connection channel. Each and every tweet, update, video, post, is a connection point to another human being. And it's the other human being who will determine your worth to them."

Social Capital

From earlier in this chapter, one may recall that one of the antecedents of social networks is social capital. Not only was social capital identified as an antecedent, but is also an outcome of social network formation. As will become clear when the link between social networks and employee engagement is discussed (Chapter 5), social capital plays a key role by connecting actors to one another and to the resources that they require to do their best possible work, two of the connections required for optimal role performance (Deloitte, 2009).

Social capital, roughly conceptualised by Adler and Kwon (2002: 17) as "…the goodwill that is engendered by the fabric of social relations and that can be mobilized to facilitate action", has become important in the study of families, economic development, governance, public health and education to name a few (Adler and Kwon, 2002: 17). In organizational research, social capital has been shown to influence:

- Career success (Burt, 1992; Gabbay and Zuckerman, 1998; Podolny and Baron, 1997),
- The pool of recruits available to firms (Fernandez *et al.*, 2000),
- Intra-firm resource exchange and product innovation (Gabbay and Zuckerman, 1998; Hansen, 1998; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998),
- Cross-functional team effectiveness (Rosenthal, 1996),
- Reduced employee turnover and organizational dissolution rates (Krackhardt and Hanson, 1993; Pennings *et al.*, 1998),
- Improved supplier relations and inter-firm learning (Smitka, 1991; Uzzi, 1997; Kraatz, 1998).

The wide applicability of social capital as a concept is regarded by Adler and Kwon (2002: 17) as reflecting a primal feature of human society, namely that social ties of one kind (friendship, kinship, etc.) can often be exploited for many different purposes (material gain, information seeking, etc.).

Social capital, much like social media, has been described as meaning "…many things to many people" (Narayan and Pritchett, 1997: 2). This point is illustrated in a selection of definitions provided by Adler and Kwon (2002: 19) where some theorists have adopted an internal view of social capital, others an external view, and another group has sought to remain neutral of the internal/external distinction. The external or "bridging" view concentrates on social capital as a resource that exists within the social network tying a central actor to other actors (Adler and Kwon, 2002: 19). Social capital as a concept and the external view was first posited by Bourdieu in 1985 (Portes, 1998: 3). His definition, which exemplifies the external perspective, is given as "the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 119). Adler and Kwon (2002: 19) propose that the external view of social capital helps to explain the differing success of individuals and firms in their competitive rivalry, in particular by virtue of their direct and indirect ties to other actors within their social networks. In contrast the internal view, popularized by Coleman (1990), proposes that the social capital of a group (firm, community, nation) is in the internal structure of the group, specifically the social features that impart cohesiveness to the group thus enabling collective goals and collective action (Adler and Kwon, 2002: 21). The original definition for internal social capital was offered by Coleman (1990: 302) as follows: “Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure.” The third group of social capital theorists aim to provide an internally and externally neutral definition for the concept (Adler and Kwon, 2002: 21). Adler and Kwon (2002: 21) suggest that the neutral standpoint has merit for two main reasons:

1. The distinction between the external and internal views is largely a matter of perspective; the relationship between an employee and their co-workers is external to the employee but internal to the organization.

2. Secondly, the two views are not mutually exclusive of one another. The effectiveness of a group is influenced both by its external linkages to other groups and its own internal social structure.

A neutral definition for social capital which builds on the foundation created by Bourdieu (1985) is offered by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998: 243): “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network.”

Previously, it was noted that social networks both require social capital for their formation and produce social capital as a consequence. This was said in the context of social networks but not explicitly online social networks. Wellman *et al.* (2001) published a journal article entitled “Does the Internet Increase, Decrease, or Supplement Social Capital?” This article provides a strong basis for understanding the online sphere and social capital creation. Wellman *et al.* (2001: 438-441) provide a discussion of the increase, decrease and supplement positions before giving their own findings on the topic. To summarise the discussion:

Table 6: Does the internet increase, decrease or supplement social capital? (Wellman *et al.*, 2001: 438-441)

Position	**Positional Argument**
Increase	The internet provides a meeting space for people with common interests and overcomes the traditional communicative barriers of space and time. These factors would increase communication online and offline as users share more information and form stronger interpersonal bonds hence facilitating face-to-face encounters.
Decrease	Being a less rich communicative format than face-to-face communication, online social networks are less able to foster strong relationships and impart social (such as emotional support) and material resources to participants. The internet may also compete for an individual's time with normal activities, decreasing the individual's observance of their immediate physical and social surroundings. For new users, online interaction has been indicated in avoidance of face-to-face interaction. The internet has been shown to increase weak ties (acquaintances) in the digital sphere but decrease stronger ties (kinship, friendship) in the physical realm for new users.
Supplement	This view presents the Internet as best understood in the context of a person's overall life. It is integrated into an individual's daily life, with online communication viewed as an extension of offline activities. Although face-to-face contact continues, it is complemented by the Internet's ease in connecting geographically dispersed people and organizations bonded by shared interests. The Internet may also be more useful for maintaining existing ties than for creating new ones. Supplementalists propose that one's level of Internet involvement will not be associated with either more or less offline activity.

Wellman *et al.* (2001: 442) provide the following diagram of American internet usage measured in the course of the study:

		Factor Loadings[a]	
Internet Activity	*Days/Year*	*Asynchronous*	*Synchronous*
Send/receive e-mail	270	.682[b]	–.050
Take part in mailing lists	105	.729[b]	.038
Access digital libraries, newspapers, or magazines	124	.717[b]	.111
Take online college courses	11	.403[b]	.237
Purchase products or services	8	.564[b]	.078
Surf the Web	154	.533[b]	.310
Participate in Usenet newsgroups	26	.511[b]	.352
Engage in chats	25	.173	.701[c]
Visit MUDs, MOOs, other multiuser environments	7	.141	.709[c]
Play multiuser games	11	–.015	.727[c]

NOTE: MUDs = multi-user dimensions; MOOs = multi-user object-oriented environments.
a. Principal components analysis with orthogonal varimax rotations.
b. Items included in asynchronous scale.
c. Items included in synchronous scale.

Figure 7: Internet usage by activity (Wellman *et al.*, 2001: 442)

A more recent internet usage graph is provided by Nielsen Research in Figure 11. The diagrams show a significant change between 2001 and 2010; where Email had been the mainstay of internet usage, the Nielsen graph shows how online social networking sites, blogs and multiplayer games have become the majority owners of American internet usage.

The results of the Wellman *et al.* (2001: 450) showed that internet usage supplements traditional communicative channels in terms of social capital generation. In particular, the internet is used to maintain ties with friends, although the frequency of interaction is closely associated with distance; the further apart two actors are located from one another, the less frequently they will interact online (Wellman *et al.*, 2001: 450). A particularly relevant finding of the Wellman *et al.* (2001: 450) study is that involvement in online organizational and political activities results in increased offline involvement in organizational and political activities. Wellman *et al.* (2001: 450) said the following regarding the finding: “Rather than distinct online and offline spheres, people are using whatever means are appropriate and available at the moment to participate in organizations and politics.”

Figure 8: Division of American internet users time online (Nielsen, 2010)

Ellison *et al.* (2007: 1146) propose that the resources which accrue through social capital to members of a social network include: access to shared and private information, relationships, and the capacity for group action. From earlier one may remember that social ties (relationships) of one kind (friendship, kinship, etc.) can often be exploited for many different purposes (material gain, information seeking, etc.). Relationships are composed of a diversity of resources that social capital holder have access to. In terms of Social Exchange Theory, as defined in the previous chapter, the resources available to reciprocal participants include:

- information,

- money,
- goods and services,
- love,
- status,
- and citizenship behaviours

Leana and Van Buren (1999: 544) suggest that social capital resources and hence its benefits, cannot be realized unless two components of social capital are in place. The first is strong associability, defined as both a willingness and an ability to engage in collective action (Leana and Van Buren, 1999: 544). Secondly, they suggest that trust is a key element of organizational social capital (Leana and Van Buren, 1999: 544). The Leana and Van Buren (1999) model suggests that some level of each element is necessary for a firm to have organizational social capital.

Enterprise Social Networking

Up to now social media as an umbrella term for many interrelated computer based tools has been discussed. However this research is specifically concerned with enterprise social networks, a distinct sub-tool within the social media umbrella. Hughes (2010) divides social networks into two categories as used by business: ‘consumer social media’ encompasses established social networks (Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) which businesses use as marketing channels, ‘enterprise social networks’ refer to tools and technologies that are applied *within* a business context. According to Hughes (2010) enterprise social networks are typically composed of the following aspects:

- Blogging
- Micro-blogging
- Discussion forums
- Wikis
- Document/media sharing capability

- Relationship maps: clarified as the details of members' professional relationships within the network

Hughes (2010) states that all of the features above exist within consumer social media but they are not suitable for internal business applications. Dellow (2012) provides an alternative view of the characteristics that define an enterprise social network; for Dellow (2012) the defining aspects are:

1. Supports rich user profiles
2. Allows users to communicate in an open and public way
3. Is based on relationships defined by the organisation rather than by friendship

Stated as being in no way prescriptive or exhaustive, the following graphic provides a feature overview of an enterprise social network with back-end (business process) connections, business partner connections, employee connections and customer connections (Dellow, 2012).

Figure 9: Enterprise Social Network Attributes (Dellow, 2012)

A negative case regarding enterprise social networking is offered by Milroy (2010). In his view, enterprise social networking fails to provide business value because is strictly inhibits connections (Milroy, 2010). Public social networks such as Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn provide value through mass collaboration; users have access to an unlimited pool of collaborators (Milroy, 2010). In contrast an enterprise social network is private by nature restricting user's pool of collaborators (Milroy, 2010). Milroy's (2010) view is that enterprises cannot and should not attempt to substitute enterprise social networks (private) for public social networks; the benefits of each are very different. Instead enterprise social networks should be used to help organisational members to work ever more closely together (Milroy, 2010).

According to Hughes (2010) the defining nature of a social network, whether public or corporate, is that it is people-centric. This means that priority is given to relationships and discourse within the social network rather than to content and processes (Hughes, 2010). This people focus of enterprise social networking is important as will be indicated in chapter 4 where organisational cultures are discussed.

Conclusion

The beginning of this chapter considered the definition of a social network which was determined to be a structure of nodes linked by relationships of which there can be no less than two in order to create indirect paths with resources flowing between the actors. The antecedents of social network formation were described as homophily, balance, human and social capital, personality, culture and, clusters and bridges. The social network section was followed by an analysis of social media focused on the search for a definition in a fragmented research area. A definition by Stenger (2011) was selected as a best fit; “Social Media is more of a relationship channel, a connection channel. Each and every tweet, update, video, post, is a connection point to another human being and it’s the other human being who will determine your worth to them.” The final part of the chapter was concerned with the concept of enterprise social networking, an internal corporate social network with a distinct people focus where relationships have the highest priority.

Chapter 4: Organizational Culture and Leadership

Building on chapters 2 and 3, chapter 4 provides an overview of organizational cultures as well as leadership styles that are linked with Employee Engagement generation.

Introduction

In the previous chapter, social networks, social media and social capital were described and discussed. The title of the research is “Toward a culture of engagement: Leveraging the enterprise social network”. In order to explore the meaning of culture, general and then organisational culture is described and discussed in this chapter. After discussing organisational culture it emerges that leadership plays a critical role in the formation and maintenance of an organisational culture. Leadership styles are considered for their suitability in fostering employee engagement within organizations.

Organisational Culture

Hofstede *et al.* (2010) identify two different perspectives on the definition of culture. The first, named ‘culture one’, is perceived as civilization or the refinement of the mind with specific focus on the results of the refinement, namely education, art and literature (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). The second, ‘culture two’, is the definition subscribed to by social anthropologists; culture is not only those activities that refine the mind, but also such basic tasks as eating, vocal pitch in conversation, eye contact, how much emotion is shown in social gatherings, maintenance of personal hygiene, and the like (Hoftede *et al.*, 2010). Making use of ‘culture two’, Hofstede *et al.* (2010) propose that culture is “…the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.” Culture is distinct from both an individual’s personality and general human nature. This is because culture is learned through a shared social context and is specific to a particular group (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Cultural learning is inclusively a behavioural, cognitive and emotional process (Schein, 1990: 111). Referring back to the second chapter of this work, the reader may recall that one of the definitions of employee engagement was “…the harnessing of organisation member’s selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances (Kahn, 1990: 694).” It is thus a reasonable proposal that employee engagement is a culture in itself.

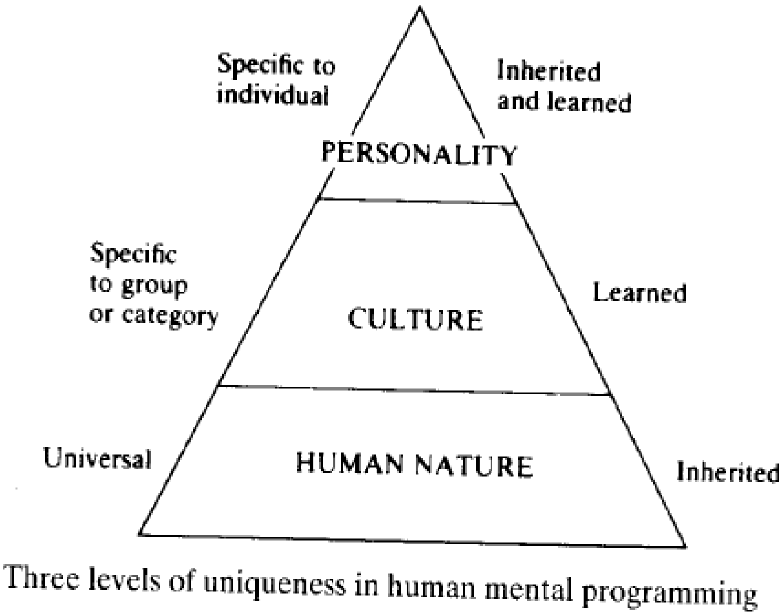

Figure 10: Human Mental Programming (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010)

Schein (1990: 111) suggests that a culture can only exist if a group has been stable enough (in membership) and shared a long enough history together for it to form. This implies that some organizations do not have a culture, either because of a high member turnover rate or because the organization has not existed for long enough (Schein, 1990: 111). For those organizations with the history and stability necessary for culture formation, Schein (1990, 111) suggests that the fields of systems theory, Lewinian field theory and cognitive theory provide a strong theoretical basis for the shared subscription to the culture by the members: systems tend toward a state of equilibrium by reducing imbalances and producing alignment of assumptions. Schein (1990: 111) does however note one shortcoming of this concept, namely that systems are composed of subsystems and it is not clear at what level the equilibrium will manifest. This implies the existence of subcultures depending on whether the subsystems are tightly integrated, and hence have shared experiences, or not (Schein, 1990: 111). Schein (1990: 111) defines culture as "…(a) a pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore (e) is to be taught to new members as the (f) correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Schein (1990: 111) notes that the strength and internal consistency of a culture will be determined by:

1. the stability of the group,
2. the length of time that group has existed for,
3. the intensity of the shared learning experiences,
4. the mechanisms through which learning takes place (either positive reinforcement or avoidance conditioning) and,
5. the strength and clarity of the assumptions held by the group’s founder(s) and leader(s).

Hofstede *et al.* (2010) put forward a framework of cultural differences composed of four levels:

1. **Symbols** – includes words (jargon), gestures, pictures and objects (clothing, flags, etc.) that only have meaning for a particular culture. Cultural symbols change over time as new ones come into being and old ones are abandoned.
2. **Heroes** – people (alive, dead or imaginary) who possess particular characteristics of high value to a particular culture and thus serve as models of proper behaviour.
3. **Rituals** – collective activities that are considered socially imperative to a particular culture. Such activities may be of a social or a religious nature.

The above three levels of culture are gathered under the umbrella of cultural **practices** (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010).

The fourth layer, and the core of any culture, is denoted by **values** (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). According to Hofstede *et al.* (2010), values are the broad tendency to prefer one subjective state to another. Such states are always represented by a positive and a negative form and may include such concepts as:

- Good and evil
- Normal and abnormal
- Beautiful and ugly
- Rational and irrational

- Logical and illogical
- Natural and unnatural

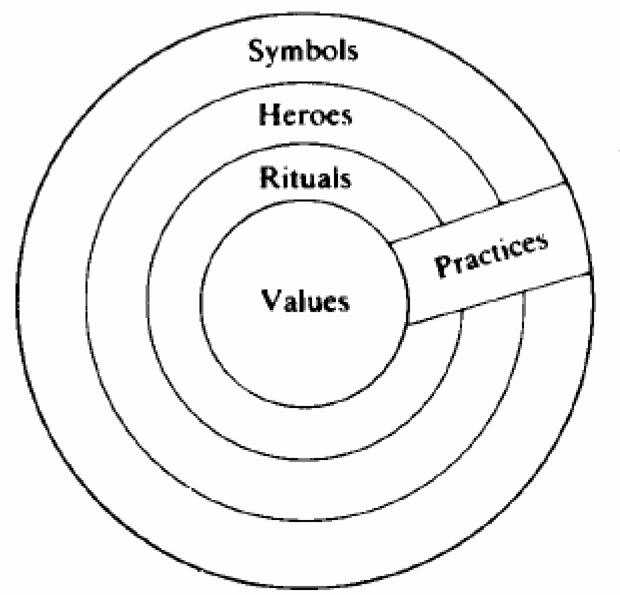

Figure 11: The Onion Diagram: Manifestations of Culture at Different Levels of Depth (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010)

Hofstede *et al.* (2010) go further to note that values are not consciously learnt but rather implicitly and are generally fixed by the age of 10. Since values are learnt so early in human development they cannot be conferred or observed by outsiders of a particular culture: they can only be inferred by member's behaviour under particular circumstances (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010).

A specific type of organizational culture has become increasingly important because maximizing the value of employees as intellectual assets requires a culture that promotes their participation and facilitates both individual and organizational learning, knowledge creation, and a willingness to share knowledge with others (Naicker, 2008: 14). A study by Knowles *et al.* (2003) at Monash University (Australia) considered four culture types from the perspective of current and ideal cultures amongst MBA students. The four culture types identified by Knowles *et al.* (2002: 2) were:

1. **Power** – Characterised by organizations where superiority over the weak is emphasized. These companies tend to value market domination over all else.

2. **Role** – Members of role organizations are governed by rules, procedures and legitimacy. Focus is placed on the means employed rather than the end goal.

3. **Task** – This culture is concerned with promoting the corporate mission, provoking a strong sense of purpose amongst its members. The mission and not the means is the most important concern.

4. **Person** – Characterised by organizations where a friendly working environment, interest in one's work, and personal development are valued most.

Knowles *et al.* (2002) found that the most prevalent culture type was role followed by power, task and significantly far behind, person. The ideal cultures desired by the sample group were identified as task, person, role and power in the course of the study (Knowles *et al.*, 2002). Based on these macro-level findings the following salient micro-findings were recognised by Knowles *et al.* (2002):

1. The ideal culture preferences were found to be true across all identified types of management (General Management/HR, Marketing, Accounting/Finance, Technical and Other).

2. In terms of current culture, those working in technical areas tended to identify their current work environments as task environments while marketing and finance managers were more likely to identify their places of work as power cultures more than any other culture type.

3. Role and power cultures were found to be more prevalent than desired by respondents, while task and person cultures were found to be less prevalent than desired.

4. The older, higher paid, and more experienced a respondent was, the more likely they were to identify task as there ideal culture.

5. Female respondents showed a strong preference for person cultures over their male counterparts.

Given the discord between the current and ideal cultures identified by Knowles *et al.* (2002), two possible explanations were provided by the researchers. The first was that there was a poor value match between the managers and the organisations for which they work, calling for greater emphasis to be placed on selection, induction and training in order to match individuals to the organization (Knowles *et al.*, 2002). The second explanation, the one favoured by the authors, was that the leadership in the sample group's organizations was 'behind the times', i.e. they show no concern for organizational culture (Knowles *et al.*, 2002). At this point it must be stressed that leadership and culture are intimately related (Robbins, 2001; Schein, 1990). Schein (1990: 115) identified two mechanisms through which culture is created: norms formed around critical incidents and identification with leaders. In terms of identification with leaders, when a group first forms there are dominant figures ('founders') whose values, assumptions and behaviour act as a blueprint for how a group should be structured and how it should function (Schein, 1990: 115). The founders' example will then be applied to mundane and critical incidents to determine what parts of the example work and what parts do not (Schein, 1990: 115). The group's shared learning experience will gradually (depending on group stability and integration) generate shared assumptions (Schein, 1990: 115). However Schein (1990: 115) noted that leaders, particularly new ones entering the organization, will continue to try and embed their own assumptions and values into the group. Leaders will find this increasingly difficult as subcultures, based on unique learning experiences, begin to develop: but if the leaders have enough power and influence, they will continue to have a profound impact on the culture of the organization (Schein, 1990: 115). Schein (1990: 115) proposed the following as the primary and secondary mechanisms of organizational culture formation:

Table 7: Primary and secondary culture formation mechanisms (Schein, 1990: 115)

Primary Mechanisms	**Secondary Mechanisms**
1. What leaders pay attention to, measure and control	1. Organizational design and structure
2. How leaders react to critical incidents and crises	1. Organizational systems and procedures
3. Deliberate role modelling and coaching	2. The design of the physical space, facades and buildings

4. Criteria for the allocation of rewards and status	3. Stories, legends, myths and symbols
5. Criteria for recruitment, selection, promotion, retirement and excommunication	4. Formal statements of organizational philosophy, creeds and charters

Robbins (2001: 522) proposes the following model of culture formation:

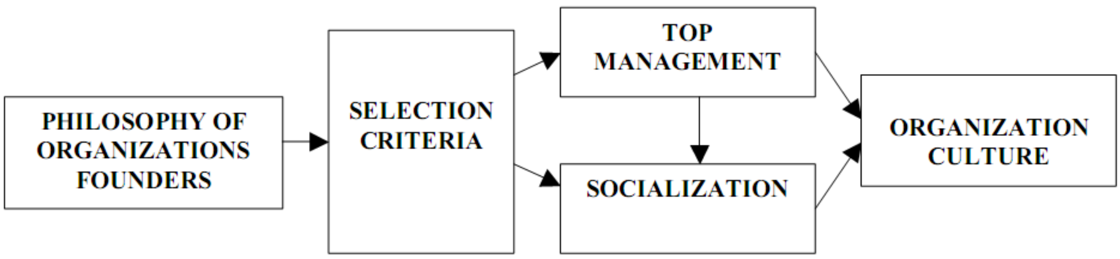

Figure 12: How organizational culture form (Robbins, 2001: 522)

Just as with the Schein (1990) model for culture creation, the initial organizational culture in the Robbins (2001) model is based on the values, assumptions and behaviour of its **founders**. Robbins (2001: 522) and Aswathappa (2003: 483) identify three organizational practices that generate and maintain the organization's culture. The first is that of **selection** which is greatly influenced by the initial culture of the founders (Naicker, 2008: 23). Selection is not only a matter of matching skills to roles but also matching individual culture to the organizational culture (Naicker, 2008: 23-24). The next organizational process which creates culture is the decision-making of **top management** (Naicker, 2008: 24). Top management has a major influence on norm creation such as risk aversion/taking, how much autonomy managers should give subordinates, appropriate dress and the criteria for raises/promotions to name a few (Naicker, 2008: 24). The third practice is that of **socialization** of new members.

Socialization is the process of indoctrinating new members in the culture and practices of the organization (Naicker, 2008: 24). This process is necessary as new members who are not properly socialized pose the greatest disruptive risk to the culture of the organization (Naicker, 2008: 24). In the Robbins (2001) model, the four identified areas in concert will produce an emergent organizational culture that is, once again, largely dependent on the leadership within the organization.

Leadership

As has already been stated, leadership plays a critical role in the culture of an organization; one might say that the leadership 'sets the tone' of the working environment (Branham and Hirschfeld, 2010). In Chapter 2, it was clear the role that leadership plays in either creating a culture of employee engagement or destroying it. This view is echoed by Branham and Hirschfeld (2010) in their book "*Re-Engage: How America's Best Places to Work Inspire Extra Effort in Extraordinary Times*" when they stated the best leaders create cultures of partnership rather than cultures of blame. These leaders display both honesty and integrity in their dealings with those around them: they listen to the opinions of their employees, take them into consideration and value two-way communication within the organization (Branham and Hirschfeld, 2010).

A paper by Liu *et al.* (2003) considered four different leadership styles and the situations to which they would be best suited. Prior research works (Wright *et al.*, 1994; Wright and Snell, 1998) found that the nature of a firm's human capital and the way in which it is managed can have a significant impact on both employee and firm performance (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 128). The foundation of this finding, as exemplified in the Lepak and Snell (2002) framework for categorizing employment modes, is that multiple employment arrangements exist within an organization at any point depending on (A) the value of the human capital and (B) the uniqueness of the human capital, and each mode will require a different leadership style (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 130). The value of human capital is determined by its contribution to the firm's competitive advantage and hence its performance (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 130). The uniqueness of human capital will impact its associated transaction cost, forcing the firm to consider whether to internalize or externalize the human capital and to consider the tenure of contract work (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 130). The Lepak and Snell (2002) framework defines four different employment modes; contracting, acquisition/jobs-based, alliance/partnership, and internal development/knowledge-based.

- **Contracting** – used for those employment relationships where both value and uniqueness is considered as being low to the organization. This employment mode tends to include specific performance requirements and involve little organizational commitment (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 130-131). Examples provided by Liu *et al.* (2003: 131) of contract positions include administrative and support staff, janitorial staff, low-level clerical workers and assemblers.

- **Acquisition/Jobs-Based** – when value is high but not unique to the firm this employment mode would be suitable. The firm relies on the acquisition of the valuable skills from the external job market but limits investment in training and development (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131). Examples of such human capital includes administrative workers, engineers, salespersons, and customer service agents (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131).

- **Alliance/Partnership** – this employment mode is suited to human capital that has low value but high uniqueness to the organization. An alliance is generally established between the firm and an external party where there is collaboration on a joint outcome (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131). An alliance is based on trust, information sharing and long-term reciprocity between the parties (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131). The external parties may include software engineers, consultants or development trainers (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131).

