Managing Cultural Diversity in Asia

A Research Companion

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5 Diverse discretionary effort in workplace networks: serving self over community in China
Kurt April and Eon Smit

Introduction

Historically, the flow of management and diversity theory, relating to multinational companies, has been from mainly Western (Anglo, Franco, American) roots to developing/emerging economies. As a result, workplace relations, employee engagement and, in fact, the very notion of human nature has been addressed in terms of an implicit standard that is primarily White, primarily male, and primarily Western. The possibility for employees who are not White, male or Western to be heard in their own way and on their own terms, reflecting their own interests and ways of knowing, learning and engaging, have traditionally been institutionally denied. These conditions do not reflect mere chance, but rather the ability of those in power to create the terms according to which social reality will be encountered (Wlodkowski and Ginsberg, 1995), and the manner and forms of engagement which are credible (Rowley et al., 2010). To deny these political aspects of multinational workplaces in Asia is dangerous, in that it denies the Asian employee the possibility to make meaning of his/her world and the ability to deliver his/her best within a team when, for instance, engagement is irrelevant and cannot be self-determined. The latter (lack of choice and voice), we know, is experienced as strange, with fear, with annoyance, and Asian employees implicitly know that they are engaging through, and because of, someone else's domination or discursive control (that is, being continually thought of, and treated through, an Asian group lens). Contextual sensitivity is important for moral considerations (Miller, 1994), which ultimately affects determinism attitudes and can also lead to fatalism orientation, with the locus of control perceived as either inside (Rotter, 1966) or outside (Frazee, 1998) the individual.

Personal relevance is the degree to which employees can identify their perspectives and values in their workplace relations, discussions and ways of working. In other words, the ways in which they work and engage others are connected to who they are, their extended families and communities, what they care about, how they perceive and know, what has valency for them, and how they are able to contribute and move forward.

Their natural curiosity for challenges emerges, they want to make sense of things and seek out challenges that are outside of their range of current capabilities and values – this results in employees willingly offering their discretionary effort to an organisation, that is, unsolicited goodwill which leads to effort over and above expected role requirements (for which they usually do not get paid, and the lack-of for which they cannot be fired) and as opposed to traditional effort (for which they usually get paid, and the lack-of for which they can be fired). If employees can be spontaneous and authentic, acting from their deepest and most vital selves, they naturally strive for coherence among the aspects of themselves and their world that are in their awareness (Deci and Ryan, 1991). Self-determination is the need to be the origin of one's behaviour (Wlodkowski and Ginsberg, 1995), to personally endorse one's engagement with others, and being free to choose what one is doing (de Charms, 1968; Deci and Ryan, 1991) and the level of commitment one brings to the behaviour that leads from the choice.

The context of our study is within a multinational firm, that is, specifically a leading global FMCG (fast moving consumer goods) firm operating around the globe – however, our concern was its operations in China. In order to satisfy Bronfenbrenner's (1979) requirement for consistent values socialisation among, and across settings, and its link to group development, the FMCG firm specifically hired certain types of employees (in all of its operations around the globe), that is, those who were personally highly motivated, self-determined, excelled in a high-performance workplace, and required minimum hands-on management. When such consistency exists, socialisation, for this firm, has tended to be efficient and effective. The firm believed that when it is unable to achieve such consistency, socialisation would become fractured and employees would adhere to, and behave according to, 'group type', for example, the Chinese group identity would supersede the individual's choices, thereby negatively affecting the socialisation consistency. However, of concern to the firm was Bronfenbrenner's second condition, in which his colligation of socialisation processes also indicates that events inside the workplace are substantially influenced by the cultural background of the employees – given the Chinese context, the FMCG firm understood that, while it hired a certain type of employee, it still needed a deeper understanding of the interface between the high-performance institutional culture of the firm and the (increasingly) diverse cultural heritage of the constituents.