- **Internal Development/Knowledge-Based** – when value and uniqueness are high to the organization, the firm will tend to encourage a long-term employment outlook, foster organizational commitment and provide development opportunities for the employees in question (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131). Such an employment mode is dedicated to the monetization of the high-uniqueness, high-value human capital and its enduring retention (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131). Examples of this class of human capital may include analysts, sales personnel, management, and research and development personnel (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 131).

In proposing a typology of leadership styles, Liu *et al.* (2003: 132) identify four types as empirically proven to be distinct from one another by Pearce *et al.* (2000):

1. **Directive** – such leaders seek to establish compliance by relying on behaviours such as command and direction, assigned goals, and punishment (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133). Subordinates have little discretion in the design of their role and how it should be accomplished as they rarely have any say in decision-making (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133).

2. **Transactional** – this leadership type is based on a series of transactions (power, status, resources) between the leader and the follower centred around agreed upon performance goals (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133). The main focus of this style is on setting goals, clarifying the link between performance and rewards, and providing constructive feedback to keep followers on task (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133).

3. **Transformational** – in contrast to transactional leadership, the transformational leader inspires followers to transcend their own self-interest and work toward a higher purpose or mission (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133). The focus areas of the transformational leader include long-term goal setting, promulgating a vision and inspiring followers to work toward it, as well as nurturing trust and commitment within the group (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133).

4. **Empowering** – the final, and most radical, leadership style seeks to empower employees by promoting self-control, encouraging participative decision-making, and allowing employees to innovate and act relatively independently of external control (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 133). Liu *et al.* (2003) propose that the key performance areas of this leadership style are promoting self-discipline and a sense of enjoyment in employees, as well as encouraging creative thinking patterns and constructive habits.

In marrying leadership styles to employment modes, Liu *et al.* (2003: 135) propose a typology as contained in Figure 13 over page. From the perspective of employee engagement, the shortcoming of this typology is (A) that contract workers (those with low uniqueness and low value to the organization) can never be engaged, and (B) acquisition/jobs-based employees are unlikely to ever be engaged. In explanation, recall from Chapter 2 that the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework for defining employee engagement was composed of three elements: trait engagement, state engagement and behavioural engagement. Of interest here would be the fact that key parts of state engagement are organizational commitment and psychological empowerment, neither of which are deemed critical for contract or acquisition positions by Liu *et al.*, (2003) (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 6-10). In terms of behavioural engagement (defined by organizational commitment behaviour, role expansion and personal initiative), directive and transactional leadership, which are both prescriptive in terms of behaviour and non-participative in terms of decision-making, would not engender behavioural engagement. It is apparent that transformational and empowering leadership are the only two leadership styles that may be compatible with employee engagement.

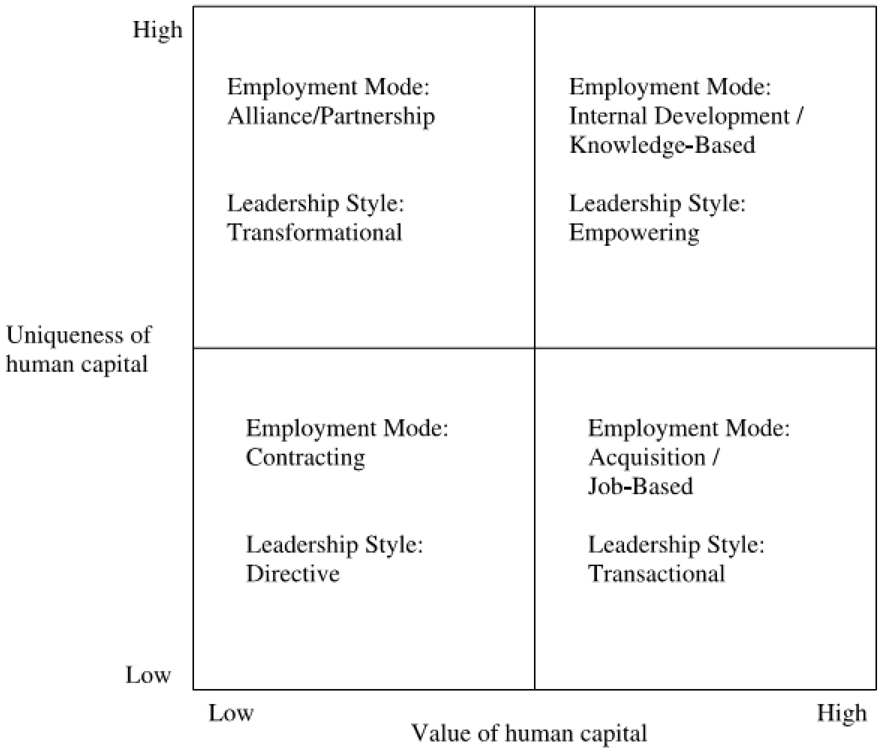

Figure 13: An integrative typology of employment mode and leadership style fit (Liu *et al.*, 2003: 135)

Transformational Leadership

The concept of transformational leadership was first introduced by Burns (1978) as an improvement on the existing theory of transactional leadership (Bass, 1999: 9). Bass (1999: 10) states that as early as the end of the Cold War, a premium began to be placed on the flexibility of the organization, team and individual in a rapidly changing business environment. This meant that many unskilled/semi-skilled jobs were either automated or outsourced to the Third World (Bass, 1999: 10). The jobs remaining generally required a higher level of education and training for prospective employees (Bass, 1999: 10). As education and training improved, teams of professionals in the workplace began to take less interest in hierarchical relationships and instead focused more on equal partnerships, leading to increasingly flat organizations (Bass, 1999: 10). Transformational leadership, which Bass (1999: 10) suggests fosters autonomy and challenging work, became well suited to these new working environments (Bass, 1999: 10). This is particularly true as the concepts of job security and firm loyalty became less realistic and important in the business world, meaning that transactional leadership, which focused solely on setting performance targets and handing out rewards when they were met, provided little impetus for professionals to remain with one particular firm for any significant length of time (Bass, 1999: 10). The transactional system did little to align individual values and goals with those of the organization; something that would encourage loyalty and action beyond the call of duty, a mission transformational leadership was employed to achieve (Bass, 1999: 10). Bass (1990: 10) identified the following as the factors playing a critical role in aligning individual and organizational values and engendering citizenship behaviours in the workforce:

1. Trust in leadership
2. Changes to the process of selection
3. Changes in employee training
4. Changes in employee development practices
5. Changes in organizational policies

All five of these factors would be guided by the paradigm of transformational leadership (Bass, 1999: 10). At this point the reader is referred back to organisational culture section of this chapter where culture formation was discussed. In this regard, two culture formation models were highlighted; the Schein (1990) model (see table 12), and the Robbins (2001) model (see figure 12). A strong parallel can be drawn between the proposed alignment process and the culture formation processes, clearly indicating how a change from transactional leadership to transformational leadership is a change in organizational culture, reinforcing the link between culture and leadership. The proposal that engagement is a culture should also be recalled (page 48) in that the culture change proposed by Bass (1999: 10) has the stated purpose of engendering citizenship behaviours, which were identified in Chapter 2 as a feature of employee engagement, specifically behavioural engagement. This insight implies a link between leadership, culture and employee engagement.

So what is transformational leadership? The first step may be to illustrate transactional leadership as an opposing style. As already stated, transactional leadership is an exchange relationship between the leader and the subordinate to meet the subordinate's self-interest (Bass, 1999: 10). Transactional leadership may take one of several forms:

- **Contingent reward** – the leader makes clear the requirements for reward through direction or participation (Bass, 1999: 11).
- **Active management-by-exception** – the leader constantly monitors the subordinate and takes corrective action if standards are not met (Bass, 1999: 11).
- **Passive management-by-exception** – the leader waits and only takes corrective action as and when problems arise (Bass, 1999: 11).
- **Laissez Faire** – the leader never takes corrective action (Bass, 1999: 11).

In contrast, transformational leadership seeks to raise followers' maturity and ideals beyond self-interest to concern for the well-being of others and the organization (Bass, 1999: 11). Transformational leadership is an active process of:

Table 8: Characteristics of Transformational Leadership (Bass, 1999: 11)

<table>
<tr><th>Characteristic</th><th>Description</th></tr>
<tr><td>1. Idealized influence</td><td rowspan="2">The leader envisions a desirable future, communicates how it may be reached, sets an example to be followed, sets a high standard of performance and shows determination and confidence.</td></tr>
<tr><td>2. Inspirational leadership</td></tr>
<tr><td>3. Intellectual stimulation</td><td>This is displayed when the leader fosters innovation and creativity in their followers.</td></tr>
</table>

4. *Individualized consideration*	This is seen when leaders attend to the development needs of their followers through coaching and support. Tasks may be delegated as opportunities for growth.

Bass (1999: 11) notes that all leaders display a frequency of both transactional and transformational behaviours. The most effective and satisfying leaders use transformational processes more than transactional, although they should not be regarded as mutually exclusive; both transformational and transaction processes are required for the best of leadership (Bass, 1999: 11). Organizations and teams where transformational leadership is more often employed have greater alignment between group and individual goals, are more intellectually stimulated, are higher performing, more empowered, flexible and creative, and have observably higher team spirit (Bass, 1999: 11).

Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) in agreement with Burns (1978) proposes that authentic transformational leadership must be grounded in moral foundations. The authenticity of leadership, and hence its acceptability and degree of inspiration, will depend upon three ethical pillars (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1998):

1. The moral character of the leader
2. The ethical values espoused in the leader's vision, communication and application, which are either accepted or rejected by their followers
3. The morality of the processes of social ethical choice and action that leaders and followers engage in and jointly pursue

Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) note that many transformational leaders walk a fine line of moral integrity: in their efforts to focus on the positive, to be inspirational, and to maintain the enthusiasm and morale of followers, they may be manipulative. These pseudo-transformational leaders withhold information until it will do the most good, they put on a façade of confidence even when they are uncertain of the vision they espouse, they are secretly more interested in themselves than in their followers, and knowingly sell fantasies to them rather than attainable ideals (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1998). Brass and Steidlmeier (1998) contrast authentic and pseudo-transformational leadership according to the four characteristics described in table 9.

Table 9: The difference between authentic and pseudo-transformational leadership (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1998)

Characteristic	Authentic	Pseudo
1. *Idealized influence*	Their vision is morally uplifting for all; they focus on the best in their followers (harmony, charity and goodness). The authentic conforms to a clearly defined and enforced set of ethical standards that they promote within the organization.	Their vision frequently highlights fictitious "us-them" differences, this is particularly apparent in their focus on the worst in their followers (conspiracies, fantasy dangers, insecurities and excuses). They are the "false messiahs" of history; their vision is created and communicated for their own gain.
2. *Inspirational leadership*		
3. *Intellectual stimulation*	These leaders sway followers on the merits of the issue alone. They bring about a change in values through the relevance and the merit of their vision to the ultimate benefit and satisfaction of their followers. Rational discourse.	They rely on authority and underemphasise reason; they feed on the ignorance of their audience. They do not tolerate views that conflict with their own. Emotional argumentation.
4. *Individualized consideration*	Concerned with developing followers into leaders (empowerment). They need	Concerned with maintaining the dependency of their followers. These leaders are

	power as much as anyone else but channel it into the service of others.	concerned with power and gaining more of it. Insiders may know them as deceptive, domineering, egotistical demagogues.

Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) suggest that culture plays a role in how authentic leadership will be determined by different groups. Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) state that for transformational leadership to be authentic, it must incorporate a central core of moral values; yet the "practices" (refer to figure 10) of such values are highly culturally relative. Not only is this a reality, but the ordering of values may also vary between cultures (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1998). These observations led Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) to suggest that “perhaps the greatest challenge of leadership is precisely to bridge ethical relativism by forging a platform of common values and stimulating alignment and congruence of interests.” The goal of the transformational leader is a commitment to the search for moral excellence and not the laying out of a perfect blueprint for all to follow; after all, a leader is only human (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1998)

Servant Leadership

After considering the model of transformational leadership, servant leadership, as the logical extension of empowering leadership in figure 13, will now be considered. Stone *et al.* (2004: 349) state that a passing look at transformational leadership and servant leadership may leave one with the impression that the concepts are very similar indeed. One may even go so far as to say that they are the same theory (Stone *et al.*, 2004: 349). Stone *et al.* (2004: 349) however propose that the key difference between the theories lies in leader focus; namely that transformational leaders are concerned with organizational objectives while servant leaders are more concerned with their followers. Prior to a model created by Russell and Stone (2002), the concept of servant leadership was undefined and lacking in empirical support (Stone *et al.*, 2004: 352). The Russell and Stone (2002) model of servant leadership is organized as follows:

Table 10: Functional and accompanying attributes of servant leadership (Russell and Stone., 2002: 147)

Functional Attribute	**Accompanying Attribute(s)**
Vision	Communication
Honesty and Integrity	Credibility
Trust	Competence
Service	Stewardship
Modelling	Visibility
Pioneering	Influence Persuasion
Appreciation of others	Listening Encouragement
Empowerment	Teaching Delegation

In comparing transformational and servant leadership, Stone *et al.* (2004: 353) propose the situation as per figure 13. As can be seen there is clear congruency between the two leadership theories which Stone *et al.* (2004: 354) suggest is because "…both transformational and servant leadership are attempts to define and explain people-oriented leadership styles." The following points of departure are highlighted (Stone *et al.*, 2004: 354):

1. Greater emphasis is placed on service to the followers in servant leadership.

2. Servant leaders, unlike other leaders, gain influence through servanthood itself, which allows their followers great freedom to exercise their latent and acknowledged abilities.

3. Servant leaders place more trust in their followers than a leader who relies on any degree of directive leadership (as would be the case in the transactional elements of transformational leadership).

Transformational leadership attributes	Servant leadership attributes
Idealized (charismatic) influence	Influence
Vision	*Vision*
Trust	*Trust*
Respect	Credibility and competence
Risk-sharing	Delegation
Integrity	*Honesty and integrity*
Modeling	*Modeling* and visibility
	Service
Inspirational motivation	
Commitment to goals	Stewardship
Communication	Communication
Enthusiasm	
Intellectual stimulation	
Rationality	Persuasion
Problem solving	*Pioneering*
Individualized consideration	*Appreciation of others*
Personal attention	Encouragement
Mentoring	Teaching
Listening	Listening
Empowerment	*Empowerment*

Note: Functional attributes in italic print – accompanying attributes in regular print

Figure 14: Comparison of transformational and servant leadership (Stone *et al.*, 2004: 353)

To provide a definition of servant leadership, Graham (1991: 111) proposes that "…it is the leader who models service by humbly serving the led, rather than expecting to be served by them." In this statement lies a puzzle, servant leadership is a gift to the followers, but it appears strange that servant leadership tends to inspire the followers to pass the gift on to others (Graham, 1991: 111). This puzzle may have been solved by the proposer of the servant leadership theory, Greenleaf (1970: 7), who stated that the true test of servant leadership is whether those you are serving have grown as people; are they healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely to make themselves servants? Coupled with this, what is the effect of your leadership on the least privileged in society; will they benefit or at least not be more deprived? These questions contain the reality of servant leadership; that leadership is not true servant leadership unless it meets these minimum requirements: that followers grow, become servants themselves, and the least worthy of society are lifted up.

According to Graham (1991: 111) servant leadership also helps to alleviate three problems that hierarchical structures/unilateral power tend to create:

1. The inherent fallibility of humankind, both at the individual and corporate levels
2. The tendency of high-power positions to encourage narcissism in their occupants, leading to an excess of hubris
3. The tendency of habituated subordination in low-power positions to lead to complacency and a loss of critical thinking ability

Graham (1991: 112) suggests that the exercise of relational power (the power contained in relationships) is the best defence against the three problems. This is because relational power "… has as one of its premises the notion that the capacity to absorb an influence is as truly a mark of power as the strength involved in exerting an influence (Loomer, 1976: 20)." The emphasis of relational power is on humility as a defence against hubris (Graham, 1991: 112). This implies that it is not enough for a leader to listen to subordinates and stakeholders, but also to allow themselves to be influenced by what they have heard (Graham, 1991: 112). Graham (1991: 112) identifies "good moral dialogue" (Drake and Baasten, 1990; Waters, 1988) as a manifestation of relational power in the workplace and can be facilitated in the following ways:

- The leader legitimises it by taking part themselves, encouraging followers to debate ethics, organizational policies and practices.
- Leaders can show concern for a wide range of stakeholders, which means that organizational decisions must benefit or at least not harm all stakeholder groups.
- The servant leader can encourage diversity and dissent to combat complacency and facilitate learning for all parties.

Graham (1991: 113) suggests that servant leadership exceeds transformational leadership in two ways. First, servant leadership recognizes the organization's social responsibility to either benefit or at least not further deprive the underprivileged of society (Graham, 1991: 113). Secondly, because servant leaders are servant first and leaders second they are credible when they say "this is for your own good"; with transformational leadership the leader is a servant of the organization first and their followers second (Graham, 1991: 113).

Sendjaya *et al.* (2008: 406) state that the concept of servant leadership has frequently been rooted in the field of theology. They note that many modern publications concerning servant leadership associate themselves with Christianity (Banks and Powell, 2000; Blackaby and Blackaby, 2001; Ford, 1991; Sanders, 1994; Wright, 2000) but cite Kurth (2003) as proposing that all religious and non-religious philosophies teach servant leadership practices (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 406). The common thread in classical literature is that the servant leader does not only <u>do</u> acts of service but they also <u>conceptualize</u> themselves as a servant (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 406). In support of this Jaworski (1997) suggests that a servant leader shows great moral conviction and strength of character by not only performing the role of a servant, but also taking on the nature of a servant.

Sendjaya *et al.* (2008) propose a conceptual framework of servant leader behaviour composed of six dimensions: voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal relationships, responsible morality, transcendental spirituality, and transforming influence.

<u>Voluntary subordination</u> is exemplified by the servant leader's willingness to serve legitimate needs regardless of the nature of the service, who the person is that they serve, or their own mood (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 406). "The readiness to renounce the superior status attached to leadership and to embrace greatness by way of servant-hood is considered a hallmark of servant leadership (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407)."

A servant leader can be their authentic self as a leader through their servanthood; that is to say that they are the only leaders capable of authentic leadership (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). Authentic servant leadership is made manifest through the servant leader's humility, integrity, accountability, security in self, and vulnerability (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). These qualities allow servant leaders to work in the background, spend time on small details and make seemingly inconsequential decisions without reward or notice (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). The servant leader's secure sense of self allows them to be accountable, humble and vulnerable to their followers, allowing their follower's strengths to come to the fore (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407).

The authenticity of a servant leader has a profound impact on the relationships that they form (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). The servant leader engages with and accepts followers for who they are, not how they make the leader feel (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). This acceptance allows followers to experiment, develop and to be creative without fear of reprisal (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2008: 407). The servant leader subscribes to a philosophy of radical equality, treating followers as equal partners in the organization (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). These relationships has been described as covenantal relationships characterised by shared values, open-ended commitment, mutual trust, and concern for the welfare of the other party (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2008: 407).

Sendjaya and Sarros (2008: 407) state that the exercise of power will always raise ethical issues in any leader-follower relationship. For this reason the servant leader's vision and the means that they employ must be morally legitimate, carefully reasoned, and ethically justifiable (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). A leader must exercise responsible morality in their decisions and actions (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 407). Sendjaya and Sarros (2008: 407) cite Graham (1991) in saying that servant leaders employ relational power which facilitates good moral dialogue. The moral and ethical position of the servant leader has the capacity to bring ethical reflection to environments where ethics are typically compromised (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 408).

Research suggests that servant leadership and spiritual leadership are conceptually similar constructs (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 408). The relationship between the two constructs is described by Fry (2003; 708) who suggested that servant leadership is a meeting of service and meaning; the leader is in harmony with basic transcendental spiritual values and by acting on these values they are able to serve those around them, their organization, and society as a whole. Similarly to spiritual leaders, servant leaders are concerned with bringing wholeness and integration of life to workplaces often characterised by disconnection, compartmentalization and disorientation (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 408).

Critical to the concept of servant leadership is its transformative ability; the fact that a servant leader's transformational influence has the stated goal of creating new servant leaders (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 408). The transformation is facilitated through visioning, modelling a personal example in visible ways, mentoring and empowering followers, and trust (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 408).

Figure 15 on the next page illustrates the Sendjaya *et al.* (2008) theoretical framework of servant leadership showing the six identified dimensions along with their 22 associated attributes.

Branham and Hirschfield (2010) propose that the first step of securing employee engagement in a tough economic climate is to create a sense of trust and confidence in the organization's leadership. The best leaders steer clear of leadership behaviours based on fear, intimidation and control and instead employ servant leadership in their organizations (Branham and Hirschfield, 2010). Four key performance areas of leadership are highlighted by Branham and Hirschfield (2010):

1. Good leaders put forward strategies that inspire confidence in employees
2. Good leaders communicate plans clearly and directly
3. Good leaders elicit stakeholder input at all points
4. Good leaders constantly search for ways to increase productivity and decrease waste

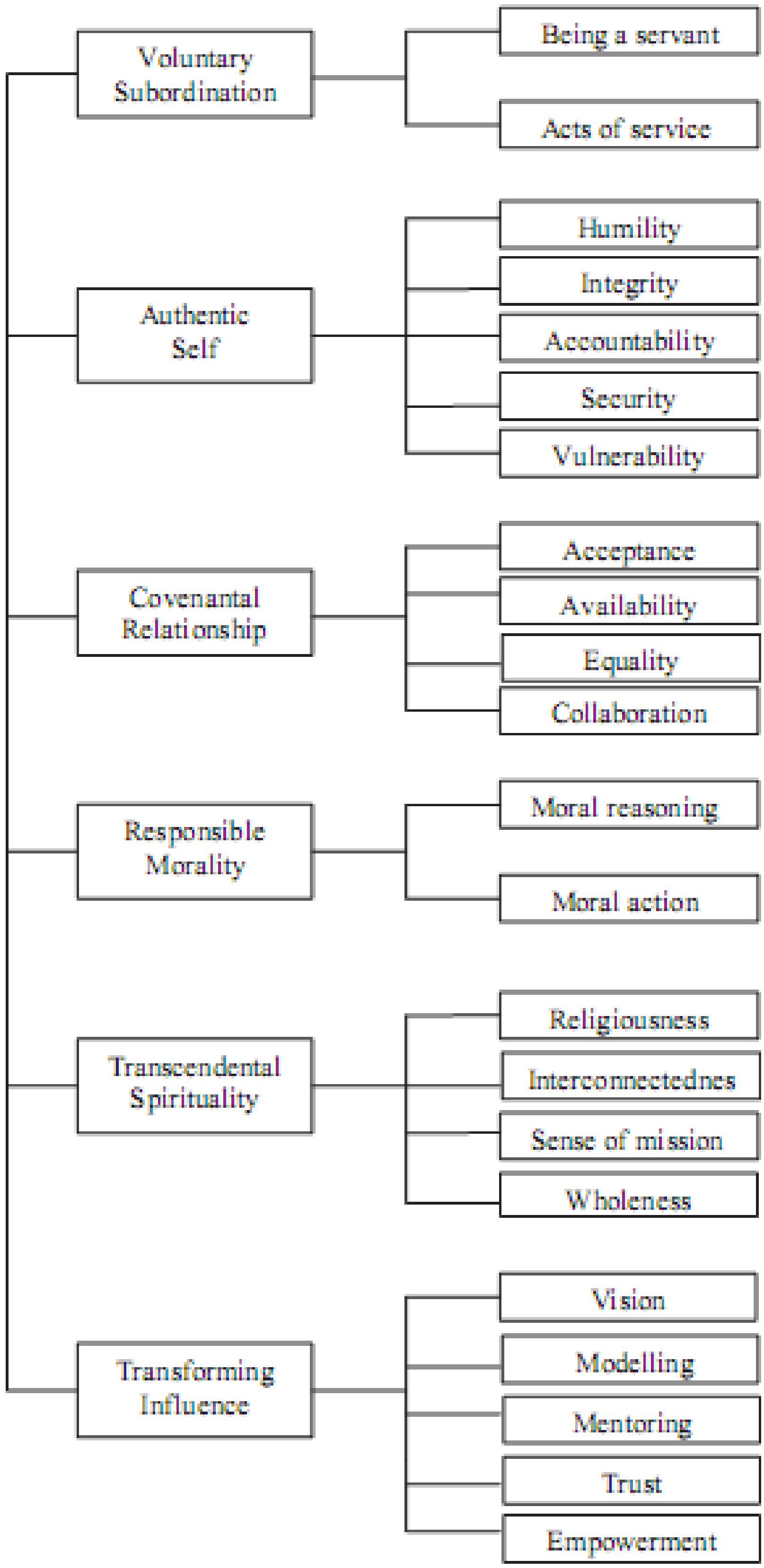

Figure 15: Theoretical framework of servant leadership (Sendjaya *et al.*, 2008: 409)

Conclusion

This chapter began with a review of the literature on organisational culture. This was done to provide the reader with an understanding of employee engagement as an organisational culture and what factors may influence the culture. The culture section led on to leadership and the role that it plays in organisational culture formation and maintenance. In the leadership section two styles of leadership were considered as possibilities for engendering a culture of employee engagement: transformational leadership and servant leadership. A review of the two leadership styles revealed that servant leadership, with a greater focus on the needs of the employees, would theoretically be more likely to sustain employee engagement. Servant leadership was defined in terms of voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal relationships, responsible morality, transcendental spirituality and transforming influence. In the chapter to follow, a means of measuring employee engagement and the initial theoretical framework are formed based on the literature review that will guide and focus the empirical phase of this research work.

Chapter 5: The Questionnaire and the Initial Theoretical Framework

This chapter details the structure of the questionnaire to be used to measure Employee Engagement. An initial theoretical framework of enterprise social networking creating and sustaining Employee Engagement is also provided.

Introduction

Following on from the previous three chapters, this chapter aims to consolidate the literature into an *a priori* construct, an initial theoretical framework. Making use of the Gatenby *et al.* (2009: 4) definition of employee engagement and the Stenger (2011) definition of social media, both concepts are shown to be about connection. The Deloitte Connect Model is then proposed as a basis for developing the initial theoretical framework that will focus the empirical efforts of this research. Coupled with the initial theoretical framework, a means of measuring employee engagement is required. For this purpose the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework for defining employee engagement is used. A suitable measure for trait, state and behavioural engagement is selected based on the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework.