The study serves to form a theoretical and practical framework for analysing the concept of diverse discretionary effort. It is based on an individual's experience in his/her professional network at the workplace, that is, the people an individual seeks advice from, works with and depends on,

to complete his/her work successfully. Expectancy refers to an individual's strength of belief and conviction about whether or not what he/she sets out to do on a personal level is achievable and desirable on a workplace level, in terms of effort and productivity (Vroom, 1964). Underpinning this expectancy is the fact that different and diverse people have different expectations and levels of confidence about their capabilities. Desire and expectation are interwoven, and only mitigated by workplace issues and openness to their expectations, as well as by personal self-esteem and self-confidence issues within a context, that is, in this case, an Asian context.

Rowley et al. (2010) warn that we should be cautious of the rhetoric regarding the assumptions linking traditional diversity and workplace productivity and creativity. It is for this reason that our locus of diversity is situated in individual expectancy. We believe that individuals enter networks often willingly or sometimes unwillingly, with certain expectations – inclusive of Rowley et al.'s gender expectations. Individual productivity, and therefore workplace performance, is linked to the (diverse) associations the people make towards expected outcomes and their contributions to those outcomes. It is our hypothesis that initially the outcome becomes bigger than the self and, subsequently, thus indirectly, the self gains affirmation as the person's expectations are met. The self is therefore ultimately served, thus causing individuals to freely offer their discretionary effort.

Engagement and discretionary effort

It is common cause that people are the most important resource of any organisation (Posner et al., 1986) and that an organisation's success is dependent on the success and happiness of its employees. Vora (2004) argues that the driving factor in winning customer satisfaction is to achieve employee satisfaction. Organisations are beginning to realise that their human capital is one of the last resources of strategic and competitive advantage (Fink, 2006). Gorelick et al. (2004) argue that there are direct links between employee motivation and behaviour, the creation of value for customers and the maximisation of shareholder value. For an organisation's performance to be optimal, a combination of situational and personal factors are required to be in place (Lawler, 1994). Pinder (1984) lists these factors as the individual effort of the employee, the ability of the employee, the amount of support received from the supervisor and team members and the availability of tools and materials. However, Govindarajulu and Daily (2004) suggest that management commitment, employee commitment, rewards and feedback and reviews, are key to encouraging employees in improving personal and team performances. The Accel Team (2006) broadens these factors by listing praise and recognition, trust and respect, job enrichment, communication, incentives,

removal of barriers, provision of optimal learning and the provision of the necessary tools. Peppas et al. (1999) showed that the highest priority attributes, for Chinese respondents in their study, were motivation, initiative, company knowledge, leadership and loyalty (given the importance of group spirit in the Chinese culture, as specified again by Härtel et al. (ch. 11, this volume), these researchers had not expected 'initiative' to be rated second in importance by the Chinese) – they claim that the Chinese place more importance on job attributes that could directly benefit the organisation, as opposed to the interpersonal focus of traditionally Western motivations.

Lawler (1994: 1), however, argues that: 'motivation seems to be the single most important determinant of performance'. Employee motivational principles have been studied in order to achieve higher productivity in the workplace. The Accel Team (2006) argues that the goal of motivational theory is to bring together a collection of resources that describe and comment on key variables within the organisational environment, and that relate to both employee motivation and productivity. The appropriate mix of theories is applied in a way that engages the needs and aspirations of the people who are sought to be motivated.

Work motivation is defined as 'a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration' (Pinder, 1984: 8). 'The study of motivation has to do with the analysis of the various factors which incite and direct an individual's actions' (Atkinson, 1964: 1 in Lawler, 1994: 3). Bindra (1959) argues that at the core of the challenge of motivation, lies the goal-directed aspect of an employee's behaviour. The main premise of any motivational theory is to attempt to explain why people make voluntary choices from the range of behavioural options available. Traditional motivational theories have allowed for the wide variety of individual needs, expectations, values and attitudes to be investigated. It has been stated that motivation, which is supposedly observed to be under the employee's control, is driven by the two factors of arousal and the choice of the employee's behaviour (Mitchell, 1982).