Measuring Employee Engagement

The first sub-problem identified in this research was to propose a survey tool that will be a measure of engagement. Macey and Schneider (2008), as discussed in Chapter 2, propose a framework for defining engagement composed of three parts: trait engagement, state engagement and behavioural engagement. As per figure 16 over page, Macey and Schneider (2008) proposed that trait engagement predisposes one toward a state of engagement which engenders behavioural engagement.

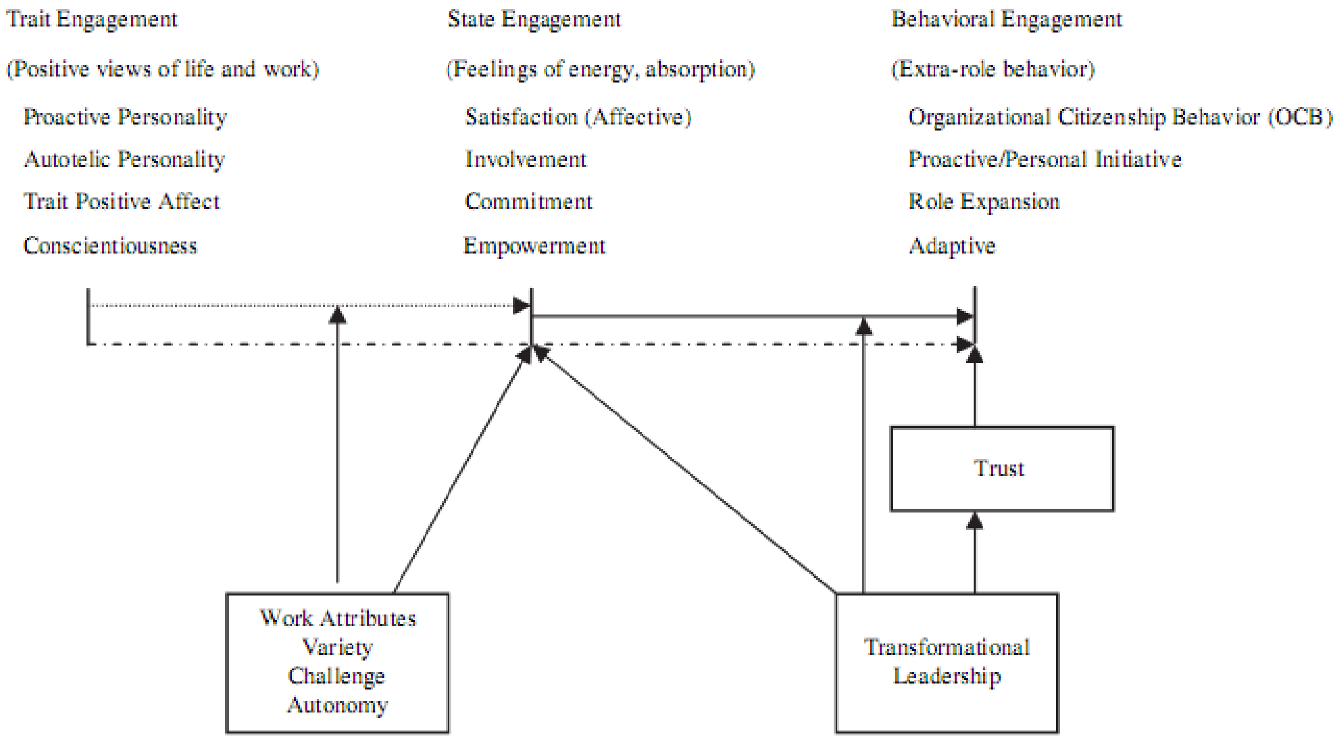

Figure 16: Framework for defining employee engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008)

This research subscribes to this framework for defining employee engagement (EE), hence the proposed measure of EE will need to contain an instrument(s) measuring each of the three areas. In the course of the 2nd Chapter, three employee engagement measures were acknowledged and described, namely the Gallup Q^{12}, the IES Employee Engagement Survey and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). The Gallup Q^{12} has the stated purpose of being the minimum number of questions required to attract, focus and keep the most talented employees (Forbringer, 2002: 1). The Q^{12} questions are as follows:

1. I know what is expected of me at work.
2. I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right.
3. At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day.
4. In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work.
5. My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person.

6. There is someone at work who encourages my development.
7. At work, my opinions seem to count.
8. The mission or purpose of my company makes me feel my job is important.
9. My associates or fellow employees are committed to doing quality work.
10. I have a best friend at work.
11. In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress.
12. This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow.

These twelve questions are provided with a five point Lickert scale ranging from “extremely satisfied” (5) to “extremely dissatisfied” (1) (Harter *et al.*, 2009: 8). Relative to the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework, the Q^{12} does not measure employee engagement at all. Instead the Q^{12} appears to measure the antecedents of EE, or an environment conducive to a culture of EE. Table 11 provides an overview of the Q^{12} and the related engagement drivers identified in Chapter 2. As the Q^{12} is regarded to not measure engagement as defined by Macey and Schneider (2008), it is unsuitable for this research work.

Table 11: The Gallup Q^{12} and related engagement drivers/facets

No.	Question	Related engagement driver(s)/engagement facet
1.	I know what is expected of me at work	Two-way, Open Communication; Leadership
2.	I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right	Job Resources
3.	At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day	Autonomy
4.	In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work	Rewards and Recognition; Engaged Management

5.	My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person	Focus on employee wellbeing; Engaged Management
6.	There is someone at work who encourages my development	Opportunities for Development; Engaged Management
7.	At work, my opinions seem to count	Two-way, Open Communication
8.	The mission or purpose of my company makes me feel my job is important	Two-way, Open Communication; Engaged Management; Leadership
9.	My associates or fellow employees are committed to doing quality work	Community and Social Support
10.	I have a best friend at work	Community and Social Support
11.	In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress	Performance Feedback
12.	This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow	Opportunities for Development; Engaged Management; Community and Social Support

The Institute for Employment Studies (IES) in the United Kingdom developed a twelve statement employment engagement survey (Robinson *et al.*, 2004: 14). The questions in the IES survey are as follows:

1. I speak highly of this organisation to my friends.
2. I would be happy for my friends and family to use this organisation's products/services.
3. This organisation is known as a good employer.
4. This organisation has a good reputation generally.
5. I am proud to tell others I am part of this organisation.

6. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
7. I find that my values and the organisation's are very similar.
8. I always do more than is actually required.
9. I try to help others in this organisation whenever I can.
10. I try to keep abreast of current developments in my area.
11. I volunteer to do things outside my job that contribute to the organisation's objectives.
12. I frequently make suggestions that improve the work of my team/department/service.

In terms of the chosen definition of EE, it is clear from table 12 on the next page that the IES Engagement Survey is a superior measure over the Q^{12}. The IES instrument has a particularly clear emphasis on how employees work within the organization, indicating how behaviourally engaged they are. The measure appears to lack a meaningful trait engagement component which would establish what the employee believes about life and work. The employee's beliefs, if found to be generally positive or generally negative, would give an indication of their trait engagement and hence their propensity toward a state of engagement. The measurement of state engagement is also regarded as inadequate with only three questions acknowledged as covering the facet. The author favours the IES measure as being suitable for determining behavioural engagement with eight of the twelve questions dealing with that particular aspect. Only those questions determined as relating to behavioural engagement will be used for this research.

Table 12: The IES Employee Engagement Survey and related engagement drivers/facets

No.	Question	Related engagement driver(s)/engagement facet
1.	I speak highly of this organisation to my friends	Behavioural engagement
2.	I would be happy for my friends and family to use this organisation's products/services	State engagement

3.	This organisation is known as a good employer	[Organisational Reputation]
4.	This organisation has a good reputation generally	[Organisational Reputation]
5.	I am proud to tell others I am part of this organisation	State engagement, behavioural engagement
6.	This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	State engagement, behavioural engagement
7.	I find that my values and the organisation's are very similar	Trait engagement
8.	I always do more than is actually required	Behavioural engagement
9.	I try to help others in this organisation whenever I can	Behavioural engagement
10.	I try to keep abreast of current developments in my area	Behavioural engagement
11.	I volunteer to do things outside my job that contribute to the organisation's objectives	Behavioural engagement
12.	I frequently make suggestions that improve the work of my team/department/service	Behavioural engagement

and Bakker (2003). The UWES is based on their definition of employee engagement described as a positive and fulfilling work-related psychological state that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 4-5). Macey and Schneider (2008: 6) suggested that state engagement is best defined as a combination of states of attachment, absorption and enthusiasm, reasonably proposed as synonyms for the Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) definition terms. The UWES is broken down into three sections each dealing with one of the three states of emotional engagement (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5). Vigour has six questions associated with it (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5):

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time
5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally
6. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well

Dedication is assessed by the following five items (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5):

1. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose
2. I am enthusiastic about my job
3. My job inspires me
4. I am proud of the work that I do
5. To me, my job is challenging

The final state, absorption, is measured by these six items (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003: 5):

1. Time flies when I am working
2. When I am working, I forget everything else around me
3. I feel happy when I work intensely
4. I am immersed in my work
5. I get carried away when I am working
6. It is difficult to detach myself from my job

The UWES is measured on a seven point frequency scale, ranging from 0, “never”, to 6, “always/every day” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Since the Macey and Schneider (2008) and the Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) definitions of state/emotional engagement are congruent, the UWES can be regarded as perfect fit as a measure of state engagement for the purposes of this research.

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) was not discussed in Chapter 2 because it did not purport to be an employee engagement measure. The PANAS does however have a strong relationship with the concept of engagement, in particular that of trait engagement. In Chapter 2, Macey and Schneider (2008: 19) proposed trait positive affect (PA) as a ‘precise’ definition of an engaged individual; in this way, trait PA is the tendency to regularly experience PA as a state (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 19). Trait PA serves as a frame through which work experiences are perceived and dictates how an individual will behave in response to these experiences (Macey and Schneider, 2008: 20). What Macey and Schneider (2008) propose is that generalised positivity (trait PA) will likely generate a state of engagement and the state of engagement will then produce positive organisational behaviours (i.e. behavioural engagement).

The original PANAS (see Figure 17), which was created by Watson *et al.* (1988), has been criticized for the redundancy of items in the measure as well as the ambiguity or incoherency of certain items in different cultural contexts (Thompson, 2007). For this reason, Thompson (2007) created the Internationally Reliable Short-Form of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (I – PANAS – SF). The I-PANAS-SF is depicted in figure 18 and will be used to determine trait engagement in this research work.

The PANAS

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent [INSERT APPROPRIATE TIME INSTRUCTIONS HERE]. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely

______ interested	______ irritable
______ distressed	______ alert
______ excited	______ ashamed
______ upset	______ inspired
______ strong	______ nervous
______ guilty	______ determined
______ scared	______ attentive
______ hostile	______ jittery
______ enthusiastic	______ active
______ proud	______ afraid

We have used PANAS with the following time instructions:

Moment	(you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment)
Today	(you have felt this way today)
Past few days	(you have felt this way during the past few days)
Week	(you have felt this way during the past week)
Past few weeks	(you have felt this way during the past few weeks)
Year	(you have felt this way during the past year)
General	(you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on the average)

Figure 17: The PANAS (Watson *et al.*, 1988)

The International Positive and Negative Affect Schedule Short Form (I-PANAS-SF) Question, Measure, and Item Order

Question: Thinking about yourself and how you normally feel, to what extent do you generally feel:

Items in order:

- Upset
- Hostile
- Alert
- Ashamed
- Inspired
- Nervous
- Determined
- Attentive
- Afraid
- Active

Interval measure: *never* 1 2 3 4 5 *always*

Figure 18: The I-PANAS-SF (Thompson, 2007)

Based upon the chosen measures for trait, state and behavioural engagement, respondents can be categorized according to various engagement levels. In defining these levels, the researcher makes use of the x-model of employee engagement proposed by BlessingWhite (2011: 6) in figure 19 below. The two arms of the 'x' are made up of satisfaction and contribution against which individuals can be scored and allocated to a level of engagement as was described in chapter 2. It was previously noted that Macey and Schneider (2008) regard satisfaction as a poor exemplar of a state of engagement and instead proposed that a combination of vigour, attachment and absorption would better define state engagement. For the purposes of this research the BlessingWhite (2011: 6) 'x-model' is amended such that 'maximum satisfaction' is replaced by 'maximum state engagement' and, for the sake of theoretical uniformity, 'maximum contribution' will be replaced by 'maximum behavioural engagement'. Figure 20 on the next page illustrates the amended x-model that will be applied to this research.

Figure 19: The five levels of employee engagement (BlessingWhite, 2011: 6) [Copyright © BlessingWhite, Inc. All Rights Reserved.]

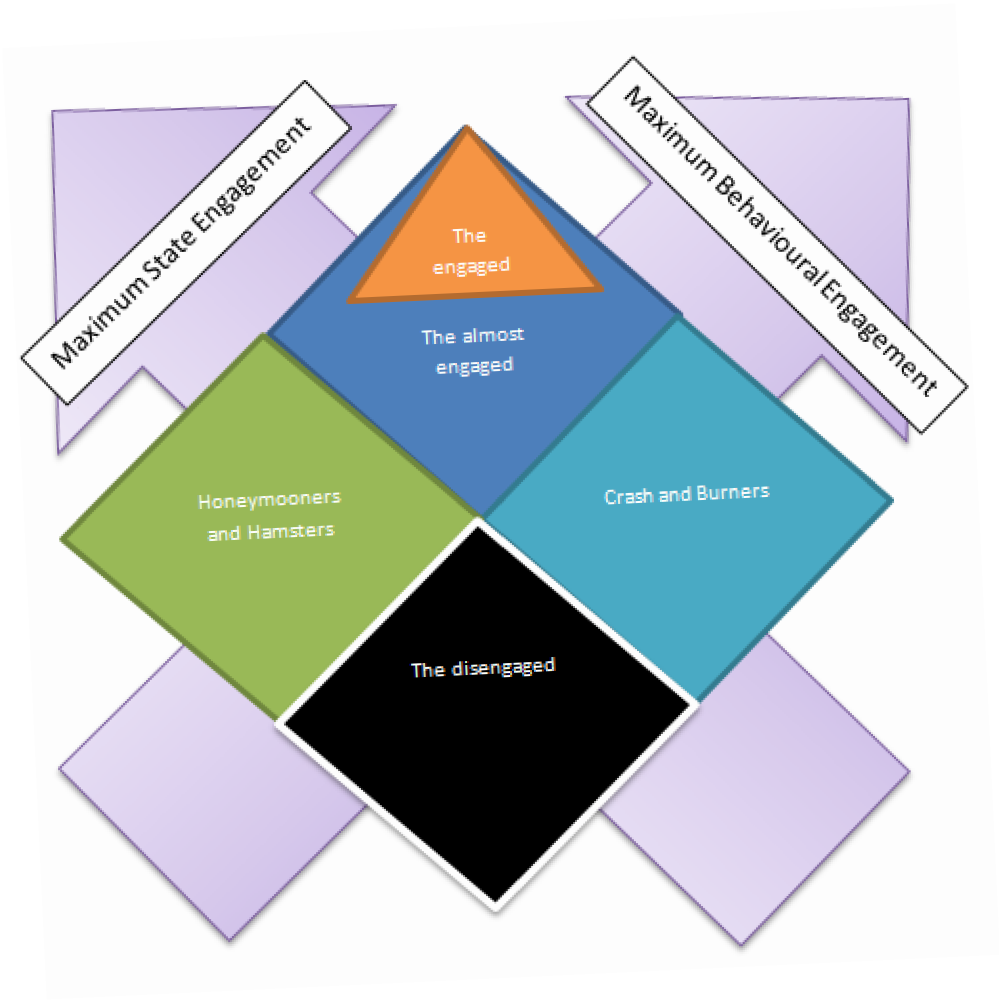

Figure 20: Amended x-model of employee engagement

The Deloitte Connect Model

In linking the concept of and the concepts behind social media with that of employee engagement, a suitable definition of both is required. For these purposes and as already discussed, employee engagement is defined by Gatenby *et al.* (2009: 4); "…engagement is about creating opportunities for employees to connect with their colleagues, managers and wider organisation. It is also about creating an environment where employees are motivated to want to connect with their work and really care about doing a good job." Social media is defined by Stenger (2011) as "…a relationship channel, a connection channel. Each and every tweet, update, video, post, is a connection point to another human being." Looking at the two definitions, employee engagement in the eyes of Gatenby *et al.* (2009) is about connection; Stenger (2011) regards social media as a channel for connection. One might say that employees can be engaged through social media; but what connections are important? Deloitte (2009: 8) propose that connections to (1) a sense of purpose, (2) to other people creating opportunities for personal and professional development, and (3) to the resources that employees require to do their best possible work are the three connections required for optimal role performance. The three connections are illustrated in Figure 21 over page.

In terms of connecting people to people, Deloitte (2009: 10) highlight the following five areas in motivating the need for connection:

1. Job Complexity – As work becomes more complex, people become increasingly reliant on one another for role performance.
2. Learning – Knowledge is largely created through collaborating with others.
3. Decision Making – The best decisions are made in respectful consultation with stakeholders.
4. Energy – High-quality relationships create energy and enthusiasm; toxic relationships sap energy.
5. Innovation – Innovators cultivate richer and more diverse networks than less innovative individuals.

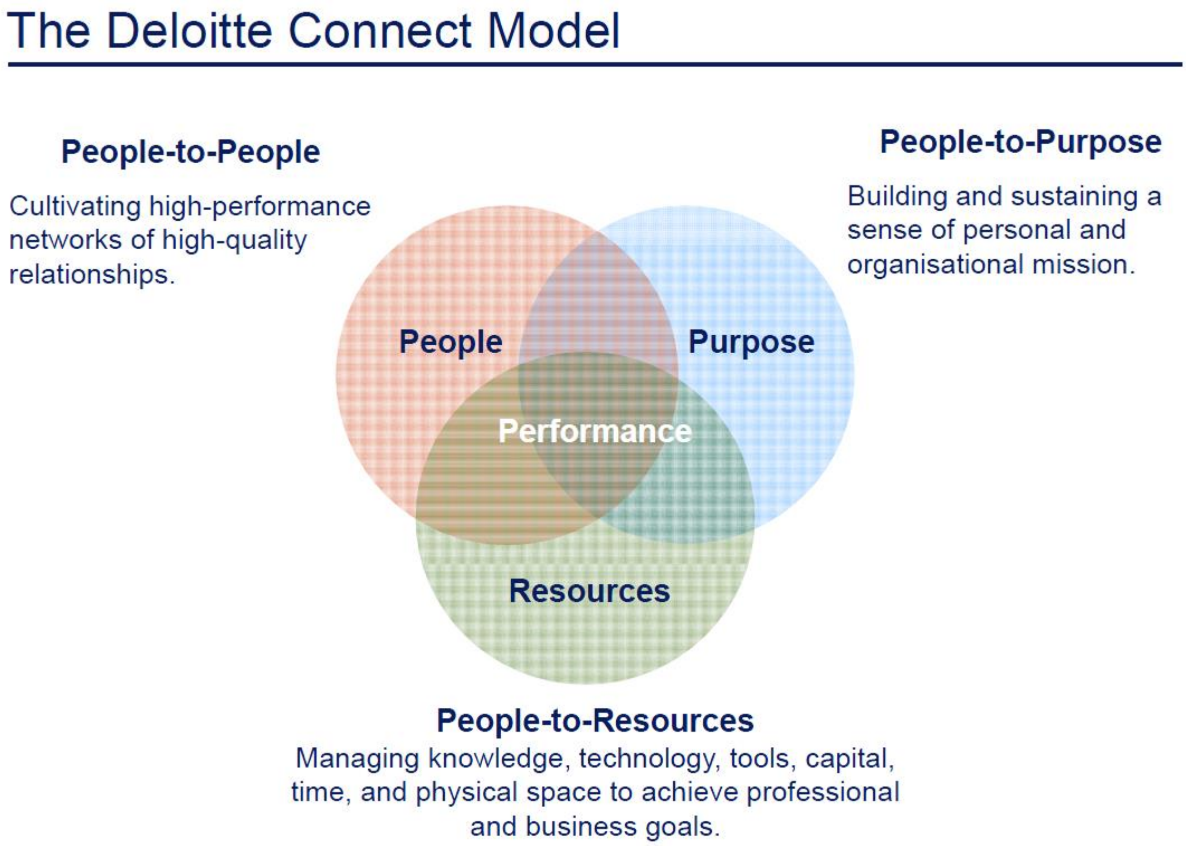

Figure 21: The Deloitte Connect Model (Deloitte, 2009)

In connecting people to resources, Deloitte (2009: 12) describe the following as the reasons for actively equipping employees to make use of and gain access to resources:

1. Information Overload/Rapidly Changing Environment - Companies need to enable employees to manage knowledge, technology, time and physical space in ways that improve their performance and allow them to adapt to change.

2. Distractions from optimal role performance include:

    a. Unproductive meetings

    b. Poor communication

    c. Unclear objectives

    d. Budget Concerns

    e. Job insecurity

In connecting people to purpose, Deloitte (2009: 11) highlight four areas that impart purpose to employees:

1. Motivating work – people derive meaning and purpose from their work when the nature of their work is profoundly motivating.

2. A sense of belonging – cultivating communities produces innovation and stimulates bonding between employees.

3. Pride and mission – employees are motivated when there is a strong parallel between their own values and the values of the organisation.

4. Strategic direction – to know the value of their work, employees require a clear sense of strategic direction and how their work contributes to the strategic direction of the company.

Deloitte (2009: 14) recommend six practices to enhance intra-organizational connectivity. The first proposed practice is that employers should encourage on-going performance appraisals and conversations (Deloitte, 2009: 14). There are two parts to this practice, firstly regular performance appraisals are encouraged and secondly, on-going conversations about performance are encouraged. The reader may recall that MacLeod and Clark (2009) showed that performance feedback has a strong correlation with employee engagement but is underused by managers (see Table 2 for recap). The second part of the Deloitte recommendation regarding on-going performance conversations links in with the two way nature of relationships within a culture of engagement (see the Stimulators of engagement section in Chapter 2): without conversation, particularly between manager/executive and employee, engagement is unlikely to exist within an organisation. The second practice recommended by Deloitte is that organisations must provide access to collaborative tools (Deloitte, 2009: 14). This recommendation should call social media tools to mind, the very purpose of which is connection and consequently mass-collaboration. The third and fourth practices put forward by Deloitte is that employers must stimulate rich networks of high quality relationships (Deloitte, 2009: 14) and cultivate communities within their organisations (Deloitte, 2009: 14). Both of these proposed practices display strong links with social media as described in Chapter 3, and add to the strengthening conceptual link between social media and employee engagement. The fifth suggested practice is that organisation's must design a physical space that fosters connection (Deloitte, 2009: 14). The author agrees that physical space is important but, given the rise of virtual teaming (Pinsonneault and Caya, 2005; Maruping and Agarwal, 2004) and telecommuting (Teh *et al.*, 2011; Golden and Veiga, 2005), the organisation's virtual space is as equally important in fostering connection. The final Deloitte practice is that leaders must make meetings more meaningful to team members (Deloitte, 2009: 14). Of these practices, all except the last are considered to be applicable to this research.

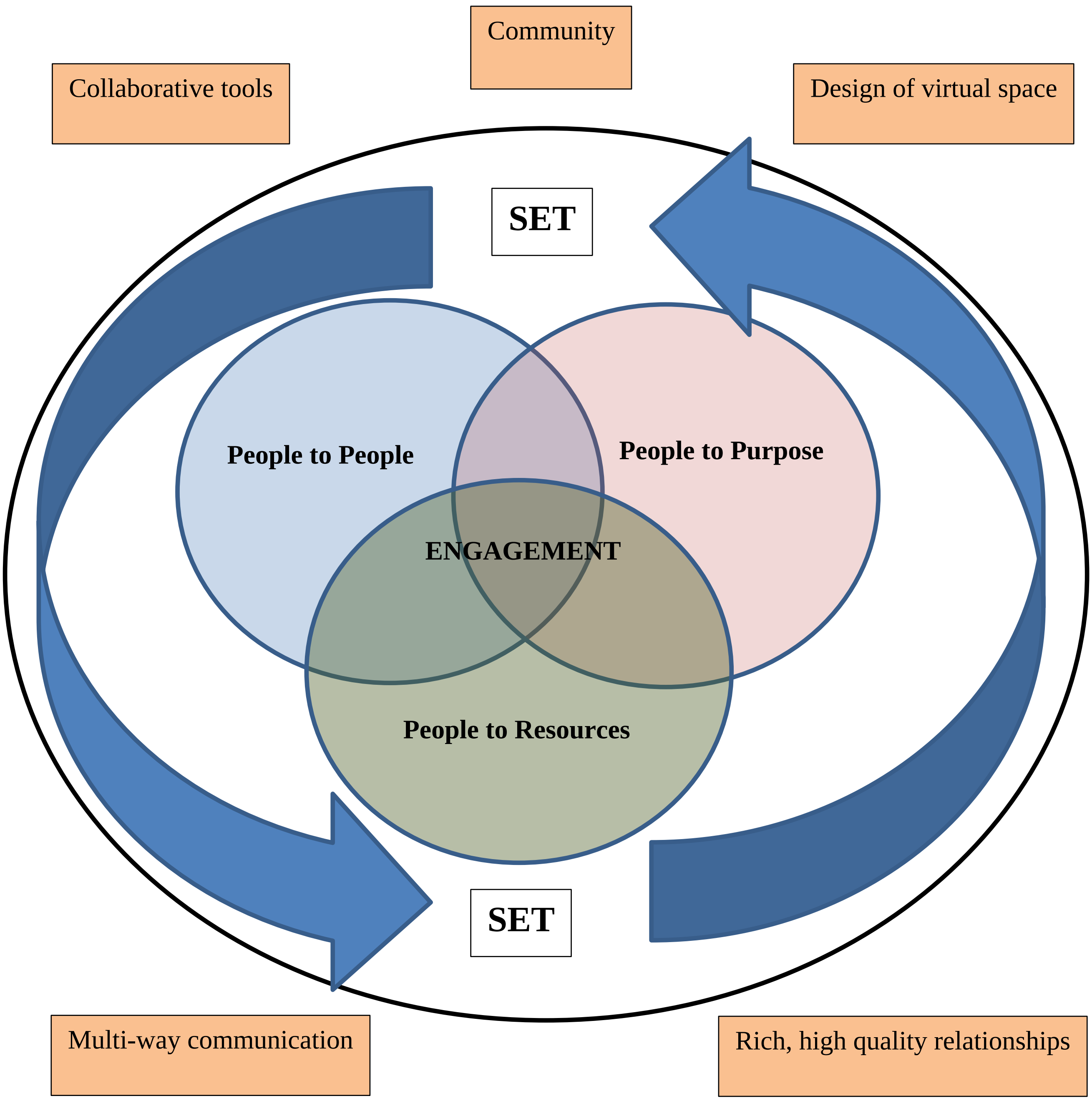

Figure 22: Initial Theoretical Framework

The Initial Theoretical Framework

Figure 22 depicts the researcher's view and augmentation of the Deloitte Connect Model as it may pertain to enterprise social networking. Five of the Deloitte practices for enhancing connectivity are retained in the framework, but take on enhanced or alternate meanings. The practices (shown as orbiting orange boxes) and their proposed applications in enterprise social networking are described in table 13 below.