With arousal theory, the work of researchers such as Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor and Frederick Hertzberg suggest that, generally, work organisations dedicate their efforts to determining how to satisfy employees' lower-level needs (Mitchell, 1982). These theorists described lower-level needs as a work environment with an emphasis on pay systems and the employees' hours of work. One of the major theories of choice is linked to an individual's expectancy. Expectancy theories are closely linked to the rewarding of performance-enhancing behaviour and argue that people are

affected by previous and present outcomes. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory suggests that an individual's behaviour, the primary purpose of which is to maximise pleasure and minimise pain, results from conscious choices from a range of alternatives. Vroom posited that an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience and abilities. He further states that an employee's beliefs about expectancy, instrumentality and valence interact psychologically to create a motivational force such that the employee acts in ways that bring pleasure and avoid pain. It is on this basis of expectancy theory that this study aims to extend motivational theory to build a foundation for the concept of diverse discretionary effort within multinationals operating in Asia. Discretionary effort (DE) is formally defined as: 'energy over which an individual has control, beyond that which is minimally required by the organisation, expended pro-organisationally (to benefit the organisation), consistent with organisational goals and requiring both a behavioural as well as cognitive expenditure by the individual' (Entwistle, 2001: 7). DE focuses on the willing effort that is under the control of the employee rather than the organisation. Effort is treated as a consequence and primary indicator of motivation.

The level of DE in the workplace is declining (Kowalski, 2003), with the current work environment being described as 'one of disillusioned employees, unhealthy or non-existent relationships between employees and their employers, high stress levels, a lack of security and little or no trust' (Entwistle, 2001: 17). Yankelovich and Immerwahr (1983) demonstrate that by the early 1980s, 23 per cent of the workforce surveyed offered a high level of DE to their jobs, and 44 per cent perceived their job as low discretion, admitting to only doing what was necessary to keep their job, while 75 per cent of the respondents agreed that they could be more effective in their workplace than they currently were. A 2005 research survey of 990 respondents reports that 70 per cent of employees reviewed indicated that they planned to stay with their current organisation for the near future, but only 21 per cent of those indicated that they offered their full DE to their current job (BlessingWhite, 2005). Kowalski (2003) points out that younger workers surveyed indicated that they would rather work for themselves than for an organisation. These trends clearly indicate that organisations are losing their DE and intellectual capital that was once willingly offered by employees. In China, however, before the Chinese economic reform (starting around 1978), all enterprises were owned by the government in a planned economy framework – this, in many ways, forced people who were not employed by the government, to be entrepreneurial (but unlike the generally accepted Western sense that entrepreneurs are people with a high need for achievement, much of the Chinese

entrepreneurialism was of the survivalist nature) – these entrepreneurs can now seek employment in private, stock, partial state-owned, foreign-fund, and joint-venture companies. The traditional government employee is now also a new emerging (intrapreneurial) class within corporate China, as well as in multinationals. According to Zheng (2010), the state and private sphere in Chinese society have never been clearly separated. Additionally, in recent years, a Chinese elite that had studied in Europe and the USA, including at places like the IESE Business School (University of Navarra, Spain) and Harvard, has started to emerge. All of this creates some interesting workplace dynamics and changing forms of engagement within all organisations inside China, including multinationals.

This research study proposes that the more employees perceive their personal expectancies to be fulfilled through their work, the more the employee's self will become affirmed, thus leading the employee to willingly offer his/her DE. Employees eventually seek to affirm their self-worth within their origination. Self-affirmation theory can be described as the theory that asserts that people seek ways to see themselves as: 'competent, good, coherent, unitary, stable, capable of free choice, capable of controlling important outcomes' (Steele, 1988: 262). This theory strives to explain that people will reduce the impact of a threat to their self-concepts by focusing on, and affirming, their competence in some other area. 'Selective self-affirmation can lead people to modify their self-concepts by identifying with self-aspects that justify dissonant behaviour and by disidentifying with the standards that such behaviour violates' (Aronson et al., 1995: 986). If the workplace begins to 'violate' an employee's concepts of self-worth by not engaging the employee in an effective way, then the employee will disengage some part of him/herself from the organisation. This disengagement is crucial to the investigation of self-affirmation and thus DE.

Little has been done to systematically develop a DE framework necessary for testing the theory about its origins and constructs. It is the aim of this research study to lay the necessary conceptual and empirical framework that might advance the knowledge about DE, within a multinational in China, utilising the developed April–Smit DE model to investigate the link between DE and the concept of self-affirmation within professional networks.

Literature review
The April–Smit discretionary effort model, which we developed for the purposes of this research, is founded upon motivational theory. Traditionally, however, organisations have focused exclusively on the jobs performed by employees and on how those jobs could be made more efficient. Any failures to achieve expected results were explained by faults in the training of

the individual (Barr et al., 1992), in the methods that the individual used to achieve the task (Accel Team, 2006), or incongruency between institutional and employee cultures (Scheeres and Rhodes, 2006).

Motivational theories

From earliest recorded time, people have organised themselves into teams in order to achieve goals; efforts have been coordinated and controlled to achieve planned outcomes. As early as 1933 the traditional management concepts of motivation were used in work organisations. Mayo (1933) concentrated on fatigue and monotony with specific reference to how the factors of work – breaks, hours, temperature and humidity – affected organisational productivity. He demonstrated the importance of the social contracts that a worker has at the workplace (the Hawthorne effect), that boredom and repetitiveness of tasks lead to reduced motivation. Mayo believed that workers could be motivated by acknowledgement of their social needs and by making them feel important. As a result, employees were given the freedom to make decisions on the job, and greater attention was paid to informal work groups. His model overemphasised the importance of situations for motivating employees.

Maslow (1943) suggested that the behaviour of an individual is determined by his/her strongest need. This would imply that managers would need to have a good understanding of the common needs of individuals in order to encourage them to be more productive. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often depicted as a pyramid consisting of five levels: the four lower levels are grouped together as 'deficiency needs' associated with 'physiological needs', while the top level is expressed as 'growth needs' associated with 'psychological needs'. While deficiency needs must be met, growth needs are continually shaping behaviour. The basic concept is that the higher needs in this hierarchy only come into focus once all the needs lower down on the pyramid are mainly, or entirely, satisfied. Physiological requirements and safety must be satisfied before higher-level needs such as self-fulfilment are sought. Growth forces create upward movement in the hierarchy, whereas regressive forces push preponent needs further down the hierarchy. While Maslow's theory was regarded as an improvement over previous theories of personality and motivation, it has its detractors. In their extensive review of research dependent on Maslow's theory, Wahba and Bridwell (1976) found little evidence for the ranking of needs that Maslow described or even for the existence of a definite hierarchy at all. For example, less individualistic forms of society than those described by Maslow in this theory, such as the Chinese, might value their social relationships (for example, family, clan or group) higher than their own physiological needs. Maslow's framework, however, is not intended to be

the definition of motivational behaviour; rather, it is intended to be used in predicting behaviour on a high- or low-probability basis.

McGregor (1960) investigated the organisational behaviour of individuals at work. From his research he developed two models, which he named Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor's work was based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs; he grouped Maslow's hierarchy into 'lower order' needs (Theory X) and 'higher order' needs (Theory Y). He suggested that management could use either set of needs to motivate employees. According to Theory X, management assumes that its employees are inherently lazy and will avoid work whenever possible. Workers need to be closely supervised and comprehensive systems of controls need to be developed. A hierarchical structure is needed with a control mechanism at each level. According to this theory, employees will show little ambition without an enticing incentive programme and will avoid responsibility whenever they can. A 'Theory X' manager believes that his or her employees do not really want to work, that they would rather avoid responsibility and that it is the manager's job to structure the work and energise the employee. In contrast under Theory Y, management assumes that its employees are ambitious, self-motivated, and anxious to accept greater responsibility and exercise self-control and self-direction. Employees enjoy their mental and physical work activities and have the desire to be imaginative and creative in their jobs. If these employees are afforded the opportunity, the results will be greater productivity. A 'Theory Y' manager believes that, given the right conditions, most people will want to do well at work. They believe that the satisfaction of doing a good job is a strong motivator within the organisation (McGregor, 1960). 'Theory Y bore such fruits as self-directed work teams, self-management, job enrichment, and empowerment' (Carson, 2005: 450).