Table 13: Connection practices with descriptions

Practice	Description
Community	An enterprise social network must create a sense of community within the organization. Community will allow the resources of social capital to flow but require trust and a shared understanding to exist between group members (Leana and Van Buren, 1999: 544).
Collaborative Tools	The enterprise social network must either act as channel for collaboration or be a platform for collaboration. To clarify, by acting as a channel of collaboration, the social network is a means of discovering collaborative partners and securing their involvement but the collaboration itself occurs elsewhere. As a platform for collaboration, the social network is a means of discovering, securing and collaborating with partners: the tools of collaboration, which are entirely suitable for the task, are provided within the social network itself.
Design of Virtual Space	The original Deloitte practice was that the organization's physical space must be designed in such a way as to foster connection. In this model, the organization's virtual space is regarded as equally important, particularly if group members are dispersed across different floors of a building or are in different cities or countries. The organization's virtual space must be designed in such a way as to foster connection between group members.
Rich, high quality relationships	From the Social Exchange Theory (SET) section in Chapter 2, the reader may recall that trust is critical for the formation of high-quality relationships. From the perspective of engagement, a significant trust relationship between employer, manager and executive is the most important for an employee engagement culture to form (BlessingWhite, 2011: 15). In SET, trust is a result of a reciprocal relationship between participants (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 875). Reciprocity is a system
Two-way	

communication	of fair exchange of resources between actors, with the resources being physical or emotional in nature. The author proposes that enterprise social networking is an ideal platform for two-way communication between organisational members. This two-way communication, provided it conforms to the principle of reciprocity, will result in the formation of high-quality, trust relationships most significantly between leaders and followers within the organisation.

The orbiting practices play an important role in creating an environment where a culture of engagement can emerge but the so called ‘nuts and bolts’ of creating the culture are contained within ellipse (see Figure 22). As already stated, the Gatenby *et al.* (2009) definition of employee engagement is that engagement is about connection and the Stenger (2011) definition of social media is that it is a connection channel. As proposed by Deloitte (2009), the most important connections for optimal performance are connecting people to people, connecting people to resources and connecting people to purpose. In the Deloitte connect model (Figure 21) the intersection of these connections resulted in maximum performance. In the Model of Enterprise Social Networking and Employee Engagement, the author proposes that the point of intersection of these connections, with adjustments to their original Deloitte definition, will be a culture of employee engagement. In keeping with the Saks (2006: 603) proposition that the mechanism of employee engagement is social exchange theory (SET), SET is represented as a flow within the model. The flow indicates an on-going series of transactions between organisational participants of either an economic or socio-emotional nature (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005: 881). To recollect the resources of social exchange, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) offered information, money, goods and services, love, status, and citizenship behaviours. The flow depends upon the existence of a shared understanding between actors, a by-product of frequent communication, sharing of information and a common frame of reference (Dabos and Rousseau, 2004: 55).

By actively connecting people to people through the enterprise’s social network, organizational members are given access to larger pools of social and human capital. This connection affords access to resources that an individual would not normally have access to, and the reader may recall from Chapter 3 that human capital generates social capital which in turn generates more human capital etc.

In connecting people to resources Bakker and Demerouti (2008: 211) suggest that job resources play a key role in creating engagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2008: 211) define job resources as physical, social, or organisational aspects which:

- Reduce job demands and associated physiological and psychological costs,
- Are functional in achieving work goals; and
- Stimulate personal growth, learning and development

In particular, it has been found that social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy, and learning opportunities are positively associated with engagement (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008: 211).

The final sphere, that of connecting people to purpose, is proposed to be the sphere of leadership. It is the part of leaders to define roles that are motivating, create a sense of organizational belonging, inspire pride and give strategic direction to employees (Deloitte, 2009). In order of importance to employee engagement, MacLeod and Clark (2009) propose that leaders must create a work environment that drives high performance, communicate honestly, behave in ways that align with the organization's values and guiding principles, and link the organizational mission to a larger purpose. The author believes that quality leadership is a resource that is critical to the proper and optimal functioning of any organisation.

Conclusion

The first sub-problem of this thesis is to determine a means of measuring engagement. In this chapter, the Macey and Schneider (2008) framework for defining EE was used to determine the suitability of proposed employee engagement measures. For trait engagement, the I-PANAS-SF was selected and the UWES was shown to be a perfect fit for measuring a state of engagement. For measuring behavioural engagement, eight of the twelve items contained in the IES Employee Engagement Survey will be used. The second sub-problem of this research is to propose a theory of enterprise social networking that will generate and/or sustain a culture of employee engagement. In aid of discovering the theory, the Gatenby *et al.*

(2009) definition of EE as being about connections was chosen as a suitable definition. To complement this definition, the Stenger (2011) definition of social media as a connection channel was co-opted. With employee engagement and social media both being about connection, the Deloitte Connect Model was described and augmented to produce the initial theoretical framework of enterprise social networking producing employee engagement.

Chapter 6: Research Methodology

This chapter details the methodological outlook of the research as well as the procedure to be followed in generating the theory of enterprise social networking generating and/or sustaining Employee Engagement.

Introduction

This chapter provides a narrative of the research paradigm, research methodology, research strategy and ethical considerations of this research work. This chapter is imperative in that it will reveal the researcher's ideology and detail the research approach. The research approach must suit the research problem which is given as "…to provide a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and sustains a culture of employee engagement within a chosen South African private sector company." After careful consideration and analysis, an appropriate methodology and rationale is selected that will guide the implementation of the empirical phase of the research.

Research Paradigm

Niehaves and Stahl (2006: 2) define a research paradigm as "… a worldview based on certain epistemological and ontological assumptions." In the field of information systems (IS), two research paradigms are considered to be the most widely used, positivism and interpretivism (Fitzgerald & Howcroft 1998; Jones 2004; Lee 1991; Mingers 2001; Probert 2001; Russo & Stoltermann 2000; Walsham 1995; Chen and Hirschheim, 2004; Weber 2004). Positivism and interpretivism are epistemologically, ontologically and generally methodologically distinct from one another. Chen and Hirschheim (2004: 201) detail the differences between the positivist and interpretivist standpoints in Table 14 below.

Table 14: Interpretivism vs. positivism (Chen and Hirschheim, 2004: 201)

	Positivism	**Interpretivism**
Epistemology	Positivists are concerned with the hypothetic-deductive testability of theories. Scientific knowledge should allow verification or falsification and seek generalizable results.	Scientific knowledge should be obtained not through hypothetic-deductive reasoning but through the understanding of human and social interaction by which the subjective meaning of reality is constructed.

Ontology	Reality exists objectively and independently of people.	Reality is a subjective construct formed through human and social interaction.
Methodology	To test hypothetic-deductive theory, research should take a value-free position and employ objective measurement to collect research evidence. A quantitative method such as the survey is a typical positivist instrument.	To understand the meaning embedded in human and social interaction, researchers need to engage in the social setting investigated and learn how the interaction takes place from the participants' perspective. Field studies that engage researchers in the real social setting would be more appropriate for generating interpretive knowledge.

Chen and Hirschheim (2004: 201) describe the positivist research process as follows: (1) the researcher formulates hypotheses, models, or causal relationships among constructs; (2) quantitative methods, although not always necessary, are used to test the theories or hypotheses; and (3) the researcher makes objective, value-free interpretations. The interpretive research process is also described by Chen and Hirschheim (2004: 202), as follows: (1) the researcher gathers evidence from a non-deterministic (free will) perspective; (2) the researcher engages in the specific social and cultural setting; and (3) an analysis is performed based on the participants' viewpoints.

Mingers (2001: 240) describes information systems (IS) research as a '…nexus for many diverse research fields and disciplines." As such, IS research must concern itself not only with the development of computer-based human interaction systems but also the general evolution of human communication (Mingers 2001: 240). This broad focus requires IS researchers to draw on a plethora of academic disciplines from the sciences to those in the humanities (Mingers, 2001: 240). Each of these disciples has its own research traditions and viewpoints (Mingers, 2001: 240) which come into question when diverse approaches are applied to the same problem (Niehaves and Stahl, 2006: 2). Thus, IS research can be seen as a rich tapestry of diverse research methods, paradigms and approaches (Benbasat and Weber, 1996; Wade and Hulland, 2004). The existence of this pluralism within the IS research community requires a clear articulation of paradigm, methodology and strategy in order for the value of a research work to be realized.

The reader is reminded that the purpose of this research is to provide a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement within a chosen South African private sector company. Given that the focus of this research is on the culture of engagement, the author believes that interpretivism with its clear emphasis on social inquiry will best serve this research work.

Research Methodology

Case Study

Johansson (2003: 14) states that a case study is concerned with the exploration of a case. A case is defined as (Johansson, 2003: 14):

- a complex functioning unit,
- to be investigated in its natural context with a multitude of methods, and
- is contemporary.

An alternative definition provided by Yin (2003: 13) is that a case study is "…an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident." Tellis (1997) cite Yin (1994) in describing the four broad steps of the case study process as follows:

1. Design the case study,
2. Conduct the case study,
3. Analyze the case study evidence, and
4. Develop the conclusions, recommendations and implications.

Yin (1994) presents at least four applications for a case study methodology: (1) to explain complex causal links in real-life interventions, (2) to describe the real-life context in which the intervention has occurred, (3) to describe the intervention itself , and (4) to explore those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear set of outcomes. Tillis (1997) states that all of the above situations are common focuses in information technology research, making the case study methodology a highly applicable tool for this research work. In this research, understanding ‘intervention’ to mean the technology in question, applications 1 and 2 are regarded as being the areas of interest. To remind the reader, the goals of the research are to:

4. Propose a survey tool that will be a measure of employee engagement.

5. Determine the current employee engagement (context) levels in a selected South African private sector company currently making use of social networking using the employee engagement survey created in goal 1.

6. Determine the impediments to and stimulators of a culture of employee engagement (context) created through enterprise social networking (intervention) in the company. The most disengaged and the most engaged employees will be considered in the achievement of this goal.

Goals 2 and 3 are proposed to be best served through the case study methodology as (1) goal 2 aims to describe the real-life context in which the intervention has occurred, and (2) goal 3 aims to explain the complex causal links between the intervention in question and the context.

Johansson (2003: 14) defines the core aspects of the case study methodology as:

1. How are findings validated?

2. How is a case selected?

3. How are generalisations made from a single case?

In terms of finding validation, Johansson (2003: 14) introduces the concept of triangulation. To triangulate is to combine different data collection and analysis methods but may also include the use of multiple theories, multiple investigators and multiple data sources (Johansson, 2003: 14; Denzin, 1970). An argument provided by Mingers (2001: 241) is that different research methods stemming from differing paradigms focus on distinct aspects of reality and, by combining them, researchers provide a far richer explanation of phenomenon. Mingers (2001: 243) goes further to say that all research situations are inherently complex and multi-dimensional and thus benefit from the application of a diversity of research methods.

Case study selection may take one of two forms. Firstly, a case may be studied because of the researcher's intrinsic interest in the case (Johansson, 2003: 14). When a case study is selected in this way, the researcher has no interest in generalizing their results (Johansson, 2003: 14). Andrade (2009: 44) cite Siggelkow (2007) in recounting the case of a 19th century American railroad worker named Phineas Gage who survived for 12 years with a large whole in his head and significant damage to his frontal lobe after an accident with an iron rod. This case illustrates the fact that a case study can be selected on its intrinsic interest value alone.

The alternative to the intrinsic interest method of case study selection is purposeful or analytic case selection (Johansson, 2003: 14). In this way a case may be selected on the basis of it being information rich, critical, revelatory, unique or extreme (Johansson, 2003: 14). Cases which are purposefully selected are usually intended to be generalizable (Johansson, 2003: 14).

The unit of analysis plays a critical role in case study research (Tellis, 1997). As contained in the case definition, a case is regarded as a complex functioning unit and hence rarely focuses on individuals (Tellis, 1997). Yin (2003: 40) provides a taxonomy of case study designs and units of analysis in figure 23 below illustrating the levels of analysis that a researcher may consider depending on the goals of their research.

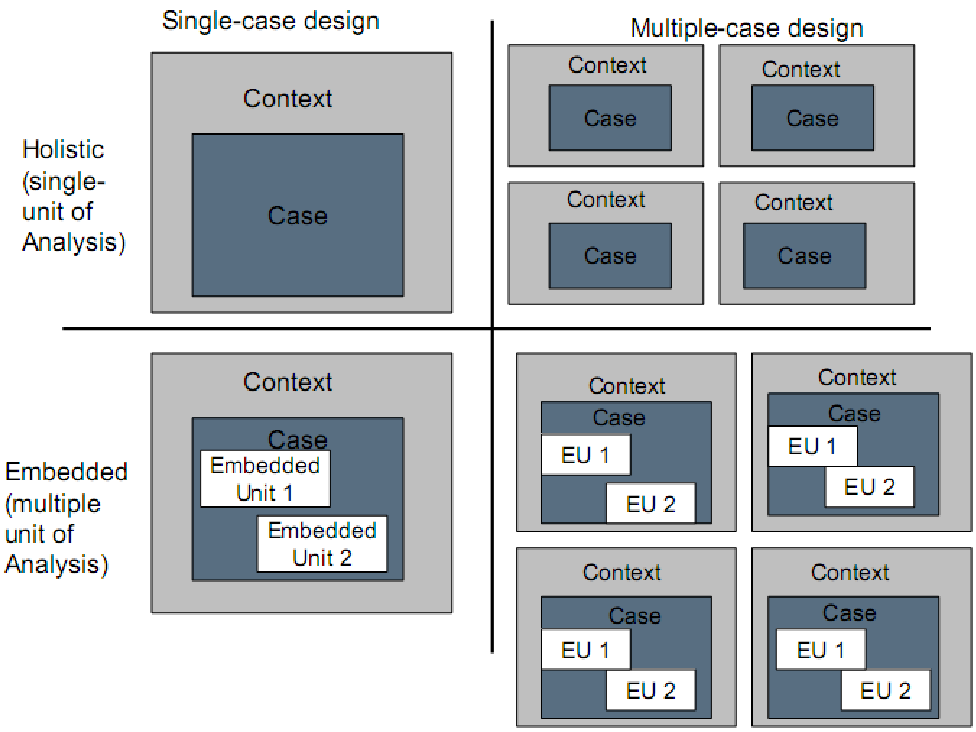

Figure 23: Case study design and unit of analysis taxonomy (Yin, 2003: 40)

The final core aspect of the case study methodology considered by Johansson (2003: 14) is how generalisations are made from a case. Johansson (2003: 14) states that case study generalisation is not statistical in nature, but is rather based on reasoning of which there are three types: (1) deductive, (2) inductive, and (3) abductive. For the purposes of this research the first two forms of reasoning are discussed.

1. Deductive reasoning – follows a similar procedure to that of an experiment where: (1) a hypothesis is formulated, (2) measurable outcomes are defined and, (3) the hypothesis is compared with the empirical results and either verified (becomes a theory) or falsified (Johansson, 2003: 14). Through this procedure it is possible to better define the domain in which the theory is valid (Johansson, 2003: 14). Generalisations can then be made from the theory to other cases within the theory's domain (Johansson, 2003: 14).

2. Inductive reasoning – in this instance generalisation is achieved through inductive theory generation (Johansson, 2003: 14). Theory is produced from the data gathered in the case and generally takes the form of a set of related concepts (Johansson, 2003:

14). This form of theory generation is associated with the grounded theory methodology (Johansson, 2003: 14).

Procedure	Mode of reasoning	Result	Generalisation
HYPOTHESIS TESTING A theory (hypothesis) is tested in a case, and validated or falsified	Deductive	The establishment of the domain of the theory	From a hypothesis and facts to the validation of a *theory*
THEORY GENERATING A principle (theory) is generated from facts in the case	Inductive	A theory (Conceptualisation)	From facts in a case to *theory*

Figure 24: Generalisation and modes of reasoning with a case (adapted from Johansson, 2003: 14)

Johansson (2003: 14) proposes that different researchers emphasise different aspects within the case study methodology. Johansson (2003: 14) cites Stake (1998) as purporting the crux of a case study to be an interest in the case rather than the methods of inquiry. In contrast Johansson (2003: 14) states that Yin (2003, 1994) places a far greater emphasis on the methods and techniques applied than on the case itself. Andrade (2009: 42) suggests that this difference in outlook is of a paradigmatic nature with Yin (2003) operating from a strictly positivist standpoint. In support of this proposal, Andrade (2009: 42) notes that the preface of Yin's (2003) book stresses the alleged weaknesses of the case study methodology; namely that case studies downgrade the academic discipline and lack sufficient precision, objectivity and rigour. To counteract these shortcomings Yin (2003) proposes that the positivist validation devices of internal validity, external validity, construct validity and reliability be adopted. Adopting these techniques may be imperative for positivist research but Andrade (2009: 42) suggests that these devices are not applicable to the work of interpretivists. Instead Andrade (2009: 42) proposes that a methodological amalgamation of a case study and grounded theory will provide an academically rigorous platform for the generation of theory. In this research work, Andrade's (2009) opinion is adhered to.

Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is defined by Glaser and Strauss (1967: 1) as "…the discovery of theory from data." Particularly from the perspective of interpretivists, the major strength of the grounded theory methodology is its inductive, contextual and process based nature (Andrade, 2009: 46). Pandit (1996) states that grounded theory is composed of three basic elements: concepts, categories and propositions. Concepts are described by Corbin and Strauss (1990: 7) as follows:

> Theories can't be built with actual incidents or activities as observed or reported; that is, from "raw data." The incidents, events, happenings are taken as, or analysed as, potential indicators of phenomena, which are thereby given conceptual labels. If a respondent says to the researcher, "Each day I spread my activities over the morning, resting between shaving and bathing," then the researcher might label this phenomenon as "pacing." As the researcher encounters other incidents, and when after comparison to the first, they appear to resemble the same phenomena, then these, too, can be labelled as "pacing." Only by comparing incidents and naming like phenomena with the same term can the theorist accumulate the basic units for theory.

Building on the description of concepts, Corbin and Strauss (1990: 7) describe categories as follows:

> Categories are higher in level and more abstract than the concepts they represent. They are generated through the same analytic process of making comparisons to highlight similarities and differences that is used to produce lower level concepts. Categories are the "cornerstones" of developing theory. They provide the means by which the theory can be integrated. We can show how the grouping of concepts forms categories by continuing with the example presented above. In addition to the concept of "pacing," the analyst might generate the concepts of "self-medicating," "resting," and "watching one's diet." While coding, the analyst may note that, although these concepts are different in form, they seem to represent activities directed toward a similar process: keeping an illness under control. They could be grouped under a more abstract heading, the category: "Self Strategies for Controlling Illness."

The third constituent of grounded theory is the proposition which indicates a generalized relationship between a category and its underlying concepts and relationships between categories (Pandit, 1996). In comparing propositions to hypotheses, Pandit (1996) proposes that hypotheses require measureable relationships in order to be valid, whereas propositions require the existence of conceptual relationships for their validity. This proposition highlights a key distinction between the positivist and interpretive standpoints. The reader may recall that positivists "…are concerned with the hypothetic-deductive testability of theories", clearly indicating the positivist reliance on hypotheses and measureable results. In contrast, the interpretive standpoint could be regarded as the propositional-inductive generation of theory, the standpoint to which this research subscribes.

Pandit (1996) describes the grounded theory process as being composed of five phases: research design, data collection, data ordering, data analysis, and literature comparison. In his description of these phases, Pandit (1996) makes use of the four research quality measures described by Yin (2003): internal validity, external validity, construct validity and reliability. Table 15 below illustrates Pandit's (1996) view of the grounded theory process.

Table 15: The Grounded Theory Process (Pandit, 1996)

Phase	**Activity**	**Rationale**
Research Design Phase		
Step 1: Review of technical literature	Define research question	Focuses efforts
	Define *a priori* constructs	Constrains irrelevant variation and sharpens external validity
Step 2: Selection of cases	Theoretical sampling	Focuses efforts on theoretically useful cases
Data Collection Phase		
Step 3: Develop rigorous data collection protocol	Create case study database	Increases reliability and increases construct validity
	Employ multiple data	Strengthens grounding of

	collection methods	theory by triangulation of evidence. Enhances internal validity
	Qualitative and Quantitative data	Synergistic view of evidence
Step 4: Enter the field	Overlap data collection and analysis	Speeds analysis and reveals helpful adjustments to data collection
	Flexible and opportunistic data collection methods	Allows investigators to take advantage of emergent themes and unique case features
Data Ordering Phase		
Step 5: Data ordering	Array events chronologically	Facilitates easier data analysis. Allows examination of processes
Data Analysis Phase		
Step 6: Analysis of case data	Use open coding	Develop concepts, categories and properties
	Use axial coding	Develop connections between a category and its sub-categories
	Use selective coding	Integrate categories to build theoretical framework
		All forms of coding enhance internal validity

Step 7: Theoretical sampling	Literal and theoretical replication across cases (go to step 2 until theoretical saturation)	Confirms, extends, and sharpens theoretical framework
Step 8: Reach closure	Theoretical saturation if possible	Ends process when marginal improvement becomes small
Literature Comparison Phase		
Step 9: Compare emergent theory with extant literature	Comparison with conflicting frameworks	Improves construct definitions, and therefore internal validity
	Comparison with similar frameworks	Also improves external validity by establishing the domain to which the study's findings can be generalised

Diverging from the Pandit (1996) grounded theory process, Andrade (2009: 47) rejects the usefulness of Yin's (2003) research quality measures for interpretive research. Table 16 over page describes Yin's (2003) quality criteria with Andrade's (2009: 47) proposed equivalent grounded theory principles:

Table 16: Yin (2003) quality criteria with equivalent grounded theory principles (Andrade, 2009: 47)

Criterion	Definition	Specific case study tactic	Grounded theory principles
Construct validity	Establishing correct operational measures for the concepts being studied	• Use multiple sources of evidence • Establish chain of evidence • Have key informants review draft case study report	• Corroboration • Theoretical sufficiency
Internal validity	Establishing causal relationship as distinguished from spurious relationships	• Do pattern-matching • Do explanation-building • Address rival explanations • Use logic models	• Theoretical coding
External validity	Establishing the domain to which a study's findings can be generalized	• Use theory in single-case studies • Use replication logic in multiple-case studies	• Theoretical generalisation
Reliability	Demonstrating that a study can be repeated with the same results	• Use case study protocol • Develop case study database	• Chain of evidence as afforded by grounded theory method

The following narrative will provide a rationale from the perspective of Andrade (2009) as to the insufficiency of the Yin (2003) quality criteria for interpretive research.

1. **Construct validity**: construct validity raises the basic question of whether the measures chosen by the researcher combine together in such as way so as to capture the essence of the construct (Straub *et al.*, 2004: 388). In order to ensure construct validity, Yin (2003) proposes that case study researchers make use of triangulation, maintain a chain of evidence and have key informants review the draft case study. In terms of triangulation which Yin (2003) defines as essentially providing multiple measures of the same phenomenon, Andrade (2009: 48) proposes that corroboration is better suited to interpretivist work; corroboration being defined by Hayward and Sparkes (1975: 253) as the act of strengthening [an argument] by additional evidence. This change in focus allows interpretivists to move away from measureable validity toward conceptual validity. Andrade (2009: 48) agrees with Yin (2003) that the maintenance of a chain of evidence is imperative for a case study. Even if reviewers disagree with the researcher's conclusions they should not be able to dispute the factual account put forward by the researcher (Andrade, 2009: 48). The final Yin

(2003) suggestion of having key informants review the draft case study, is criticized by Andrade (2009: 48) who states that even in a situation where all reviewers agree, construct validity does not necessarily exist. This is because agreement is not an indicator of construct validity; it is theoretical meaning which confers construct validity (Andrade, 2009: 48). Andrade (2009: 48) proposes that instead of using construct validity, interpretive researchers should make use of theoretical saturation in the creation of grounded theory categories. Theoretical saturation is achieved when there is no additional data that can be found whereby the sociologist can develop the properties of the category (Glaser and Strauss, 1967: 61).

2. **Internal validity:** Yin (2003: 120) proposes that the inductive thinking process' goal is not to conclude a study but to develop ideas for further study. This proposal is refuted by Andrade (2009: 45) who states that the implication is that grounded theory subordinates theory generation to theory testing; an implication which goes against the very definition of the grounded theory methodology. Inductive thinking through the rigour of the grounded theory methodology can produce conclusive theories and not just hypotheses for further study (Andrade, 2009: 49). Andrade (2009: 49) proposes that the theoretical coding procedure is the mechanism through which causal relationships can be defined and ultimately become theory. The goal of the coding procedure is to create and assign categories, explore connections between them, and conclude by focusing on an integrating core category (Dey, 1999: 146-147). Three recognized forms of coding within the grounded theory methodology are (Corbin and Strauss, 1990):

   a. *Open coding* - the process of generating initial concepts from data

   b. *Axial coding* - the development and linking of concepts into conceptual families

   c. *Selective coding* - the formalising of the conceptual relationships into theoretical frameworks

3. **External validity:** External validity refers to the extent that the findings from a particular study are able to be generalised (Andrade, 2009: 49). For interpretive research to be generalizable, Andrade (2009: 49) suggests that researchers should

include temporal and spatial dimensions of the case study's context that may be useful in the analysis of future contexts. This is because the goal of grounded theory, whether in a single case or many, is to generate a stand-alone generalizable theory and not to test hypotheses (Andrade, 2009: 49). Hence, the application of replication logic across multiple cases is not a requirement for grounded theory from the interpretive standpoint (Andrade, 2009: 49).

4. **Reliability:** Andrade (2009: 50) agrees with Yin (2003) that the development of a case study protocol and a case study database is useful for organising the data gathered through fieldwork. The point of departure between the two researchers exists within the goal of these systems. Yin (2003) purports that the purpose is to ensure the reliability of the research which is to guarantee that a second researcher will arrive at exactly the same conclusions as the first one. For interpretivists, Andrade (2009: 50) said that a second researcher may analyse the same data and come to a different conclusion based on their beliefs and ability, a perfectly acceptable interpretive outcome. Reliability within interpretivism means producing results that can be trusted and establishing findings that are meaningful and interesting to the reader (Andrade, 2009: 50). The trustworthiness of case study data is generated through the chain of evidence maintained by the researcher (Andrade, 2009: 50).

Andrade (2009) describes his grounded theory process as follows:

1. **The Theory Building Exercise**: Researchers can take their prior knowledge into account, either from the existing literature (*a priori*) or from their previous experience (*a posteriori*) (Andrade, 2009: 46). Siggelkow (2007: 21) notes that a researcher's observations are guided and influenced by some initial hunches and frames of reference with the emphasis that "an open mind is good; an empty mind is not." The goal of the literature review is not for the researcher to simply impose existing theories to the case, but rather to act as a sensitizing device that will allow for the guided and grounded generation of original categories (Andrade, 2009: 46). Urquhart and Fernández (2006: 5) stress that the "preliminary literature review is conducted on the understanding that it is the generated theory that will determine the relevance of the literature."

2. **The Unit of Analysis and Theoretical Sampling**: The case study methodology helps the researcher to define the temporal and spatial boundaries of the research; the so called research context (Andrade, 2009: 51). The first step of the research process is to define the case design and the unit of analysis as depicted previously in figure 20 (Andrade, 2009: 51). Theoretical sampling refers to "…being flexible to determine… individuals to be included in the research, those which provide appropriate comparable data [and might prove valuable] for generating categories" (Dey, 1999: 5). Andrade (2009: 51) cites Morse (1994: 228) in defining the good participant as the "one who has the knowledge and experience the researcher requires, has the ability to reflect, is articulate, has the time to be interviewed, and is willing to participate in the study".

3. **Corroboration and Chain of Evidence**: Summarising and distilling Andrade's (2009: 52) narrative of this section reveals that he corroborated his work by making use of both primary and secondary sources of data. Every new accumulated source of evidence was recorded, organised, and carefully analysed which helped to corroborate his findings. The chain of evidence was maintained by using the NVivo® qualitative research software package to store, sort and analyse the gathered data.

4. **Coding, Saturation and Generalisation**: While gathering the case study data the first phase of analysis is theoretical coding (Andrade, 2009: 52). The coding process begins with initial coding, described by Andrade (2009: 52) as breaking the data analytically, running the data open while seeing actions in each segment of the data. This process is synonymous with the open coding technique described by Goulding (2005: 296) as a line-by-line analysis for words or sentences with theoretical meaning which help the researcher to identify initial explanatory concepts. The initial coding technique should employ the constant comparison method, where data sources are rigorously analysed, provisional themes noted, and subsequently compared with other data sources in order to ensure consistency and also to identify negative cases (Goulding, 2005: 297). During initial coding the researcher should ask what they are studying, what the data suggests, from whose point of view the data comes from, and what theoretical category a specific piece of data indicates (Charmaz, 2006). Focused coding, follows initial coding and emerges from the most significant and/or frequent initial codes in order to sort and organise large amounts of data (Charmaz, 2006). It is

noted that focused codes (axial codes) are a means to conceptually link groups of initial codes together; they are umbrella concepts for conceptually related initial codes (Andrade, 2009: 53). Andrade (2009: 53) then compared the emergent focused codes to one another in order to determine conceptually similar and dis-similar focused codes to discover the emergent categories. The iterative process of initial coding, focused coding and category discovery would end when theoretical saturation is achieved (Andrade, 2009: 53); a point where no additional data that can be found whereby the sociologist can develop the properties of the categories (Glaser and Strauss, 1967: 61). Once the categories are theoretically saturated, the core themes of the data can then be determined which are used to explain the research problem and produce the theoretical generalisations (Andrade, 2009: 53-54). Figure 25 provides an illustration of the initial codes, focused codes, categories and themes identified by Andrade (2009: 58) in the course of his research.

Theme 1: Individuals' exploitation of ICT

Initial codes	Focused codes	Categories
Less valued for women, long-term relevance of education, family education expectations, non-relevance of education, comparing quality of education, education commitment, teacher apathy, education for empowering, uncertainty of achieving educational goals, limited opportunities for uneducated persons, illiteracy in the countryside, difference between formal education and intrinsic abilities	Views on education	Individual capacities
School-based reading, general reading, specialized reading, functional illiteracy, non take up of reading, religious reading	Reading habits	
Computer enthusiasm, formal training, informal training, computer relegation, novelty value, lack of training program, compulsory training, apprehension to newness, awareness of computers, generational attitudes towards computers, computer as a tool for progress, sponsored courses, computer ownership	Learning computers	

Figure 25: Initial codes, focused codes, categories and themes (Andrade, 2009)

Making use of the Pandit (1996) and the Andrade (2009) grounded theory processes, the author describes this research works methodological process as follows:

Table 17: Grounded Theory Process

Phase	**Activity**	**Rationale**

Research Design Phase		
Step 1: Review of technical literature	Define research question	Focuses efforts
	Define *a priori* constructs	Constrains irrelevant variation and sharpens theoretical sensitivity
Step 2: Selection of cases	Unit of analysis and theoretical sampling	Focuses efforts on theoretically useful cases
Data Collection Phase		
Step 3: Develop rigorous data collection protocol	Create case study database	Chain of evidence
	Employ multiple data collection methods	Corroboration
	Qualitative and Quantitative data	Synergistic view of evidence
Step 4: Enter the field	Overlap data collection and analysis	Speeds analysis and reveals helpful adjustments to data collection
	Flexible and opportunistic data collection methods	Allows investigators to take advantage of emergent themes and unique case features
Data Ordering Phase		
Step 5: Data ordering	Array events temporally and spatially	Facilitates easier data analysis. Allows examination of processes

Data Analysis Phase		
Step 6: Analysis of case data	Analyse questionnaire data	Sort respondents according to their quantitative responses
	Apply initial coding	Identify initial explanatory concepts
	Apply focused coding	Identify emergent focused codes
	Discover categories	Identify the theoretically salient categories
Step 7: Reach closure	Theoretical saturation if possible	Ends process when marginal improvement becomes small
Step 8: Theory generation	Identify themes	Emergent themes explain the research problem and produce theoretical generalisations
Literature Comparison Phase		
Step 9: Compare emergent theory with extant literature	Determine relevance of preliminary literature review	Generated theory determines the relevance of the literature

Research Strategy

The research strategy section that follows provides a narrative of the research steps that will be followed over the course of the empirical phase of this research. A list of the research steps to be followed is contained in table 17 on the previous two pages.

Research Design Phase

Step 1 of this phase has been completed in the first 5 chapters of this thesis. Step 2 requires an explanation of the rationale for the choice of case and the unit of analysis. The reader is reminded that case study selection can take one of two forms: (1) a case can be selected because it is simply interesting or (2) a case can be purposefully selected because it is information rich, critical, revelatory, unique or extreme. For the purposes of this research a purposeful selection will be made based on the following criteria:

1. The case is information rich in terms of the research problem. In other words the selected case must be a company that makes use of an enterprise social network.
2. Morse (1994: 228) defines the good participant as the "one who has the knowledge and experience the researcher requires, has the ability to reflect, is articulate, has the time to be interviewed, and is willing to participate in the study". This principle must apply at both the corporate and individual level of the case study selection.

In selecting the unit of analysis, the author chooses to employ a holistic, single case design (see figure 22). The holistic view will be used to assess the chosen case as a single cultural unit over the course of the data collection and analysis.

Data Collection Phase

Step 3 of the grounded theory process is to develop a rigorous data collection protocol. The first part of the step is to create a case study database in order to maintain the chain of evidence. In this research work, the case study database will be created in Microsoft Excel 2010. This dissertation will make use of two data collection methods: a quantitative questionnaire followed by two rounds of in-depth interviews. The two distinct data collection methods will assist in corroborating the research findings.

The questionnaire shall be administered as follows:

1. The questions have been taken from three pre-validated survey tools as described in chapter 5.
2. The questionnaire is composed of three sections each dealing with a different theoretical aspect of employee engagement.
3. The author will secure the cooperation of the company chosen as the case.

4. The questionnaire will be administered in an online format via www.formstack.com.

5. The questionnaire will be available for three weeks.

After the three weeks, the online questionnaire will be removed and the data gathered will be recorded, organised, and carefully analysed. The questionnaire will assist the author in identifying individuals for interview who are theoretically interesting from the perspective of the research problem.

In step 4, the author will immerse himself in the field through a series of in-depth interviews with individuals identified as interesting through the questionnaire. The interviews are intended to be flexible as the initial concepts are defined and become more structured as categories begin to emerge. The first interviews will be structured using the theoretical framework contained in chapter 5 but will actively seek to produce alternative explanations for the phenomenon measured by the questionnaire; the culture of employee engagement. As more interview data is gathered and concepts are identified the author can rely less on the *a priori* theoretical framework and more on the theory that emerges from the data to guide the remainder of the interviews. The interviews will take place over two weeks at the participants' places of work in order for the researcher to be immersed in the research context. The interviews will be recorded using a Dictaphone for later analysis and a research journal will be maintained by the author. After the interviews the researcher will transcribe and analyse the audio data for initial codes, focused codes and categories along with the material contained in the research journal.

Data Ordering Phase

The organisation of the data will take the form of both spatial and temporal ordering. Spatially, the context of the data is important for the analysis of future phenomenon. The spatial dimension seeks to capture the location of a particular event. The data will also be organized chronologically.

Data Analysis Phase

Data analysis is broken into two parts: the quantitative questionnaire data and the interview data. Each set of data will require a different method of analysis in order to properly define the events under study.

With the exception of a basic demographic section, the questionnaire data will be quantitative in nature. The questionnaire will allow the researcher to create employee engagement profiles for each of the respondents which can then be used to identify potential interviewees. The respondents will be allocated into one of the five levels of employee engagement proposed as the amended x-model in chapter 5 depending on their net score for each of the questionnaire's last two sections; state and behavioural engagement.

The first section measuring state engagement is out of a potential 102 points while the second section, measuring behavioural engagement, is out of a potential 40 points. The top score that a respondent can give themselves is 102:40. This point is the apex of "The Engaged" triangle in Figure 26 over page. These ranges have been selected by the researcher to filter the respondents. These ranges are not firmly quantitative in nature but rather act as a quantitative/qualitative lens to assist in the identification of extreme and moderate cases to have an optimal mix of interviewees to develop the theory. Given the interpretivist nature of this research work, the emphasis is on the qualitative value of the ranges and their associated levels of employee engagement.

Table 18: Score ranges and associated levels of employee engagement

Range	**Allocation**
92 – 102 (state engagement), 36 - 40 (behavioural engagement)	The Engaged
52 – 91 (state engagement), 21 - 35 (behavioural engagement)	The Almost Engaged
52 - 102 (state engagement), 0 - 20 (behavioural engagement)	The Honeymooners and Hamsters
0 - 51 (state engagement), 21 - 40 (behavioural engagement)	The Crash and Burners
0 - 51 (state engagement), 0 - 20 (behavioural engagement)	The Disengaged

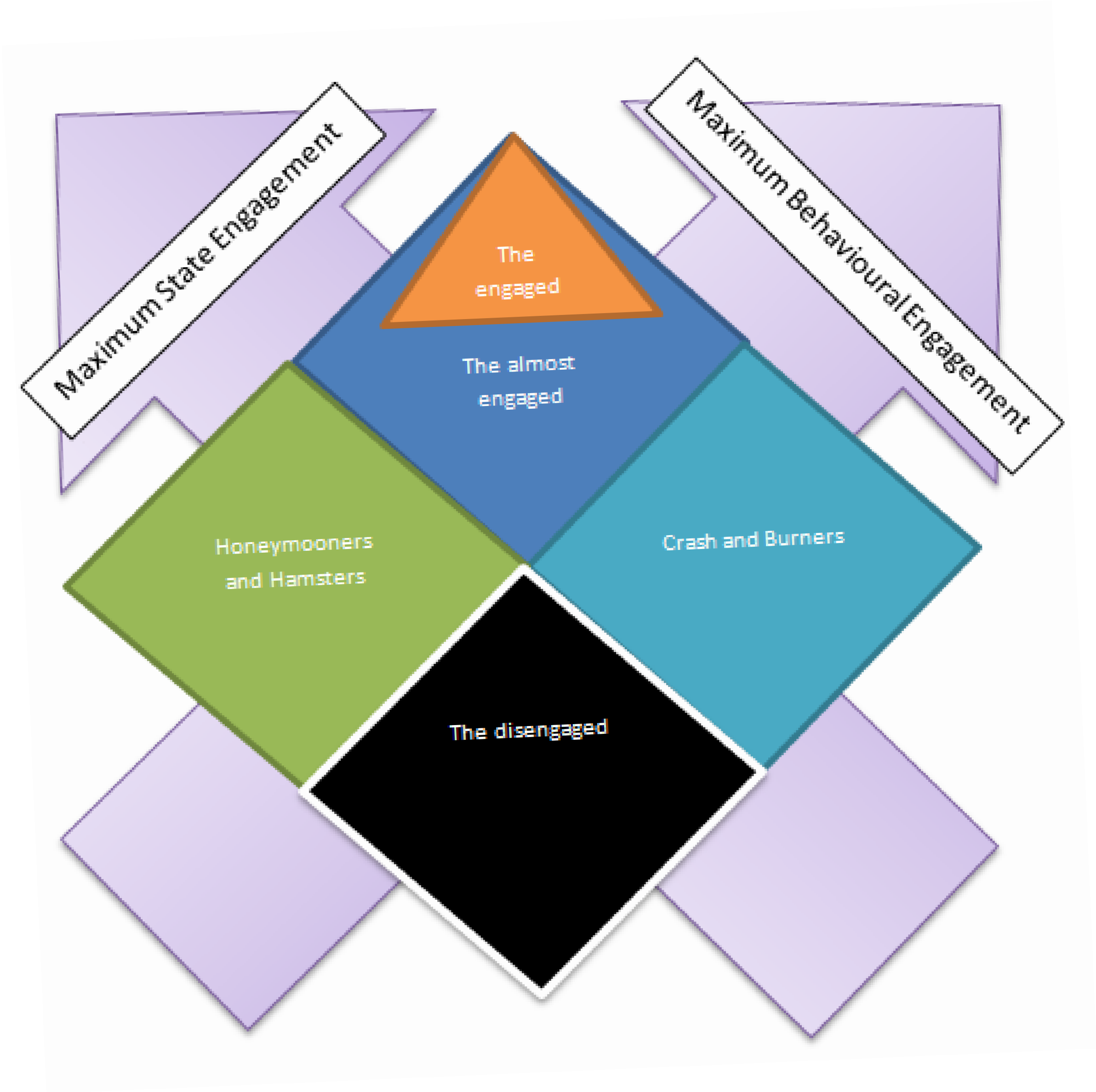

Figure 26: Amended x-model of employee engagement

In analysing the qualitative interview data, the author intends to follow the same procedure as that used by Andrade (2009). Once the interview data has been transcribed it can be subjected to the initial coding process in order to identify concepts. After concepts have been identified they can be re-analysed to determine the most significant concepts in terms of the focused coding technique. The focused coding process seeks to produce focused codes which represent the relationship between conceptually similar concepts. The third step of the phase is to uncover the core categories in the data from which theory can be generated. This is done by analysing the focused codes for similarities and differences so that they may be grouped into theoretically salient categories. The coding process is iterative and ends when the researcher regards the categories as being theoretically saturated. Once this point has been reached the themes of the data can be discovered and used to explain the research problem. The themes are the constituents of the theory produced from the data.

Literature Comparison Phase

The final phase of the grounded theory process is to compare the emergent theory to the literature and the initial theoretical framework (See chapter 5). This phase allows the researcher to look back and critique the theoretical validity of the literature from which the initial framework was derived. The framework may then be amended or extended to reflect the new theory that has emerged from the data.

Ethical Considerations

The Nuremburg Code consists of 10 basic ethical principles that must be upheld in all research endeavours (University of Minnesota, 2003: 5). These 10 principles are given as follows:

1. Research participants must voluntarily consent to research participation
2. Research aims should contribute to the good of society
3. Research must be based on sound theory and prior animal testing
4. Research must avoid unnecessary physical and mental suffering
5. No research projects can go forward where serious injury and/or death are potential outcomes
6. The degree of risk taken with research participants cannot exceed anticipated benefits of results
7. Proper environment and protection for participants is necessary
8. Experiments can be conducted only by scientifically qualified persons
9. Human subjects must be allowed to discontinue their participation at any time
10. Scientists must be prepared to terminate the experiment if there is cause to believe that continuation will be harmful or result in injury or death

Although not all of the above are applicable to the research at hand, all of them should be in the forefront of any researcher's mind. The rights of human subjects must be protected by conscientious scrutiny of each University research project and class project in order to identify all foreseeable risks (Rhodes University, 2012). In addition, all subjects should be afforded the opportunity to protect themselves, and should participate only by express consent, freely given after having received adequate information about the project in order to evaluate the risks that may be encountered as well as rights to anonymity and confidentiality (Rhodes University, 2012). Finally, subjects must be able to rely on the researcher to respect their privacy, to maintain anonymous status, and to keep confidential all data collected related to participation in the project within the limitations referred to above (Rhodes University, 2012).

Conclusion

In this chapter, research in general was discussed as well as the specific methodology that will best suit this research problem. In the first instance a guiding interpretive research paradigm was selected as a best fit for the culture/technology basis of this research. Secondly, two complementary research methodologies were introduced: the case study and grounded theory. A case study methodology was shown to be a suitable means of limiting the scope and unit of analysis for the research while the grounded theory methodology provides a rigorous process for the development of theory from data. Having chosen these two methodologies, the research strategy is detailed providing a blueprint for the research steps that will be followed. The final section dealt with ethical considerations, a key facet of any research endeavour involving human or animal subjects.

Chapter 7: Results

In this chapter, the results of the survey process and the interview process are detailed.

Introduction

Following on from the research methodology chapter, the results chapter details the findings that were made after implementing the empirical part of the research strategy. The chapter is broken in three sections the first of which briefly describes the chosen case company. The next two sections detail (1) the results of the quantitative survey process, and (2) the results of the qualitative interview process.

The Selected Case

In the previous chapter two requirements for a suitable case were defined. These requirements were:

1. The case must information rich in terms of the research problem. In other words the selected case must be a company that makes use of an enterprise social network.
2. Both the company and its employees must meet the definition of the good participant, "one who has the knowledge and experience the researcher requires, has the ability to reflect, is articulate, has the time to be interviewed, and is willing to participate in the study" (Morse, 1994: 228).

Making use of these requirements a suitable case was selected for data gathering. The case in question has particular features which will be critically important in determining the outcomes and value of this research. The chosen company operates within the Information Technology consulting industry of South Africa and the United Kingdom. Given that the company is consulting based many of its members spend little time in any of the company's offices but are rather in the field working on client projects. This dispersion provides a clear context for the use of an Enterprise Social Network.

Results of the Survey Process

In order to corroborate results, multiple data collection methods must be employed (Andrade, 2009). In the first phase of data collection a quantitative survey tool, as described in chapter 5, was rolled out to all of the case's members; some 153 potential respondents. The survey was made available for a period of three weeks during August 2012 after which time 118 responses were received; 77% of the case's total employee population. The first step of data analysis for the quantitative data was to determine whether or not the sampling distributions for state engagement and behavioural engagement were normal after removing outliers. This exercise was necessary to determine what statistical instruments could be used to aid in interpreting the data. To determine whether or not the distributions were normal, normal probability plots were constructed. To construct a normal probability plot, the data are plotted against a theoretical normal distribution in such a way that the points should form an approximate straight line. Departures from this straight line indicate departures from normality. Figures 27 and 28 below contain the required normal probability plots.

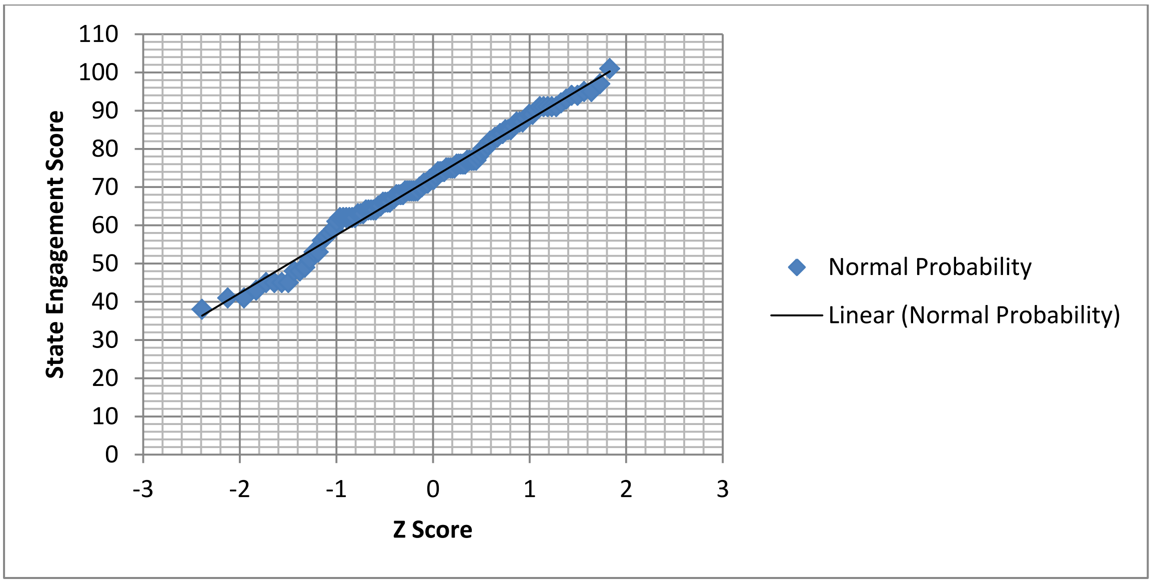

Figure 27: Normal Probability Plot for State Engagement

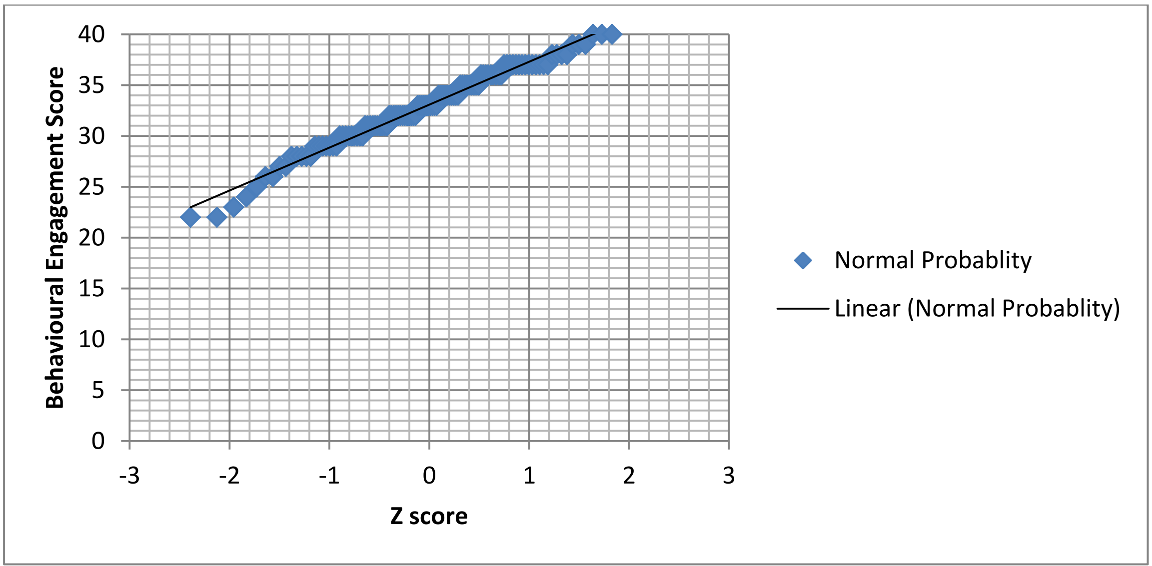

Figure 28: Normal Probability Plot for Behavioural Engagement

While some variability was indicated in the low values, the plots do form an approximately straight line. This would indicate that the data are normally distributed. For this reason Pearson’s Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient could be used to determine whether or not state engagement and behavioural engagement are correlated. Without evidence of correlation, the two measures could not be used to create an employee engagement profile for the respondents and identify interesting interviewees. Figure 29 below illustrates the formula for determining *r*, the correlation coefficient.