The DE model underlying this research is closely associated with McGregor's Theory Y, given the 'employee-type' targeted by the FMCG firm. Extending McGregor's theory, the research asserts that an employee's desires, within an organisation, are closely linked to his/her personal and team expectancies. An employee will only offer his/her DE, by having personal expectancies met and becoming self-affirmed.

Herzberg formulated two theories of motivation, stating that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction act independently of each other. Herzberg's two-factor theory states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Both these models (hygiene and motivation) must be applied simultaneously. Employees had to be treated as fairly as possible, so as to minimise their dissatisfaction. Herzberg found that when these motivators, such as sense of achievement, recognition, the work

itself, responsibility, advancement and growth are added to employees' jobs, they are more satisfied with their job and become more productive. Herzberg classified human actions, and the premise behind why these actions were being formed; if an individual performed a work-related action because he/she 'had to', then this was classed as movement, but if the individual performed a work-related action because he/she 'wanted to', then this was classed as motivation (ibid.). Subsequent research has not been very supportive of Herzberg's theory. Phillipchuk and Whittaker (1996: 15) replicated Herzberg's original study and found that, in the current work environment, the results 'showed a decrease in recognition, advancement, and responsibility satisfiers and the disappearance of salary and work conditions as motivators or de-motivators'.

McClelland (1961) proposed a content theory of motivation based on Murray's (1938) theory of personality. This theory describes a comprehensive model of human needs and motivational processes. McClelland's theory is also related to Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, in the sense that people with high-achievement motivation tend to be interested in the motivator, which is the job itself (Accel Team, 2006). McClelland asserted that human motivation comprises three dominant needs: the need for achievement (N-Ach), the need for power (N-Pow) and the need for affiliation (N-Affil). The importance of each need varies from individual to individual, and also depends on an individual's cultural background. McClelland's theory supports the expectancy dimension of the DE model; the chapter authors' assert that individuals have expectancies (needs) that differ, and it is the satisfaction of these expectancies that will lead to self-affirmation and thus DE.

Argyris and Schön (1974) argued that people have mental maps with regard to how to act in certain situations. Their results concluded that it is these maps, including the way people plan, implement and review their actions that guide people's actions. Argyris (1980) found that few people are aware of the maps or theories they use. His research was an extension of McGregor's X and Y theory in that the research compared bureaucratic/pyramid values (the organisational counterpart to Theory X assumptions about people) that still dominate most organisations with a more humanistic/democratic value system (the organisational counterpart to Theory Y assumptions about people). For the purpose of this study, we link Argyris's theory, and culturally based mental maps, to an individual's strength of belief and conviction about whether or not what the individual set out to do on an individual level is achievable and desirable on a workplace level in terms of effort and productivity.

Vroom's (1964) 'expectancy theory' is a widely known example of a process theory. Process theories stress the differences in people's needs and

focus on the human cognitive processes that create differences between individuals. Content theories, on the other hand, assume that all individuals possess the same set of needs. Vroom suggests that a manager's leadership style should be tailored to the particular situation and group, and this theory also helps to explain how an individual's goals influence individual performance. Vroom provided an in-depth explanation of his process theory, developed around the concepts of expectancy, valence and instrumentality. Vroom's theory (pp. 14–15) assumes that, 'the choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behaviour'. In other words, a person's work behaviour results from conscious choices from a range of alternatives and these choices (behaviours) are related to their psychological processes, particularly perception and the formation of beliefs and attitudes. Vroom's motivational theory can be summarised in the following equation (Figure 5.1):

Motivation = Expectancy (E) × Instrumentality (I) × Valence (V)

With Expectancy, employees have different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing (Vroom, 1964). Vroom considers Instrumentality as the perception of employees that there will actually be an outcome associated with completing the assigned task (Pinder, 1984). Valence refers to the emotional orientations people hold with respect to outcomes (rewards) (Vroom, 1964).
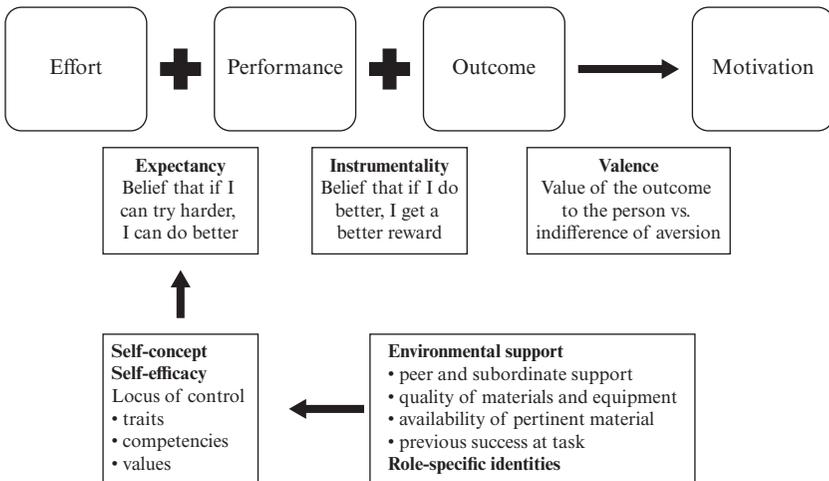

Figure 5.1   Vroom's expectancy theory model

There are two critical components of valence, as identified by Isaac et al. (2001), that concern the chapter authors' and the DE model. First, the attractiveness of an expected outcome differs among different individuals (Snead and Harrell, 1994), and second, 'leaders must expend a significant amount of effort to ensure alignment between the personal goals of their followers and those of the organisation' (Isaac et al., 2001: 219). It is these personal goals that are core to the expectancy model as they form the foundation for the April–Smit DE model.

According to Pinder (1984: 154), the shortcoming in Vroom's expectancy theory and the VIE constructs, is the assumption 'that these constructs are responsible for arousing and directing work effort through the development of intentions'. Pinder (ibid.) further states that 'VIE beliefs cannot be expected to automatically result in specific work behaviours' and that the VIE theory is not 'totally capable of predicting levels of work effort or decisions either to participate in, or to withdraw from, organisational settings'.

Professional networks
In the current business environment of constant change, formal, professional and social networks are becoming increasingly important to organisations. 'Effective investments in your networks can make you smarter, more knowledgeable, and better grounded, as well as a more agile learner and collaborator. These capabilities are critical to solving problems and taking advantage of opportunities at the pace necessary for success today' (Dulworth, 2006: 37). Professional (work-based) networks span regional–organisational boundaries, thereby enhancing the concept of working virtually. Working virtually can benefit the organisation strategically, but it is more challenging to manage than traditional working environments with regard to trust, communication and learning (Eden, 2006). Virtual employees and teams often do not interact face to face with all members of the organisation. These employees thus lack the social interaction of traditional organisations (Dewar, 2006). In traditional work environments, various exercises such as team-building help to instil organisational expectations for obtaining goals (Mitchell, 1982). Whether the employees work virtually or are co-located, this research study proposes that employees enter into professional networks with personal expectations (which we categorise and define below) that are crucial for the DE framework.

Self-affirmation
Steele (1988) first introduced self-affirmation theory, which states that the overall goal of an individual's self-system is to protect an image of his/her self-worth and relates to his/her ability to adapt competently to change.