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

Figure 29: Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Formula

The calculation for the *r* of state engagement and behavioural engagement follows:

n = 115

$\sum$xy = 277367

$\sum$x = 8391

$\sum$y = 3839

$\sum x^2$ = 621789

$\sum y^2$ = 127071

$$r = \frac{115(277367) - (8391)(3839)}{(115 \times 621789 - 8391^2)(115 \times 127071 - 3839^2)}$$

$r = 0.573829476$

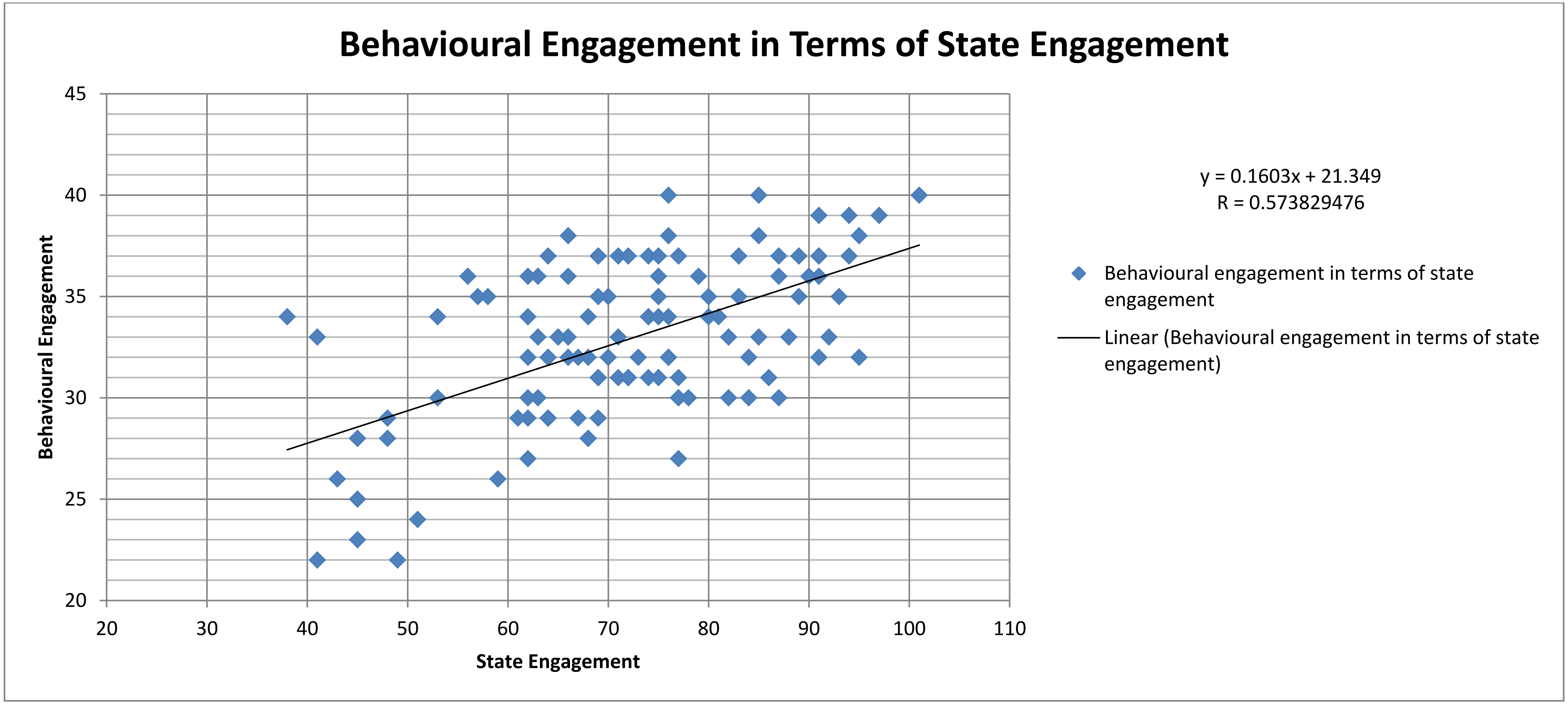

Figure 30: Behavioural Engagement in Terms of State Engagement

The quantitative results of the survey, show a positive correlation (r = 0.573829476) between behavioural engagement and state engagement in the case. To determine the statistical significance of Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient for the samples, Student's t-test was used. The t value for *r* is determined using the following formula:

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}$$

The resultant t value is 7.45. The null hypothesis to be tested is that the *r* observed is the result of chance. Consequently, the alternative hypothesis is that the observed *r* is not the result of a chance. From the t table with an α of 0.01 and 113 degrees of freedom, the tabled value is 2.390. The calculated t value is greater than the tabled value and the null hypothesis can therefore be rejected. Hence the observed *r* is statistically significant and state and behavioural engagement are correlated.

Macey and Schneider's (2008) proposed model of employee engagement stated that trait engagement precipitates state engagement, and state engagement engenders behavioural engagement. The statistical analysis showed that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between state engagement and behavioural engagement but causation was not the purview of this research work. The intention of the quantitative phase of the research was to determine whether or not a culture of engagement exists within the chosen case. To see whether the culture exists, it was shown that state and behavioural engagement, as determined by the survey instrument, were positively correlated and had high mean values in the case. A descriptive summary of the data is provided in the table below:

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics

Statistic	**State Engagement (potential score = 102)**	**Behavioural Engagement (potential score = 40)**
Mean	71.72	32.84
Median	72	33
Mode	69	37

Statistic	**State Engagement (potential score = 102)**	**Behavioural Engagement (potential score = 40)**
Standard Error	1.29	0.36
Standard Deviation	13.89	3.87
Variance	194.69	15.18

All three aspects of Macey and Schneider's (2008) model of employee engagement are illustrated together in table 20. It is clear that there is an upward trend in the state engagement scores the more positive an outlook (trait engagement) a subject has. The same can be said for behavioural engagement scores which increased the more generalised positive affect is felt by the subject (trait positive affect). Again, it must be stressed that causation was not the goal of this research; all that was required was evidence that the survey scores are or are not significantly correlated. By demonstrating the existence of a relationship, the Macey and Schneider (2008) model of employee engagement can be used to map the engagement landscape of the case and determine whether or not a culture of employee engagement exists.

Table 20: Trait, State and Behavioural Engagement Cross Section

	State				Behaviour			
Trait	AVG	MEDIAN	HIGH	LOW	AVG	MEDIAN	HIGH	LOW
Negative (4)	59	58	74	45	30	30	37	22
Neutral (14)	54	48	94	38	30	29	37	22
Positive (71)	72	70	97	43	33	32	40	26
Very Positive (26)	84	83	101	65	36	36	40	28

The mapping result is depicted in Figure 30 over page. Figure 30 is an engagement map that provides a pictorial view of the case's culture with regard to employee engagement. To interpret the map, the reader is reminded of the amended x-model of engagement in Figure 26 in chapter 5. In Figure 26, individuals can be categorised into one of five engagement levels: the engaged, the almost engaged, honeymooners and hamsters, crash and burners or the disengaged. This categorisation is based on a combination of the individual's results from the state engagement section and the behavioural engagement section of the survey. Table 18 in chapter 5 provides a detailed overview of score ranges for the state and behaviour sections of the survey and the resultant engagement levels.

Further analysis of the data showed that no link between engagement level/score and race or age could be drawn; however an analysis by gender showed that "Crash and Burners" tended to be women by a ratio of 3:1. This finding coincides with a higher incidence of neutral personalities (those feeling positive and negative emotions on a roughly equal basis) amongst the female respondents. Engaged respondents were equally prevalent between the two genders. An analysis by business area confirmed one expected outcome, namely that those at the executive level were more likely to be engaged than was any other respondent. The engagement scores in the other four business areas did not significantly deviate from the pattern seen at the overall level. Finally an analysis by personality type, as determined by the I-PANAS-SF, showed that almost all of the "Crash and Burners" along with the one disengaged individual had either negative or neutral personality types. Reciprocally, all but one of the engaged respondents had a positive or very positive personality type.

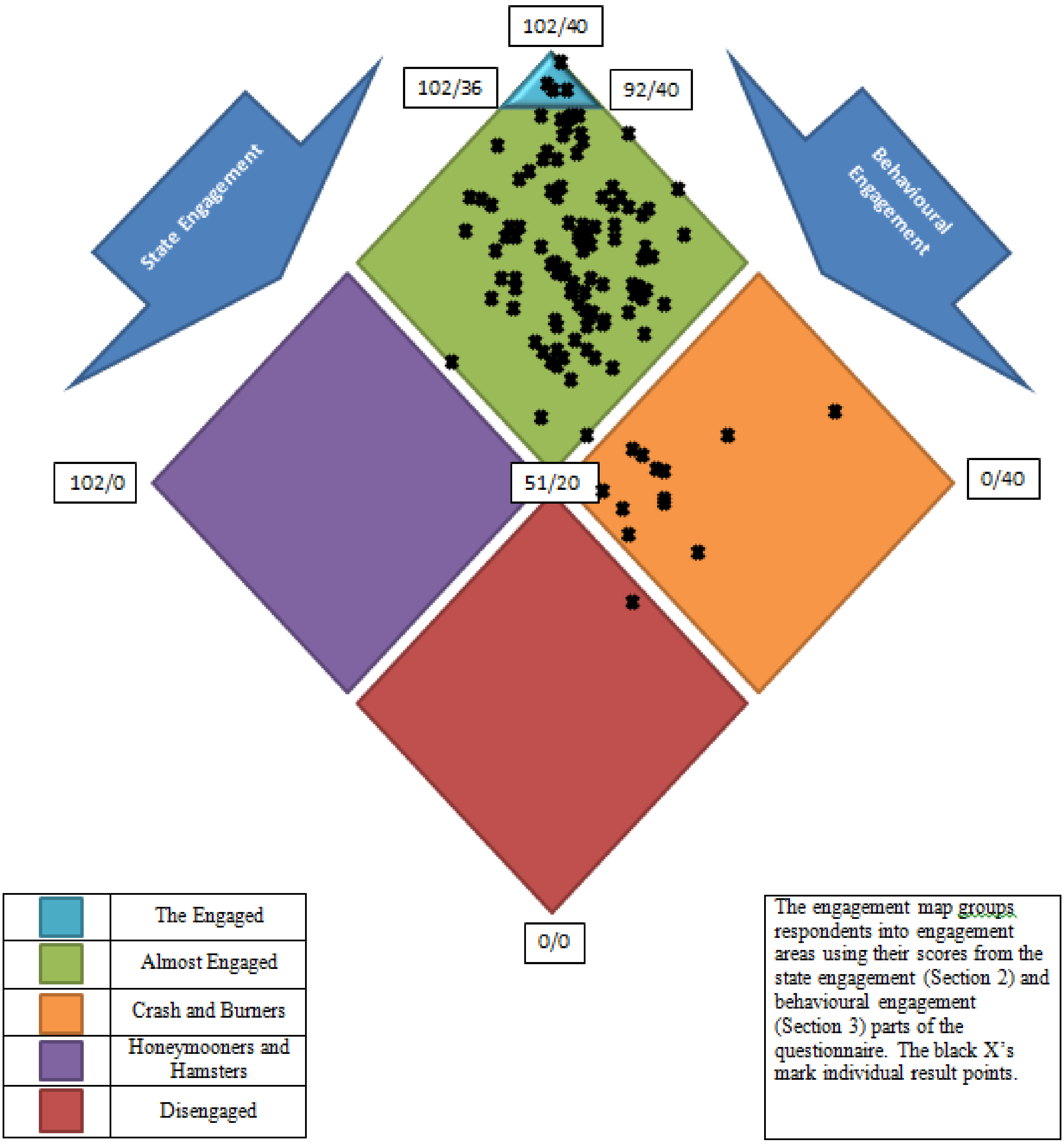

Figure 31: Engagement map

Results of the Interview Process

Once the engagement map had been created it was possible to identify theoretically interesting cases within the case's population. In choosing theoretically interesting cases a combination of tenure, job level, organisational division, gender and engagement level were used. The potential interview list was composed of some 24 individuals, nine of whom were able, willing and theoretically sufficient for the interview process. The individuals were based in the Cape Town and Johannesburg offices of the chosen case company. In order for the researcher to observe the working environment and the individual's natural settings, the interviews were conducted face-to-face in each of the two offices; four in Johannesburg and five in Cape Town. The interview process produced codes and categories that can be used to generate theory. To remind the reader, the thematic analysis follows that laid out by Andrade (2009) in chapter 6. In Grounded Theory, data gathering and analysis are overlapped. Over the course of two weeks the researcher interviewed nine participants beginning with a more structured interview format to focus the conversation. As more interviews were performed, the format became steadily more unstructured as the data already gathered could be used to frame further engagement. Over the course of the interviews, data analysis was also performed. In the analysis, each interview was transcribed and initially coded; that is to say that a line-by-line analysis of the data was performed to identify codes and 'break the data open'. Once the interviews had been completed, focused/axial coding began whereby similar initial codes were grouped under emergent headings to begin to form a theoretical view of the data. Once this had been completed, the next level of data refinement was performed by grouping related focused codes under categories. Categories are at the generic process level and overlap empirical settings and problems (Charmaz, 2006). Codes can either be direct quotes from interview participants or they can represent the researcher's theoretical opinion of what is happening in the data (Charmaz, 2006). In Table 21, the initial codes are quoted largely verbatim from interview participants except in instances where minor transformations were required to protect both the cases' identity and the identity of the participants or the direct quote did not provide adequate meaning as a code. All transformations in the initial codes are indicated in italics. Focused codes were determined as summary terms for similar initial codes as deemed appropriate by the researcher. Following the same method, the categories were defined as summary terms for conceptually related focused codes. The initial codes (column 1), focused codes (column 2) and categories (column 3) as identified are detailed in Table 21 over page.

Table 21: Coding results

Initial Codes	**Focused Codes**	**Categories**
ESN provides strong sense of purpose for new *members*, educates new *members*, *ESN* is the 'go to' virtual person for new *members*, new *members* don't have to constantly ask questions of their *immediate colleagues*, *ESN replaces the need for other socialization techniques*	Socialization	People Impacts
Understand where you stand, *ESN* provides sense of community, very team oriented, people within the company are sociable, *ESN* gives all *members* a voice, *members* are not afraid to share their opinions, *members* encourage one another, *members* behave like all input is very valuable, *members* share what is important to them, develop more authentic working relationships, *ESN sustains positive emotional states*, access to larger pool of people, awareness of events within the community, desire to be a part of the community, *ESN* positively impacts behaviour, *asynchronous following limits information overload*, group conversations, *cost of communication is low*, everyone makes use of the *ESN*, varying degrees of use of the *ESN*, neural network	Community Building	

Initial Codes	**Focused Codes**	**Categories**
Relationships are more personal and better developed *despite dislocation*, people are not in the office so *ESN* is needed	Impact on dislocation	
Aware of current events, *ESN* is a useful source of information, best resource within the company, *members* can enter a client environment knowing where they stand and what is required, *members* are better prepared for challenges, *members* have greater confidence and do not require constant validation, linking information to purpose through tags, company goals are tracked on the *ESN*, company goals are made visible on the *ESN*, *ESN* still needs to develop a culture of tagging, not everything is tagged, tags provide greater transparency in decision making, information can be found faster, lack of integration with data repositories	Information Access	Job Impacts
High standards of output, tracking performance targets, receive feedback on career progress, share feedback for other *members*, comments associated with recognition are valuable	Performance Management	

Initial Codes	**Focused Codes**	**Categories**
People are rewarded based on company values, recognition system very helpful for new *members*, sense of appreciation, you can see your impact on others through the recognition system, when you are rewarded you feel like you fit in, positive reinforcement, not well used by employees who are not new or at top management level	Recognition	
Members can make a difference within the company, authentic environment, from day one you are a contributing member of the team, people are accountable for both the good and the bad, goal is to make positive change in everything that any *member* does	Contribution and accountability	Culture Drivers
Culture of learning, learn from one another, open feedback, feedback means that everyone gets smarter, everyone benefits from open feedback, continuous learning	Organizational learning	
ESN is a tool for finding collaborative partners, group collaboration, not used for one-on-one collaboration, the less people involved in the collaboration the less effective *is the ESN*, easier to initiate collaboration, *engenders a* culture of collaboration	Collaboration	

Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher detailed but did not discuss the results of the research. In the interest of corroboration, the research was composed of both a quantitative and a qualitative phase. The quantitative data was gathered through a questionnaire that was used to produce an engagement map; a visualization of the case's corporate culture. The qualitative data was gathered through interviews and was used to produce codes and categories that will be used to produce a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement.

Chapter 8: Discussion

The discussion chapter concludes the research through the proposal of a theory of enterprise social networking sustaining and growing a culture of Employee Engagement. Included is a final theoretical framework that details the processes sustaining and expanding the culture of Engagement within the social network.

Introduction

The discussion should be clear, concise and interesting (Azar, 2006). In this chapter, the research comes to its conclusion detailing the theory that emerges from the data. In proposing the theory each of the research question's goals must be met, the first of which was dealt with in chapter 5 whereas the last two must be dealt with here. Once the theory has been generated the literature and the initial theoretical framework can be critiqued as to their relevance. The chapter also includes a short overview of suggested future work.

Discussion

It is appropriate that this discussion centres on the research question proposed back in chapter 1 of this research work. To refresh the memory, "This research aims to provide a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement within a chosen South African private sector company." In decomposing the research question the following three research goals were proposed:

1. Propose a survey tool that will be a measure of engagement.
2. Determine the current employee engagement levels in a selected South African private sector company currently making use of social networking using the employee engagement survey created in goal 1.
3. Generate a theory of how enterprise social networking generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement.

Goal 1 of the research question was dealt with in chapter 5, but the two remaining goals must be thoroughly satisfied in the discussion chapter.

Once met, goal 2 allows the researcher to determine whether or not a culture of employee engagement exists within the chosen case company. If a culture of engagement does exist then the researcher would determine if and how the enterprise social network (ESN) is playing a part in generating and/or sustaining the culture. If a culture of engagement does not exist it would be very difficult to tell what impact the ESN has within the case. This is because the interviewees would be unable to understand a culture of employee engagement and communicate about it if they have not experienced it. In the results chapter, the engagement map provided a clear visualization of an engaged corporate culture with the vast majority of the case's members falling into the almost engaged category of employee engagement, a category composed of individuals with medium to high state and behavioural engagement but lacking permanent absorption, attachment and enthusiasm toward the organisation. Of key interest was the finding that there is not a single honeymooner or hamster within the organisation. A honeymooner is a new member who is thrilled to be a part of the organization (high state engagement) but has not yet had the opportunity to contribute (low behavioural engagement). A hamster is a member who has been with the organisation for a while who is happy where they are but they choose not to contribute to organizational objectives. It is theoretically interesting to note that neither of these classes of individuals exists within the chosen case clearly indicating that the corporate culture demands contribution from its members. This indication is epitomised in an excerpt from one of the interviews, "So from day one we have high expectations of you, you are a member of the team, we expect you to contribute, and we hope that you have high expectations of us." The next result of interest is the influence of personality type on employee engagement level. Respondents were allocated a personality type based upon their responses to the I-PANAS-SF as used to measure trait engagement. The allocated personality type could be very positive, positive, neutral, negative or very negative. Of all of the Crash and Burners only two of the 11 had positive personalities, the remainder had either neutral or negative personality types. In the engaged category only one individual had a neutral personality while the majority had very positive personalities. The table below provides a quantitative overview of the incidence of each of the personality types in each of the engagement levels:

Table 22: Personality type, engagement level interplay

	Very Positive	**Positive**	**Neutral**	**Negative**	**Very Negative**
The Engaged (5)	60% (3)	20% (1)	20% (1)	-	-
Almost Engaged (100)	23% (23)	70% (70)	5% (5)	2% (2)	-

Honeymooners and Hamsters (0)	-	-	-	-	-
Crash and Burners (11)	-	18% (2)	64% (7)	18% (2)	-
The Disengaged (1)	-	-	-	100% (1)	-

From table 20 it is indicated, but not proven, that personality and engagement level are related. If a respondent is classified as having a very positive personality, they should fall into the engaged or almost engaged categories. If they have a positive personality they are almost sure to be almost engaged. If the respondent has a neutral personality, they may be almost engaged but are equally likely to be a crash and burner. No apparent relationship can be identified between negative personalities and particular engagement levels given the low incidence of the negative personality type.

The key result to have emerged from the survey is that the chosen case company is assessed to have a culture of employee engagement. This result allowed the researcher to interview theoretically interesting case members to determine the impact, if any, that the case's ESN has on the corporate culture.

The first and most critical question is: does the ESN generate and/or sustain a culture of employee engagement? The answer is yes; it does sustain and grow the case's culture, the mechanisms of which were discovered through the interview process. The reason that the ESN sustains and grows the culture of engagement rather than generating it is because some of the key drivers of engagement occur outside of the ESN. The most important of these drivers, as determined through the interviews, is that of the recruitment practices which ensure value compatibility. In the Robbins (2001) model of organisational culture generation as depicted over page, the selection criteria is the point of entry to the organisation. In the case it became clear that selection is a key business process that has helped to ensure cultural integration, sustainability and high performance.

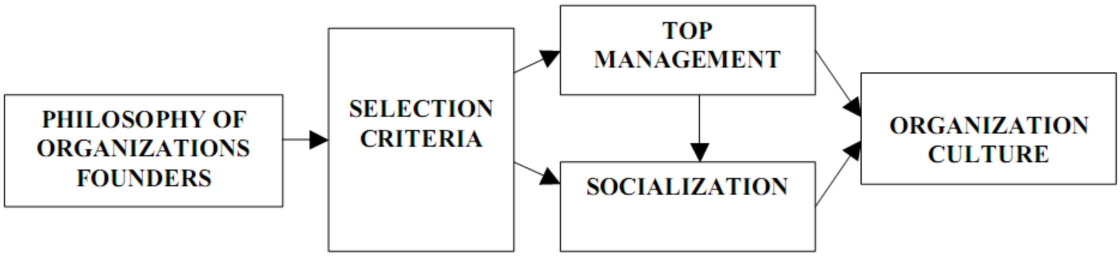

Figure 32: Robbins (2001) model of culture creation

The interview process yielded the codes and categories as contained in Table 19 in the previous chapter. In the grounded theory methodology, the categories identified are the building blocks of theory. The ultimate aim of this research is to produce a theory of enterprise social networking that generates and/or sustains a culture of employee engagement. Three categories were identified from which the research themes can be extracted: people impacts, job impacts and culture drivers. People impacts is an umbrella term for those codes which refer to direct ESN impacts on the organisational community. This category covers issues of socialization, community building and the ESN’s impacts on dislocation within the case. The next category is job impacts which refer to specific task related processes that the ESN has a profound impact upon. Under this category sit codes relating to information access, performance management and recognition. The final category is that of culture drivers. This category encompasses those codes which are directly supportive of the culture of engagement; they are sub-cultures supported by the ESN that underpin the culture of employee engagement. The focused codes in the culture drivers category are contribution and accountability, collaboration and organizational learning. From these categories the themes of the research can be found and used to generate the theory. The first theme identified is the ESN’s positive impact on the society of the organisation. This theme incorporates the people impacts and the culture drivers categories. This theme explains how the ESN is directly supportive of and is a key feature of the society of the case company. Since its introduction in 2010, the ESN has become an important driver and sustainer of culture within the case, made apparent through the interview process. It was many times stated by interviewees that the ESN is a critical part of their daily lives allowing them to communicate regardless of location, collaborate on a grand scale and remain informed. The second theme is composed of the job impacts category. This theme is the impact that the ESN has on the way that people work and develop. Through the interview process it was made apparent that the ESN has become a key feature not only of community life but also of work life. The ESN allows organisational members to integrate who they are as people with the work that they do within the organisation. The result is a community of contribution that resides within a culture of employee engagement. It must be noted at this point that the ESN is by no means perfect in supporting the organisational culture. It was made certain that many improvements can be made to the ESN and members' use of it. Particular areas for improvement were the recognition system which a few of the interviewees felt held little meaning for those who are not new to the organisation if the system does not have some form of economic value. Certain aspects of information access were also criticized with interviewees lamenting the lack of integration of data repositories with the ESN, limiting or crippling ease of information access. An almost universally criticized aspect of the ESN and the corporate culture was transparency of decision making with many individuals being unable to fathom the rationale behind decisions made at the top level. Tags to organisational objectives were touted by a few as the answer to this problem but they and other interviewees did point out that tagging of information on the ESN has not been consistent and needs to become a part of the organisational culture. Despite these shortcomings all interviewees felt that the ESN was a critical part of their organisational life and plays a key part in the way that they feel (state engagement) and the way that they behave (behavioural engagement). Making use of the two identified themes the theory of enterprise social networking sustaining and growing a culture of engagement is given as follows:

> An enterprise social network sustains and grows a culture of employee engagement by positively impacting the organisational society and positively impacting the way that organisational members work and develop.

Relevance of the Literature

As stated in chapter 6, the final phase of this grounded theory process is to compare the findings to the literature and the initial theoretical framework (figure 22) in order to critique their relevance. To critique the literature, Chapter 2: Employee Engagement is the first port of call. This chapter dealt with the concept of engagement, its drivers, its relevance to business and its measurement. Using the results of this research, the drivers of engagement described by the literature can be contrasted to those that emerged. The table below highlights the drivers of employee engagement as stated by various researchers:

Table 23: Literature engagement drivers

Author(s)	**Engagement Drivers**
Saks (2006)	Workload, control, rewards and recognition, community and social support, perceived fairness, and values
Robinson *et al.* (2004)	Good line management, two-way communication, effective internal co-operation, a development focus, commitment to employee wellbeing, and clear and accessible HR policies and practices
MacLeod and Clarke (2009)	Leadership, engaged managers, employee voice and integrity
Bakker and Demerouti (2008)	Social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy, and learning opportunities

The employee engagement drivers discovered over the course of the research were (1) an employee voice, (2) support from colleagues, (3) richer and more authentic relationships, (4) access to information that decreases job demands, (5) focus on socialization, (6) focus on performance management, (7) a culture of accountability and contribution, (8) open feedback, and (9) a culture of collaboration. This list is by no means exhaustive as it only refers to those drivers that were made apparent within the ESN.

The third chapter dealt with social media, its mechanisms of action and its potential association with employee engagement. Grounded in the data, the theory produced confirms the proposed link between social media, more particularly enterprise social networking, and employee engagement.