Sherman and Cohen (2006: 189) argue that self-affirmation not only affects an individual's reaction to threatening situations or events 'but also [his/her] physiological adaptations and actual behaviour'. Such insights have important implications for Chinese employees, in particular – both because of the dominance of Western approaches to management and business, as well as the lingering influences of gender stereotyping reinforced by Confucianism (Rowley et al., 2010). These self-threat concepts have also been related to other areas of self-reinforcement; these include Dunning et al.'s (1995) theories of self-serving, and Brown and Smart's (1991) exaggerated self-ratings of social qualities. In each of these theories, the responses to threats of self-worth were countered by displaying the various forms of self-enhancement at greater levels than those of subjects who were not threatened. It would seem therefore that a threat to an individual's self-worth increases one's need to self-enhance (Meirick, 2005). This process helps individuals to 'accept experiences and information that, although threatening, hold important lessons for self-change' (Sherman and Cohen, 2006: 190).

Underlying self-affirmation theory is the paradigm of cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance is the perception of incompatibility between two cognitions, which can be defined as any element of knowledge, including attitude, emotion, belief or behaviour (Festinger, 1957). The theory of cognitive dissonance states that contradicting mental models serve as a motivator to compel the mind to develop new, or to modify existing, beliefs, so as to diminish the measure of inconsistency between cognitions. Disconfirmed expectancies of both failure and of success lead people's attempts to change responses to those expectancies. It is on this premise that the April–Smit DE model was developed. It is proposed that, once an individual's expectations in the workplace/professional network are met, the individual's dissonance between personal expectation and self-affirmation will be reduced, and the individual will become self-affirmed.

Interpersonal-performance expectancy
'Leaders, through a process of social influence, guide and inspire followers toward desired outcomes' (Spreitzer, 2006: 305). This can occur through formal or informal learning structures. Research on the mentoring process and professional networks has indicated support for personal learning and the development of individual careers (Chandler and Kram, 2005). Lave (1991) and Lave and Wenger (1991) were the first to propose that the key component of learning within professional networks (communities of practice), was to gradually develop the knowledge for new employees with the guidance of a mentor. Eventually the new employee becomes the centre

of 'the community', gaining the necessary knowledge required to perform his/her work function. These 'skilled' employees then continue the cycle and take on new employees as protégés. Rowley et al. (2010) remind us, though, that in male-gendered workplace environments, women often are denied access to the requisite informal networks – thereby engendering interpersonal, as well as career, barriers. Protégés are not the only individuals who benefit from access to mentoring programmes; according to Reisz (2004: 42), for mentors, the mentoring process 'validates their career learning and accomplishments, allows them to pass along their intellectual capital, and provides them the fulfilment that comes from giving something back to their organisation and their profession'. Reisz (p. 42) further states that 'an information mentor provides coaching, listening, advice, sounding board reactions, or other help in an unstructured, casual manner'. Pullins and Fine (2002) argue that taking part in a mentoring programme or helping a fellow employee helps the mentor in his/her own performance appraisal. This 'may provide recognition that serves as a higher-order reward to the mentor, in addition to lower-order rewards such as pay'. The recognition remotivates the mentor, and thus causes him/her to give further attention to the performance area in his/her work (ibid.: 266).

Effort-learning expectancy
Expectancy theory states that individuals engage in behaviours to the extent that they expect those behaviours to result in positive outcomes (Vroom, 1964). The respondents, in this research, have indicated that to achieve their workplace goals, they believe that emphasis placed on personal learning will have value-added learning organisational benefits. Senge (1990) argues that for an organisation to be successful, it will be necessary for people to learn new skills and develop new orientations. In order for a company and individual to advance in business, the individual must change in some way; this can be done by increasing one's knowledge and/or skills. Rampersad (2006) argues that for any significant organisational change to take place, the employees within the organisation must first change. This begins with 'self-learning, and self-learning starts with self-knowledge' (ibid.: 437). Congruent with the present research into DE, Rampersad (ibid.: 437) states that 'if there is an effective balance between the interests of individual employees and those of the organisation, employees will work with greater commitment toward the development of their organisation'. In this sense, Hutton's (1999, quoted in Abdullah, ch. 2, this volume) condition of mutual understanding for public relations is satisfied – individual behaviours that ultimately serve and are constrained by the 'public good'.