The fourth chapter was centred on organisational cultures, their formation, and leadership which had been indicated in the literature to be of critical importance to a culture of employee engagement. While leadership may play a key role it was often revealed throughout the interview process that leadership, as represented by the people to purpose circle in the initial theoretical framework, was either underdeveloped or non-existent within the ESN. This is not to say that the case company lacked strong leadership, it simply indicates that the ESN has not been exploited as a leadership platform, perhaps to the detriment of the corporate culture.

Chapter 5 detailed the initial theoretical framework (ITF), a sensitizing device to be used to guide the interview process, at least initially. The ITF was based on the Deloitte connect model with amendments to include concepts identified within the literature as important. For the first three interviews the ITF was useful in helping the interviewees to understand the concepts behind employee engagement and its potential relationship with the ESN. However, it was soon apparent that the ITF was not suitable to elaborate on and explore the emerging codes. In chapter 6 it was said that after assessing the relevance of the underlying literature in light of the results, "the framework may then be amended or extended to reflect the new theory that has emerged from the data." However, the researcher does not agree that the data should be forced to fit into a pre-developed mould. A fresh framework should instead be created to suit the data. As such, the final theoretical framework (FTF) is proposed over page.

In the FTF, the culture of employee engagement sits at the core being the ultimate goal of the ESN. Auxiliary to the culture of engagement are three sub-cultures each of which are directly supported and/or generated through the ESN: culture of learning, culture of collaboration and culture of accountability and contribution. The ESN then has several conceptual features that have profound impacts on the organisation either by changing the way that people work or by bringing them together. Even with their stated shortcomings recognition, performance management and information access have a positive impact on the way that case members work and develop themselves. The three most well developed parts of the ESN are socialization processes, community building and impact on dislocation. These aspects all have a positive impact on the way that organisational members feel and behave thus improving performance. In concert, the sub-cultures and ESN aspects identified sustain and grow a culture of employee engagement.

Figure 33: Final Theoretical Framework

The FTF provides the greatest value of the research. The FTF is what practitioners and other researchers can theoretically take and apply to different business contexts in order to create better organisational cultures. In order to create the value a clear definition of each part of FTF is required

Firstly, employee engagement is the goal of the FTF for reasons indicated in chapter 2, entirely dedicated to the concept. As a reminder, chapter 2 showed a clear positive relationship between engagement and business performance indicators, including customer loyalty, profitability, productivity, revenue, employee retention, competitiveness and earnings per share.

In support of employee engagement are three sub-cultures identified in the data. The first is a culture of accountability and contribution. This culture is defined from the first day of work within the organisation where new members are told that the best is expected of them and they should expect the best from the organisation. The requirement of contribution does not only apply to new members but also to those who are a fixture of the organisation. This culture is a basis for trust, repeatedly indicated as critical for performance at the individual and group levels. Accountability means that members are held responsible for both the good and the bad that they produce; reinforcing the trust relationship between the members and the organisation. Accountability ties into the next sub-culture, the culture of learning. In a culture of learning members are given the space to experiment but are held accountable for the outcome whether positive or negative. This autonomy with outcome appraisal allows individual members as well as the organisation as a whole to grow and develop. The final sub-culture is a culture of collaboration. In this culture organisational members do not act in uncertainty or in isolation. This is because the enterprise social network provides members with a large pool of relationships that decrease individual work burdens and risk. To repeat an earlier mantra human capital produces social capital which in turn produces human capital which in turn produces social capital… This mantra is the core of the culture of collaboration where skills and talents can be shared across the organisation resulting in a better quality of individual and organisational output.

Orbiting the “cultural core” of the FTF are the enterprise social network aspects that drive the inner cultures. The first of these aspects is recognition. The recognition system allows organisational members to thank one another where thanks are due in a both visual and public way. This aspect is directly supportive of the culture of accountability and contribution and the culture of learning. This aspect is particularly important in helping to absorb and indoctrinate new members in organisational cultural norms. The next aspect is information access. This aspect defines the ability of the enterprise social network to provide access to a both a greater quality and greater volume of information than organisational members would normally have access to. The information is provided through the relationships that people form and develop in the enterprise social network; again human capital creating social capital etc. This aspect ties directly into the culture of collaboration. Performance management allows organisational members to know exactly what is required of them, how well they are meeting the goals that are set for them, and holds members accountable for their actions. This aspect is plainly supportive of the culture of accountability and contribution as well as the culture of learning. The next aspect is that of community building, a broad umbrella for many factors existing within the enterprise social network. Some of the factors falling under community building are the decrease in the cost of communication for organisational members, a team-orientation, improvements in relationship quality, access to a larger pool of relationships, and the regulation of emotional states and behaviour within the organisation. All of these factors that fall under the community building aspect are produced by the enterprise social network provided that the social network is a priority of the organisation. The next aspect is the impact of the enterprise social network on dislocation. The case under research was interesting in that regardless of the dislocation of organisational members the culture of employee engagement still existed. The enterprise social network is the carrier and enabler of the culture of engagement under conditions where organisational members are not co-located; without the social network, the culture would no doubt be far more fragmented than measured. The final aspect of the enterprise social network is the socialization processes. This aspect encompasses the ability of the social network to be the best form of socialization within the organisation where new members have a wellspring of information and willing participants to their integration at their fingertips. The resources available on the enterprise social network decrease integration demands on new members, the demands on members who are co-located with new members to assist them, and to ensure the continuity of the organisational culture.

In concert the aspects of the enterprise social network support and enable the sub-cultures which in turn are responsible for the culture of employee engagement. The FTF is an implementable framework to support and grow a culture of employee engagement. It is not a producer of a culture of engagement; it is not the origin of the culture. As can be seen from chapter 2, much of what creates and drives engagement falls outside of the purview of the social network. The FTF is a tool to sustain and grow an existing culture of employee engagement.

Future Work

It would be interesting to repeat the study in other cases and compare the resulting theories with the theory produced here. That is not to say that this theory is not generalizable, as the goal of the grounded theory methodology is to produce generalizable theories. It is that the interpretivist view is that reality is subjective; if contexts are diverse and perceptions are diverse then the theory produced across cases may well be different and even contradictory. Another future work revolves around the impact of an ESN on innovation. Much of the data gathered through the interviews indicated that members were better able to communicate, collaborate and develop ideas using the ESN. A future study must surely be to determine the impact that the ESN has on the innovative capacity of the contexts within which they reside. The final future study of interest to the researcher is warranted by the data collected from the survey. In the survey it was found that women were considerably more likely to be crash and burners than men. It would be worthwhile to see whether this finding is generalizable and if so, what the underlying causes of the phenomenon are.

Conclusion

In this chapter it was found that an enterprise social network does sustain and grow a culture of employee engagement within the chosen case. A theory was then detailed which states that, “An enterprise social network sustains and grows a culture of employee engagement by positively impacting the organisational society and positively impacting the way that organisational members work and develop.” The ESN sustains the culture of engagement by incorporating recognition and performance management aspects, enabling easy access to information, socializing new members, building community and negating the impact of member dislocation. Further to these processes the ESN supports three sub-cultures that have been found to positively impact employee engagement. These three sub-cultures are: collaboration, learning, and accountability and contribution.

References

ADLER, P. S. AND KWON, S-W. (2002) Social Capital: Prospects for a New Concept. The Academy of Management Review, 27(1): 17-40

ALLEN, T. J. AND COHEN, S. I. (1969) Information flows in research and development laboratories. Administrative Science Quarterly, 14: 12–19.

ANCONA, D. G. (1990) Outward Bound: Strategies for Team Survival in the Organization. The Academy of Management Journal, 33(2): 334-365.

ANCONA, D. G. AND CLADWELL, D. F. (1992) Bridging the Boundary: External Activity and Performance in Organizational Teams. Administrative Science Quarterly, 37(4): 634-665.

ANDRADE, A. (2009) Interpretive Research Aiming at Theory Building: Adopting and Adapting the Case Study Design. The Qualitative Report, 14(1): 42-60.

ASUR, S. AND HUBERMAN, B. A. (2010) Predicting the Future with Social Media. In the Proceedings of the 2010 IEEE/WIC/ACM International Conference on Web Intelligence and Intelligent Agent Technology.

ASWATHAPPA, K. (2003) Organizational Behaviour. Bangalore: Publishing House.

AZAR, B. (2006) Discussing your findings. [online]. Available at: http://www.apa.org/gradpsych/2006/01/findings.aspx [Accessed 10 October 2012]

BASS, B. M. (1999) Two Decades of Research and Development in Transformational Leadership. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 8(1): 9-32.

BASS, B. M., AND STEIDLMEIER, P. (1998) Ethics, character and authentic transformational leadership. Leadership Quarterly, 10(2): 181–218.

BAKKER, A. B. AND DEMEROUTI, E. (2008) Towards a model of work engagement. Career Development International, 13(3): 209-223.

BARLEY, S. R. (1990) The alignment of technology and structure through roles and networks. Administrative Science Quarterly, 35: 61-103.

BENBASAT, I. AND WEBER, R. (1996) Rethinking 'Diversity' in Information Systems Research. Information Systems Research, 7(4): 389-399.

BEAUMONT, L. R. (2009) Symmetry: Apparent Balance. [online] Available at: http://www.emotionalcompetency.com/symmetry.htm [Accessed 21 June 2011]

BLACKSHAW, P. AND NAZZARO, M. (2006) Consumer-Generated Media (CGM) 101: Word-of-Mouth in the Age of the Web-Fortified Consumer. [online] Available at: http://www.nielsen-online.com/downloads/us/buzz/nbzm_wp_CGM101.pdf [Accessed 3 July 2011]

BLAU, P. M. (1955) The Dynamics of Bureaucracy. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

BLESSINGWHITE (2011) Employee engagement report 2011. [online] Available at: http://www.blessingwhite.com/eee__report.asp [Accessed 10 May 2011]

BOURDIEU, P. (1985) The social space and the genesis of groups. Theory and society, 14(6): 723-744.

BOURDIEU, P. AND WACQUANT, J. D. (1992) An invitation to reflexive sociology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

BRADLEY, A. (2010) A New Definition of Social Media. [online] Available at: http://blogs.gartner.com/anthony_bradley/2010/01/07/a-new-definition-of-social-media/ [Accessed 4 July 2011]

BRANHAM, L. AND HIRSCHFELD, M. (2010) Re-Engage: How America's Best Places to Work Inspire Extra Effort in Extraordinary Times. New York: McGraw-Hill.

BRASS, D.J. (2011) A social network perspective on organizational psychology. In S. W. J. KOZLOWSKI (Ed.), The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Psychology. New York: Oxford University press.

BRASS, D. J. (1984) Being in the right place: A structural analysis of individual influence in an organization. Administrative Science Quarterly, 29: 518–539.

BROWN, S. P. (1996). A meta-analysis and review of organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 120, 235–255.

BURNS, J. M. (1978) Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.

BURT, R. S. (1992) Structural Holes: The Social Structure of Competition. Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

CASCIARO, T. (1998) Seeing things clearly: Social structure, personality, and accuracy in social network perception. Social Networks, 20(4): 331-351.

CASCIARO, T. AND LOBO, M. S. (2008) When Competence is Irrelevant: The Role of Interpersonal Affect in Task-Related Ties. Administrative Science Quarterly, 53: 655-84.

CHARMAZ, K. (2006) Constructing Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide through Qualitative Analysis. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishing.

CHEN, W., AND HIRSCHHEIM, R. (2004) A paradigmatic and methodological examination of information systems research from 1991 to 2001. Information Systems Journal, 14(3): 197-235.

COLEMAN, J. S. (1990) Foundations of social theory. Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

COOPER-HAKIM, A., & VISWESVARAN, C. (2005). The construct of work commitment: Testing an integrative framework. Psychological Bulletin, 131(2), 241-259.

CORBIN, J. AND STRAUSS, A. (1990) Grounded Theory Research: Procedures, Canons and Evaluative Criteria. Journal of Sociology, 19(6): 418-427.

COYLE-SHAPIRO, J. A. M. AND KESSLER, I. (2002) Exploring reciprocity through the lens of the psychological contract: employee and employer perspectives. [online] Available at: http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/archive/00000833 [Accessed 14 May 2011]

CRANT, J. M. (1995). The proactive personality scale and objective job performance among real estate agents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 532–537.

CROPANZANO, R. AND MITCHELL, M. S. (2005) Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review. Journal of Management, 31(6): 874-900.

DABOS, G. E. AND ROUSSEAU, D. M. (2004) Mutuality and Reciprocity in the Psychological Contracts of Employees and Employers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89(1): 52-72.

DELLOW, J. (2010) What is an Enterprise Social Network? [online] Available at: http://rippleffectgroup.com/2012/08/30/what-is-an-esn/. [Accessed 4 December 2012]

DELOITTE (2009) How Work Really Gets Done: Leveraging Organisational Networks to Drive Performance. In the Proceedings of the 3rd Annual Talent Summit: “Human Capital Leadership in a Talent Stretched Economy”.

DENZIN, N. K. (1970) The Research Act in Sociology. Chicago: Aldine.

DEY, I. (1999) Grounding grounded theory: Guidelines for qualitative inquiry. San Diego: Academic Press.

DRAKE, B. AND BAASTEN, M. (1990) "Facilitating moral dialogue and debate: A new leadership dimension." In the Proceedings of the Nippon Academy of Management Education International Management Conference.

ELLISON, N., STEINFIELD, C. AND LAMPE, C. (2007) The benefits of Facebook "friends": Social capital and college students' use of online social network sites. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 12: 1143−1168.

FERGUSON, A. (2007) 'Employee engagement: Does it exist, and if so, how does it relate to performance, other constructs and individual differences?' [online] Available at: http://www.lifethatworks.com/Employee-Engagement.prn.pdf [Accessed 10 May 2011]

FERNANDEZ, R. M., CASTILLA, E. J. AND MOORE, P. (2000) Social capital at work: Networks and employment at a phone center. American Journal of Sociology, 105: 1288-1356.

FITZGERALD, B. AND HOWCROFT, D. (1998) Competing Dichotomies in IS Research and Possible Strategies for Resolution. In the Proceedings of the 19th International Conference on Information Systems.

FORBRINGER, L. R. (2002) Overview of the Gallup Organization's Q-12 Survey. [online] Available at: http://www.oestrategies.com/papers/gallup.pdf [Accessed 17 May 2011]

FRESE, M., & FAY, D. (2001). Personal initiative (PI): An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. Research in organizational behaviour, 23: 133–187.

FULK, J. AND STEINFLELD, C. (1990) Organizations and communication technology. London: Sage.

GABBAY, S. M., AND ZUCKERMAN, E. W. (1998) Social capital and opportunity in corporate R&D: The contingent effect of contact density on mobility expectations. Social Science Research, 27: 189-217.

GATENBY, M., REES, C., SOANE, E. AND TRUSS, C. (2009) Employee engagement in context. [online] Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/NR/rdonlyres/6D7D52C8-6E51-4539-A189-1E2D6EBEF01F/0/employee_engagement_context.pdf [Accessed 10 May 2011]

GIBBONS, D. E. (2004) Friendship and advice networks in the context of changing professional values. Administrative Science Quarterly, 49: 238–262.

GLASER, B. G. AND STRAUSS, A. L. (1967) The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. Chicago: Aldine.

GOULDING, C. (2005) Grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology: A comparative analysis of three qualitative strategies for marketing research. European Journal of Marketing, 39(3/4): 294-308.

GOULDNER, A. W. (1954) Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy. New York: Free Press.

GRAHAM, J. W. (1991) Servant-leadership in organizations: Inspirational and moral. Leadership Quarterly, 2(2): 105-119.

GRANOVETTER, M. S. (1973) The strength of weak ties. American Journal of Sociology, 6: 1360-1380.

GRANT, A. M. AND HOFMANN, D. A. (2011) Role expansion as a persuasion process: The interpersonal influence dynamics of role redefinition. Organizational Psychology Review, 1(1): 9-31.

GREENLEAF, R. K. (1970) The servant as leader. Massachusetts: The Robert K. Greenleaf Center.

HANSEN, M. T. (1998) Combining network centrality and related knowledge: Explaining effective knowledge sharing in multiunit firms. Working paper, Harvard Business School, Boston.

HARTER, J. K., SCHMIDT, F. L., KILLHAM, E. A. AND AGRAWAL, S. (2009) Q^{12} Meta-Analysis: The Relationship between Engagement at Work and Organizational Outcomes. [online] Available at: http://www.gallup.com/consulting/126806/q12-meta-analysis.aspx [Accessed 13 May 2011]

HAYTHORNTHWAITE, C. AND WELLMAN, B. (1998) Work, friendship and media use for information exchange in a networked organization. Journal of the American Society for Information Science, 49: 1101–1114.

HAYWARD, A. L. AND SPARKES, J. J. (Eds.). (1975) Cassell's English dictionary (4th ed.). London: Cassell and Collier Macmillan.

HEIDER, F. (1946) Attitudes and cognitive organization. The Journal of Psychology, 21: 107-112.

HOFSTEDE, G., HOFSTEDE, G.J. AND MINKOV, M. (2010) Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind (3rd ed). New York: McGraw-Hill.

HUGHES, R. (2010) Enterprise Social Networking: Don’t Be Afraid. [online] Available at: http://www.clearvale.com/clearvale/mkt/en/whitepapers/Enterprise_Social_Networking-Dont_Be_Afraid_2010_02_24.pdf [Accessed 25 November 2012]

IBARRA, H. (1992) Homophily and differential returns: Sex differences in network structure and access in an advertising firm. Administrative Science Quarterly, 37: 422–447.

JOHANSSON, R. (2003) Case Study Methodology. In the Proceedings of the International Conference “Methodologies in Housing Research”.

JONES, M. R. (2004) Debatable Advice and Inconsistent Evidence: Methodology in Information Systems Research. In KAPLAN, B., TRUEX III, D., WASTELL, D., WOOD-HARPERAND, A. T. AND DEGROSS, J. I. (Eds.), Information Systems Research: Relevant Theory and Informed Practice. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

KAHN, W.A. (1990) ‘Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work’, Academy of Management Journal, 33: 692-724.

KALISH, Y. AND ROBINS, G. (2006) Psychological predispositions and network structure: The relationship between individual predispositions, structural holes and network closure. Social Networks, 28: 56-84.

KAPLAN, A. N. AND HAENLEIN, M. (2010) Users of the World Unite! The Challenges and Opportunities of Social Media. Business Horizons, 53: 59-68.

KNOWLES, M. C., REDDY, P. AND KONCZEY, K. (2002) An analysis of the different kinds of organisational culture. Working paper, Monash University.

KRAATZ, M. S. (1998) Learning by association? Interorganizational networks and adaptation to environmental change. Academy of Management Journal, 41: 621-643.

KRACKHARDT, D. (1998). Simmelian ties: Super strong and sticky. In KRAMER, R. M. AND NEALE, M. A. (eds.), Power and influence in organizations. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishing.

KRACKHARDT, D. AND HANSON, J. R. (1993) Informal networks: The company behind the chart. Harvard Business Review, 71(4): 104-111.

KRUEGER, J. AND KILLHAM, E. (2007) The innovation equation. [online] Available at: http://gmj.gallup.com/content/27145/innovation-equation.aspx [Accessed 13 May 2011].

KULAR, S., GATENBY, M., REES, C., SOANE, E. AND TRUSS, K. (2008) Employee engagement: A literature review. [online] Available at: http://eprints.kingston.ac.uk/4192/1/19wempen.pdf [Accessed 11 May 2011]

LAZARSFELD P. F. AND MERTON, R. K. (1954) Friendship as a social process: a substantive and methodological analysis. In BERGER, M. (Ed.), Freedom and Control in Modern Society. New York: Van Nostrand.

LEANA, C. R. AND VAN BUREN, H. J. III. (1999) Organizational Social Capital and Employment Practices. The Academy of Management Review, 24(3): 538-555.

LEE, A. (2001) Integrating positivist and interpretivist approaches to organizational research. Organization Science, 2: 342-365.

LEPAK, D.P. AND SNELL, S.A. (2002) Examining the human resource architecture: the relationships among human capital, employment, and human resource configurations. Journal of Management, 28: 517–543.

LIN, N. (1999) Social networks and status attainment. Annual Review of Sociology, 25: 467-487.

LINCOLN, J. R. AND MCBRIDE, K. (1985) Resources, homophily, and dependence: Attributes and asymmetric ties in human service networks. Social Science Research, 14: 1–30.

LIU, W., LEPAK, D. P., TAKEUCHI, R. AND SIMS Jr., H.P. (2003) Matching leadership styles with employment modes: strategic human resource management perspective. Human Resource Management Review, 13: 127-152.

LOCKWOOD, N. R. (2007) Leveraging employee engagement for competitive advantage: HR's strategic role. [online] Available at: http://www.shrm.org/Pages/login.aspx?ReturnUrl=%2fResearch%2fArticles%2fArticles%2fPages%2f0307RQuart_essay.aspx [Accessed 10 May 2011]

LOOMER, B. (1976) Two conceptions of power. Criterion, 15(1): 11–29.

MACEY, W. H. AND SCHNEIDER, B. (2008) The meaning of employee engagement. Industrial and Organizational Psychology 1: 3-30.

MACLEOD, D. AND CLARKE, N. (2009) Engaging for success: enhancing performance through employee engagement. [online] Available at: www.bis.gov.uk/files/file52215.pdf [Accessed 10 May 2011]

MANGOLD, W. G. AND FAULDS, D. J. (2009) Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. Business Horizons, 52: 357-365.

MCPHERSON, M., SMITH-LOVIN, L. AND COOK, J. M. (2001) Birds of a Feather: Homophily in Social Networks. Annual Review of Sociology, 27: 415-444.

MEHRA, A., KILDUFF, M., AND BRASS, D. J. (2001) The social networks of high and low self-monitors: Implications for workplace performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, 46: 121-146.

MILROY, A. (2010) Weekend Stuff: The Myth of Enterprise Social Networking. [online] Available at: http://www.horsesforsources.com/weekend-stuff-the-myth-of-enterprise-social-networking. [Accessed 5 December 2012]

MINGERS, J. (2001) Combining IS research methods: towards a pluralist methodology. Information Systems Research, 12(3): 240-259.

MONGE, P.R. AND EISENBERG, E.M. (1987) Emergent communication networks. In JABLIN, F. M., PUTNAM, L. L., ROBERTS, K. M. AND PORTER, L. W. (Eds.), Handbook of organizational communication. Newbury Park, California: Sage.

MORGESON, F. P., DELANEY-KLINGER, K. AND HEMINGWAY, M. A. (2005) The Importance of job autonomy, cognitive ability and job-related skill for predicting role breadth and job performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(2): 399-406.

MORSE, J. M. (1994) Designing funded qualitative research. In DENZIN, N. K. AND LINCOLN, Y. S. (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishing.

NAHAPIET, J. AND GHOSHAL, S. (1998) Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. Academy of Management Review, 23: 242-266.

NAICKER, N. (2008) Organizational culture and employee commitment: a case study. Master of Business Administration. Durban University of Technology.

NARAYAN, D. AND PRITCHETT, L. (1997) Cents and sociability: Household income and social capital in rural Tanzania. Washington, DC: World Bank.

NIEHAVES, B. AND STAHL BERND, C. (2006) Criticality, epistemology and behaviour vs. Design –information systems research across different sets of paradigms. In the Proceedings of ECIS 2006.

NIELSEN RESEARCH (2009) If all U.S. internet time were condensed into one hour, how much time would be spent in the most heavily used sectors? [image online] Available at: http://mediamemo.allthingsd.com/files/2010/08/Nielsen-Time-Spent-clock-on-US-Fixed-Internet-Usage.jpg [Accessed 19 July 2011]

OTT, B. (2007) Investors take note: Engagement boosts earnings. [online] Available at: http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdf?vid=4&hid=21&sid=8470b965-28f0-4f5a-9522-6c297e68b789%40sessionmgr8 [Accessed 13 May 2011]

PANDIT, N. R. (1996) The Creation of Theory: A Recent Application of the Grounded Theory Method. The Qualitative Report, 2(4).

PARKER, M. L. AND WICKHAM, M. (2005). Organizational role theory and the multi-faceted worker. In: Broadening the boundaries: 2005 ANZAM Conference, 5-7 December 2005, Perth, Western Australia.

PEARCE, C. L., SIMS Jr., H. P., COX, J., BALL, G., SCHNELL, E., SMITH, K. A. AND TREVINO, L. (2000) Transactors, transformers, and beyond: a multi-method development of a theoretical typology of leadership. Working paper, University of Maryland.

PENNINGS, J. M., LEE, K. AND VAN WITTELOOSTUIJN, A. (1998) Human capital, social capital, and firm dissolution. Academy of Management Journal, 41: 425-440.

PODOLNY, J. M. AND BARON, J. N. (1997) Resources and relationships: Social networks and mobility in the workplace. American Sociological Review, 62: 673–693.

PORTER, L.W., STEERS, R.M., MOWDAY, R.T., AND BOULIAN, P.V. (1974). Organizational Commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1974, 59, 603-609.

PORTES, A. (1998) Social capital: Its origins and applications in modern sociology. Annual Review of Sociology, 24: 1-24.

PROBERT, S. K. (2001) Contemporary Epistemology and IS Methodology: An Interpretive Framework. In the Proceedings of the 7th Americas Conference on Information Systems.

QUALMAN, E. (2009) Socialnomics: How Social Media Transforms the Way We Live and Do Business. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons.

RHODES UNIVERSITY. (2012) Ethical Guidelines: Human Subjects. [online]. Available at: http://www.ru.ac.za/media/rhodesuniversity/content/research/documents/Ethical_Guidelines_Human_Subjects.pdf [Accessed 7 March 2012].

ROBBINS, S. P. (2001) Organizational Behaviour. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

ROBINSON, D., PERRYMAN, S. AND HAYDAY, S. (2004) The drivers of employee engagement. [online] Available at: http://www.employment-studies.co.uk/pubs/summary.php?id=408 [Accessed 10 May 2011]

ROGAL, C. AND WARNER, P. (2010) The Employee Engagement Equation:
New rules for measuring and increasing engagement. [online] Available at: http://www.decision-wise.com/pdf/DecisionWise-Webinar-The-Employee-Engagement-Equation.pdf [Accessed 11 May 2011]

ROSENTHAL, E. A. (1996) Social networks and team performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago.

ROUSSEAU, D. M. (1989) New hire perspectives of their own and their employer's obligations: A study of psychological contracts. Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 11: 389-400.

RUSSEL, R. F. AND STONE, G. A. (2002) A review of servant leadership attributes: developing a practical model. The Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 23(3): 145-157.

RUSSO, N. L. AND STOLTERMANN, E. (2000) Exploring the assumptions underlying information systems methodologies. Their impact on past, present and future ISM research. Information Technology & People, 13(4): 313-327.

SAKS, A. M. (2006) Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21(7): 600-619.

SCHAUFELI, W. B., & BAKKER, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25: 293–315.

SCHAUFELI, W. B., & BAKKER, A. B. (2003). Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Preliminary Manual. [online] Available at: http://www.beanmanaged.eu/pdf/articles/arnoldbakker/article_arnold_bakker_87.pdf [Accessed 18 May 2011]

SCHEIN, E. (1990) Organizational culture. American Psychologist, 45(2), 109-119.

SENDJAYA, S., SARROS, J. C. AND SANTORA, J. C. (2008) Defining and measuring servant leadership behaviour in organizations. Journal of Management Studies, 45(2): 402-424.

SENDJAYA AND SARROS, J. C. (2002) Servant Leadership: Its Origin, Development, and Application in Organizations. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 9: 57-64.

SETTOON, R. P., BENNETT, N. AND LIDEN, R. C. (1996) Social Exchange in Organizations: Perceived Organizational Support, Leader-Member Exchange, and Employee Reciprocity. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81(3): 219-227.

SHRADER, C. B., LINCOLN, J. R., AND HOFFMAN, A. (1989) The network structures of organizations: Effects of task contingencies and distributional form. Human Relations, 42: 43-66.

SIGGELKOW, N. (2007) Persuasion with case studies. Academy of Management Journal, 50(1): 20-24.

SIMMEL, G. (1950) The Sociology of Georg Simmel. New York: Free Press.

SISAYE, S. AN D BIRNBERG, J. (2010) Extent and scope of diffusion and adoption of process innovations in management accounting systems. International Journal of Accounting and Information Management, 18(2): 118 – 139.

SMITH, C. A., ORGAN, D. W. AND NEAR, J. P. (1983). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature and Antecedents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68(4): 653-663.

SMITKA, M. (1991) Competitive ties: Subcontracting in the Japanese automotive industry. New York: Columbia University Press.

SPREITZER, G.M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. Academy of Management Journal, 38, 1442–1465.

STAKE, R. (1998) Case Studies. In DENZIN, N. AND LINCOLN, Y. (Eds.), Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishing.

STAW, B. M. (2004). The dispositional approach to job attitudes: An empirical and conceptual review. In B. Schneider & D. B. Smith (Eds.), Personality and organizations (pp. 163–192).Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

STENGER, M. (2011) Social Media Definition. [online conversation] (Personal Communication, 14 July 2011)

STONE, G. A., RUSSEL, R. F. AND PATTERSON, K. (2004) Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus. The Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 25(4): 349-361.

STRAUB, D., BOUDREAU, M. C. AND GEFEN, D. (2004) Validation guidelines for IS positivist research. Communications of the Association for Information Systems, 13: 380-427.

TELLIS, W. (1997) Introduction to Case Study. The Qualitative Report, 3(2).

TICHY, N. M., TUSHMAN, M. L., AND FOMBRUN, C. (1979) Social network analysis for organizations. Academy of Management Review, 4: 507-519.

TOWERS-PERRIN. (2003). Working today: Understanding what drives employee engagement. Stamford, CT: Author.

TRAVERS, J., AND MILGRAM, S. (1969) An experimental study of the ‘small world’ problem. Sociometry, 32: 425-433.

TSAI, W. AND GHOSHAL, S. (1998) Social capital and value creation: The role of intrafirm networks. Academy of Management Journal, 41: 464-478.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA. (2003) A Guide to Research Ethics. [online]. Available at: http://www.ahc.umn.edu/img/assets/26104/Research_Ethics.pdf [Accessed 4 March 2012].

UZZI, B. (1997) Social structure and competition in interfirm networks: The paradox of embeddedness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 42: 35-67.

VASILE, G. (2011) Social Media Definition. [online conversation] (Personal Communication, 12 July 2011)

WADE, M. AND HULLAND, J. (2004) Review: The Resource-Based View and Information Systems Research: Review, Extension, and Suggestions for Future Research. MIS Quarterly, 28(1): 107-142.

WALSHAM, G. (2005) Learning about Being Critical. Information Systems Journal, 15(2): 111 - 117.

WATERS, J. (1988) Integrity management: Learning and implementing ethical principles in the workplace. In SIVASTRA, S. & ASSOCIATES (Eds.), Executive integrity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

WEBER, R. (2004) The Rhetoric of Positivism Versus Interpretivism. MIS Quarterly, 28(1): iii-xii.

WELLMAN, B., HAASE, A. Q., WITTE, J. AND HAMPTON, K. (2001) Does the Internet Increase, Decrease, or Supplement Social Capital?: Social Networks, Participation and Community Commitment. American Behavioral Scientist, 45: 436-455.

WOLFRADT, U. AND DALBERT, C. (2003). Personality, values, and belief in a just world. Personality and Individual Difference, 35: 1911-1918.

WRIGHT, P. M., MCMAHAN, G. C., AND MACWILLIAMS, A. (1994) Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: a resource-based perspective. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 5: 301–326.

WRIGHT, P. M. AND SNELL, S. A. (1998) Toward a unifying framework for exploring fit and flexibility in strategic human resource management. Academy of Management Review, 23: 756–772.

YIN, R. K. (2003) Applications of Case Study Research (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishing.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: SURVEY INSTRUMENT

I-PANAS-SF: Measuring Trait Engagement

On a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being ‘never’ and 5 being ‘always’, indicate to what degree you generally feel the following:

Upset

Hostile

Alert

Ashamed

Inspired

Nervous

Determined

Attentive

Afraid

Active

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale: Measuring State Engagement

On a scale of 0 to 6 with 0 being ‘never’ and 6 being ‘always’, indicate your response to each of the following statements:

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time
5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally

6. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well

6. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose

7. I am enthusiastic about my job

8. My job inspires me

9. I am proud of the work that I do

10. To me, my job is challenging

7. Time flies when I am working

8. When I am working, I forget everything else around me

9. I feel happy when I work intensely

10. I am immersed in my work

11. I get carried away when I am working

12. It is difficult to detach myself from my job

Institute for Employment Studies Engagement Survey: Measuring Behavioural Engagement

On a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being ‘strongly disagree’ and 5 being ‘strongly agree’, indicate your response to each of the following statements:

1. I speak highly of this organisation to my friends

2. I am proud to tell others I am part of this organisation

3. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance

4. I always do more than is actually required

5. I try to help others in this organisation whenever I can

6. I try to keep abreast of current developments in my area

7. I volunteer to do things outside my job that contribute to the organisation's objectives

8. I frequently make suggestions that improve the work of my team/department/service

SURVEY DATA

Table 24: I-PANAS-SF Data

Number	Trait Engagement Descriptor	Upset	Hostile	Alert	Ashamed	Inspired	Nervous	Determined	Attentive	Afraid	Active
1	Negative	2	2	3	1	3	4	1	2	3	2
2	Negative	3	2	3	3	2	4	3	2	4	3
3	Negative	4	3	2	4	2	4	3	4	5	5
4	Negative	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4
5	Positive	1	1	4	1	4	1	4	4	1	3
6	Positive	2	1	1	2	4	2	4	4	2	4
7	Positive	3	1	4	1	3	2	4	4	2	4
8	Positive	4	3	5	2	3	4	5	4	2	3
9	Positive	2	2	4	2	3	3	4	3	2	4

10	Positive	2	1	4	2	4	3	4	5	3	5
11	Positive	1	1	2	3	4	2	5	3	2	3
12	Positive	2	2	4	3	2	2	4	4	2	4
13	Positive	2	1	4	4	4	2	5	4	1	5
14	Positive	3	2	4	3	5	4	4	4	3	5
15	Positive	1	1	4	1	4	2	3	3	1	3
16	Positive	2	1	3	3	4	2	4	4	2	5
17	Positive	2	1	4	2	3	2	4	4	3	3
18	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	3	2	3
19	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	3	5	4	2	4
20	Positive	3	1	4	1	5	3	5	5	2	5
21	Positive	2	2	5	2	4	3	5	5	2	4
22	Positive	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	4	2	4
23	Positive	2	2	4	1	3	1	4	4	1	4
24	Positive	2	2	3	1	4	3	4	4	3	4

25	Positive	2	1	3	2	4	2	4	3	1	3
26	Positive	3	1	4	2	4	4	4	4	3	2
27	Positive	2	1	2	1	4	2	4	4	1	4
28	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	4	4	3	2	4
29	Positive	4	1	3	2	3	1	4	4	1	4
30	Positive	1	2	4	1	4	1	2	4	1	4
31	Positive	2	2	4	1	5	3	5	5	2	4
32	Positive	2	2	4	3	5	3	5	4	3	3
33	Positive	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	4	3	4
34	Positive	3	3	3	2	4	3	3	3	1	4
35	Positive	2	2	4	2	3	2	4	4	2	4
36	Positive	3	2	4	3	4	3	5	4	2	4
37	Positive	2	1	4	1	3	4	4	4	3	4
38	Positive	3	2	4	1	4	3	4	4	2	5
39	Positive	2	1	3	1	3	2	4	4	3	3

40	Positive	2	3	4	1	4	2	5	4	3	4
41	Positive	2	1	3	2	4	1	4	4	1	4
42	Positive	1	1	3	2	4	2	4	3	1	4
43	Positive	2	2	4	2	3	2	4	4	2	4
44	Positive	2	1	4	1	3	4	4	4	3	3
45	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	3	4	4	2	4
46	Positive	3	2	4	1	4	3	5	4	1	4
47	Positive	3	1	4	1	3	3	4	4	3	4
48	Positive	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	4	2	4
49	Positive	2	1	3	1	4	2	3	4	2	3
50	Positive	2	1	4	2	5	3	4	4	2	5
51	Positive	3	1	4	1	3	2	4	4	1	4
52	Positive	2	2	4	1	4	3	5	5	2	3
53	Positive	2	1	4	2	5	2	5	5	3	4
54	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	3	4	4	2	3

55	Positive	2	1	4	1	3	2	4	4	2	3
56	Positive	3	1	4	1	4	3	4	4	2	4
57	Positive	2	1	4	1	3	2	4	4	1	4
58	Positive	3	2	5	1	4	2	5	4	2	5
59	Positive	2	2	4	1	4	2	4	3	2	4
60	Positive	2	3	5	2	4	2	4	5	2	5
61	Positive	2	1	4	1	3	3	4	5	2	3
62	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	2	3	4	2	3
63	Positive	3	3	4	2	4	2	4	4	2	3
64	Positive	2	2	4	2	3	2	5	4	2	4
65	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	3	2	4
66	Positive	3	3	4	2	4	3	4	4	2	4
67	Positive	2	1	4	1	3	2	4	4	1	4
68	Positive	2	2	3	1	4	2	4	4	1	4
69	Positive	2	2	5	2	4	2	5	4	2	4

70	Positive	2	1	3	1	4	2	4	4	2	3
71	Positive	2	1	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	5
72	Positive	1	1	4	1	4	2	3	3	1	4
73	Positive	3	2	4	1	3	4	4	4	2	5
74	Positive	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	4	2	5
75	Positive	2	1	1	1	4	4	4	4	1	4
76	Positive	2	2	2	1	4	3	4	4	2	4
77	Positive	3	2	5	2	3	4	5	5	3	5
78	Neutral	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	3	2
79	Neutral	4	2	4	2	2	4	4	3	3	3
80	Neutral	3	3	3	3	5	3	5	4	3	3
81	Neutral	3	2	4	1	2	3	2	3	4	3
82	Neutral	4	2	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5
83	Neutral	2	2	3	3	2	4	5	3	1	3
84	Neutral	2	1	1	1	4	2	3	4	2	3

85	Neutral	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
86	Neutral	1	1	2	1	4	2	5	4	2	1
87	Neutral	3	2	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3
88	Neutral	2	2	3	1	3	1	3	3	1	3
89	Neutral	2	2	3	2	3	4	4	3	3	3
90	Neutral	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	3
91	Neutral	2	3	3	1	3	3	3	4	1	3
92	Neutral	4	3	3	1	2	3	3	3	1	3
93	Very Positive	3	1	4	1	4	2	5	4	1	4
94	Very Positive	1	1	4	1	4	1	4	4	1	4
95	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	3	3	4	4	1	5
96	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	4	4	4	4	1	4
97	Very Positive	1	1	3	1	4	3	5	4	2	4
98	Very Positive	2	2	5	1	4	2	5	4	1	5
99	Very Positive	1	1	4	1	4	1	4	4	1	4

100	Very Positive	1	1	5	1	5	3	5	4	2	4
101	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	5	2	5	4	1	5
102	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	4	3	5	4	2	4
103	Very Positive	2	2	4	1	4	2	5	4	2	5
104	Very Positive	2	1	5	1	4	2	5	5	2	5
105	Very Positive	2	2	4	2	5	2	5	5	1	4
106	Very Positive	1	2	3	1	4	1	5	5	1	5
107	Very Positive	1	1	4	3	4	2	4	5	1	4
108	Very Positive	1	1	4	1	3	1	5	5	1	5
109	Very Positive	1	1	3	1	5	1	5	5	1	5
110	Very Positive	3	2	4	1	4	2	5	4	1	5
111	Very Positive	2	1	5	1	5	2	5	4	1	4
112	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	3	3	5	5	2	5
113	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	4	3	5	4	1	4
114	Very Positive	2	1	5	1	5	2	5	5	1	5

115	Very Positive	1	1	3	1	4	2	4	4	1	5
116	Very Positive	2	1	4	1	5	3	3	4	1	4
117	Very Positive	2	1	3	1	5	2	4	4	1	5
118	Very Positive	1	2	4	2	4	2	5	4	2	3

Table 25: UWES Data

Number	State Engagement Total	At work, I feel bursting with energy	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	When I wake up in the morning, I feel like going to work	I can continue working for very long periods of time	At my job, I am very mentally resilient	At work I always persevere, even when things do not go well	I find the work I do full of meaning and purpose	I am enthusiastic about my job	My job inspires me	I am proud of the work that I do	To me, my job is challenging	Time flies when I am working	When I am working, I forget everything else around me	I feel happy when I work intensely	I am immersed in my work	I get carried away when I am working	It is difficult to detach myself from my job
1	74	2	2	3	5	3	6	4	4	4	4	4	6	6	5	5	5	6
2	45	2	2	1	3	2	4	2	3	2	3	6	3	2	3	2	3	2
3	49	2	3	2	5	1	2	4	3	4	3	5	5	2	1	3	2	2
4	67	4	4	4	3	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
5	73	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	6	3	4	4	4	4
6	69	5	4	5	1	5	3	4	5	5	6	4	5	3	4	3	4	3
7	43	2	2	1	3	3	4	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	4	3	2	1
8	63	3	3	2	5	4	6	4	3	3	5	3	3	4	5	3	3	4
9	68	4	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	4	3	2	2

10	74	4	5	5	4	5	3	5	5	5	6	5	4	4	4	5	3	2
11	72	3	5	5	5	3	4	4	5	5	5	3	5	5	4	3	4	4
12	69	4	4	4	5	3	4	4	4	3	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	4
13	70	4	5	3	5	5	6	4	5	4	4	5	5	2	5	4	2	2
14	77	5	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	6	5	4	4	5	3
15	66	4	3	4	4	3	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	2	6	4	2	1
16	74	4	4	5	3	4	5	5	5	5	6	4	5	3	5	4	4	3
17	67	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	3	3
18	62	3	3	3	5	4	5	4	3	2	4	1	5	4	5	2	4	5
19	69	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
20	93	4	6	3	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	5	6	6
21	92	5	6	6	6	4	3	5	6	6	6	5	6	5	6	6	5	6
22	31	1	2	2	2	2	4	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	0
23	53	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	5	5	4	1	3	3	1	2
24	68	5	5	4	3	4	4	6	5	5	5	5	2	3	5	3	2	2

25	76	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	3	5	6	5	5	5	5	5	3
26	66	3	4	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	3	4	4	3	2
27	74	4	4	4	2	5	5	4	5	4	5	6	5	5	4	5	5	2
28	88	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	6	5	6	6	6	6
29	61	1	1	0	6	6	4	3	0	0	6	6	6	4	4	4	4	6
30	91	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	5	5	5	5
31	91	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	4	5	6	5
32	85	5	4	4	6	6	6	6	5	5	4	6	6	4	4	5	4	5
33	71	3	5	2	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	4
34	64	4	4	4	6	6	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	3	2	1	0
35	68	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	6	4	4	4
36	76	4	4	5	5	5	5	3	4	3	5	4	6	5	4	4	4	6
37	77	4	3	3	5	5	6	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	4
38	66	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	5	6	4	4	3	5	4	4	3
39	63	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4

40	64	4	5	4	3	6	6	4	4	5	4	3	3	2	4	3	3	1
41	76	4	5	4	6	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	3	5	5	5	3
42	69	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	6	5	4	4	4	2
43	66	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	2
44	58	4	4	4	3	2	5	3	4	3	5	5	3	1	1	4	3	4
45	65	3	4	2	4	5	5	4	3	3	6	5	4	3	5	3	3	3
46	77	4	5	3	5	5	6	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	3	5
47	69	3	3	3	5	5	6	4	5	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	5	6
48	89	6	6	6	5	6	5	4	5	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
49	64	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	3
50	78	5	5	5	6	4	4	3	4	5	6	6	5	3	5	5	5	2
51	68	4	4	2	5	3	6	5	4	3	5	4	5	2	6	3	6	1
52	64	3	3	4	5	3	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	4	3	2
53	97	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	4	5
54	62	3	4	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	2

55	87	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	5	5	4
56	56	4	4	3	5	4	4	2	2	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	4
57	62	3	3	3	5	4	5	4	4	3	5	5	4	2	3	2	3	4
58	76	5	4	6	4	4	4	5	6	5	5	5	6	5	4	3	2	3
59	71	4	4	4	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	5	4	3	3
60	84	5	5	4	5	6	6	3	3	3	5	5	5	6	5	6	6	6
61	62	3	4	4	2	5	3	5	4	4	6	5	3	2	2	5	4	1
62	62	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	2
63	80	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	4	6	5	4	4	5	4
64	77	4	4	4	5	6	6	3	4	4	6	5	5	3	5	4	4	5
65	64	3	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	2	3	3	4	1
66	72	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	3	4
67	70	5	4	4	5	6	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	5	4	4	2
68	87	5	5	5	6	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	6	6	5	5	5	6
69	91	5	5	5	6	5	5	4	6	5	5	5	6	6	6	5	6	6

70	62	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	5	5	4	3	4	4	3	1
71	75	4	4	4	5	5	6	4	4	4	5	6	4	5	4	4	4	3
72	77	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	2
73	84	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	6	6	6	6	4	6	6	6
74	71	3	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	4	5	4	4	5
75	53	4	4	2	2	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	2	3	2	2	2
76	63	4	5	5	3	4	5	5	5	2	5	5	6	1	3	3	2	0
77	76	4	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	4	4	3	3
78	45	1	1	1	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	3	5	4	4	3	3	3
79	59	3	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
80	75	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	3	5	4	5	5	5	5
81	36	2	2	1	1	4	2	2	1	1	1	5	2	2	1	1	2	6
82	48	2	3	2	5	4	4	1	2	4	4	5	2	1	2	3	4	0
83	41	2	2	2	3	3	4	2	2	1	2	6	2	3	3	2	2	0
84	69	4	4	3	2	3	5	5	5	4	6	5	6	3	3	4	4	3

85	51	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
86	94	5	5	5	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	5	6	6	6	4
87	57	3	3	2	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	2	5	3	4	4
88	38	4	3	3	4	4	3	2	3	2	2	0	0	2	3	2	1	0
89	48	4	3	3	2	3	4	1	3	3	3	3	4	1	4	3	3	1
90	45	3	3	2	1	3	4	4	3	3	2	5	3	1	5	2	1	0
91	41	2	3	1	3	3	4	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	5	3	2	0
92	45	2	2	1	1	4	4	2	1	1	5	2	4	4	4	3	4	1
93	86	5	5	4	4	5	6	6	5	5	6	6	6	4	5	5	5	4
94	65	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	0	3	3	3	0
95	75	4	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	6
96	85	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	4	6	6	5	3
97	79	4	4	3	5	5	6	4	4	4	5	6	6	4	4	5	6	4
98	91	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	5	5	6	6	6	5	4	5	5	5
99	82	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	6	5	4	3

100	95	5	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	5	5	6	5
101	101	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
102	80	3	4	5	5	4	3	5	5	4	6	5	6	5	6	5	6	3
103	91	5	5	4	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	3
104	81	4	5	3	5	5	5	5	4	4	6	5	6	6	4	6	5	3
105	89	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	5	4	4
106	69	3	5	1	4	5	6	4	5	5	5	6	6	1	4	4	2	3
107	83	5	5	4	5	5	6	5	5	4	5	4	5	5	6	6	5	3
108	87	6	5	6	6	5	5	4	4	3	6	5	5	5	6	6	5	5
109	90	5	5	6	6	5	6	6	6	5	6	3	6	5	5	6	6	3
110	76	4	5	4	4	4	6	6	5	4	5	6	5	2	5	5	3	3
111	94	6	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	5	5	5	4
112	95	5	5	6	5	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	6	5	6	6	6	4
113	75	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	6	5	5	5	4	4	4	3	1
114	85	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

115	75	5	2	5	6	3	2	6	6	6	4	3	5	5	5	5	5	2
116	82	4	5	3	4	6	6	6	4	6	6	6	4	4	4	4	5	5
117	83	3	4	6	4	4	5	6	6	6	4	6	6	3	5	6	3	6
118	72	4	4	3	5	5	5	3	5	4	5	6	5	6	4	4	3	1

Table 26: IES Data

Number	Behavioural Engagement Total	I speak highly of this organization to my friends	I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organisation	This organisation really inspires the best in me in terms of job performance	I always to more that is actually required	I try to help others the organisation whenever I can	I try to keep abreast of current developments in my area	I volunteer to do things outside my job that contribute to the organization's objectives	I frequently make suggestions that improve the work of my team/department/service
1	37	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	4
2	28	4	5	3	3	3	2	5	3
3	22	4	4	2	2	3	4	1	2
4	32	5	5	5	4	3	4	3	3
5	32	4	4	4	4	4	5	3	4
6	31	5	5	4	4	3	4	2	4
7	26	4	4	4	4	4	1	3	2
8	36	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4
9	34	4	4	4	3	5	5	4	5
10	34	5	4	4	4	5	5	3	4

11	31	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4
12	29	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	3
13	35	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4
14	30	4	5	4	4	4	3	3	3
15	38	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4
16	31	5	5	4	3	4	4	3	3
17	29	4	4	3	3	5	3	4	3
18	29	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	4
19	31	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4
20	35	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	4
21	33	5	5	5	5	3	3	4	3
22	23	2	2	2	3	4	4	2	4
23	34	4	5	4	5	5	2	5	4
24	32	5	5	5	4	4	4	1	4
25	32	5	5	5	3	4	3	3	4

26	32	4	4	5	4	4	4	3	4
27	34	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	4
28	33	3	4	4	4	5	5	4	4
29	29	2	2	2	5	5	5	3	5
30	39	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5
31	36	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	5
32	38	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	4
33	31	5	5	4	4	3	3	5	2
34	29	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3
35	28	3	3	3	4	3	5	3	4
36	34	4	5	4	4	5	5	3	4
37	31	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4
38	33	4	5	4	4	5	4	3	4
39	30	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4
40	37	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	4

41	32	4	5	4	4	4	3	4	4
42	37	5	5	5	4	5	5	3	5
43	36	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4
44	35	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4
45	33	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	4
46	30	4	5	4	4	4	3	3	3
47	35	5	5	4	5	5	4	3	4
48	37	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	5
49	29	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3
50	30	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
51	28	3	3	2	5	4	5	1	5
52	32	4	5	4	3	4	4	4	4
53	39	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5
54	34	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	3
55	30	4	4	4	4	5	3	3	3

56	36	5	5	5	4	5	4	5	3
57	27	4	4	3	4	4	3	2	3
58	40	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
59	37	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	5
60	30	3	3	3	5	4	3	4	5
61	30	4	4	4	3	5	3	4	3
62	32	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	3
63	35	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	4
64	37	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5
65	32	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
66	31	3	3	3	4	5	5	4	4
67	32	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	4
68	36	5	5	5	4	4	5	4	4
69	37	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5
70	36	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	3

71	35	5	5	5	4	5	3	4	4
72	27	3	4	3	3	3	5	2	4
73	32	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	5
74	33	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	3
75	30	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3
76	33	5	5	4	4	5	3	3	4
77	20	2	2	2	2	4	4	2	2
78	25	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	2
79	26	3	3	4	4	5	3	2	2
80	34	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
81	19	2	2	1	2	3	4	3	2
82	29	3	4	4	4	4	5	2	3
83	33	4	5	3	5	5	3	5	3
84	31	5	5	5	4	3	3	3	3
85	24	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

86	37	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	3
87	35	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	3
88	34	4	4	3	5	5	3	5	5
89	28	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	3
90	23	4	4	3	2	4	2	1	3
91	22	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
92	28	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
93	31	5	5	4	3	4	4	3	3
94	33	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5
95	31	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
96	33	5	5	4	4	4	4	3	4
97	36	5	5	5	5	5	4	3	4
98	37	4	4	5	5	5	4	5	5
99	30	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3
100	38	5	5	5	5	4	5	4	5

101	40	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
102	34	5	5	5	3	5	5	3	3
103	32	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4
104	34	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	5
105	35	5	5	5	4	5	3	5	3
106	37	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5
107	35	5	4	4	5	4	4	4	5
108	37	5	5	5	4	5	5	3	5
109	36	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	3
110	38	5	5	5	4	5	4	5	5
111	39	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5
112	32	5	5	3	4	5	3	3	4
113	37	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	4
114	40	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
115	36	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	4

116	33	5	5	5	4	3	4	3	4
117	37	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	4
118	37	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	5