Leading-visibility expectancy

'[A] company that supports and encourages career self-management may ultimately have more highly-skilled and flexible employees, because employees understand the need to continuously refresh and update their skills' (Meister, 1998: 25). As an organisation grows and increases its knowledge base, the company builds its intellectual capital and knowledge becomes a competitive asset (Bogdanowicz and Bailey, 2002). The education and development of employees are a valuable commodity, and organisations that support education will hold a distinct competitive advantage over organisations that do not (Leach, 2001). This is most evident in focused Malaysian organisational life, driven by respect and acceptance for multiculturalism, visible and explicit appreciation of local individual and group norms (Abdullah, ch. 2, this volume). The rate of generation of new knowledge around the globe is increasing (Bourner, 1998). '[E]ducation and training should focus less on delivering knowledge and more on helping people to learn how to find out for themselves' (ibid.: 14). Bourner demonstrates that employees understand that acquiring new information, and being seen to do so, is critical to meeting personal expectancies. Employees understand that once their existing knowledge becomes part of the organisation's intellectual capital, they need to keep engaging in acquiring new knowledge, to prevent themselves from becoming redundant (Garrick and Clegg, 2000). '[For a] learning organisation it is not enough to survive . . . "adaptive learning" is important – indeed it is necessary. For a learning organisation, "adaptive learning" must be joined by "generative learning", learning that enhances our capacity to create' (Senge, 1990: 14).

Team-sustainability expectancy

Professional network teams or communities of practice provide an ideal platform for developing, sharing and entrusting of information within an organisation (Chua, 2006). To compete in the global arena, old organisational cultures become barriers to being innovative and productive (Gadman and Cooper, 2005). Professional teams are effective in overcoming these barriers. 'Communities of practice are a natural part of organisational life. They exist and develop on their own whether or not the organisation recognises them or encourages their creation' (Chua, 2006: 121). Work teams often fail during infancy due to unrealistic expectations regarding the effort during start-up (Lathin, 1995). 'The key to team sustainability may lie in the effective use of positive cognitive strategies at the team level' (Houghton et al., 2003: 39). Respondents value their own ability to sustain the current and future status of the team. Individuals in a work team are of more value than the sum of the individuals together.

Organisations that successfully use professional networks to foster knowledge must implement processes to sustain and protect the team synergy, as team-wellness sustainability requires ongoing attention to both internally driven team processes and externally supported organisational processes.

Individual-network learning expectancy
According to Senge (1990: 3) learning organisations are 'organisations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together'. The capacity for an organisation to be a learning organisation starts with an individual (Barker and Neailey, 1999). Geiger and Turley (2005) argue that for an organisation to be effective, individuals must share their personal knowledge with others; which, in a Chinese context, Härtel et al. (ch. 11, this volume) claim is premised on very personal interactions – the basis for *guanxi*. Wong (1998) argues for the requisite social interactions necessary for such sharing to take place, which Davies et al. (1995) later claimed was the basis for *guanxi* networks. Garrick and Clegg (2000: 281) state that a 'knowledge worker now becomes a calling equivalent to a vocation: knowledge workers help organisations and industries meet contemporary market challenges'. Respondents to this research seem to understand this concept and place critical value on the personal learning.

> [W]hen you ask people about what is it like being part of a great team, what is most striking is the meaningfulness of the experience. People talk about being part of something larger than their experiences as part of truly great teams stand out as singular periods of life lived to the fullest. Some spend the rest of their lives looking for ways to recapture that spirit. (Senge, 1990: 13)

Through learning individuals are able to re-create themselves.

Research methodology

The model
The research study was based upon the maintained hypothesis of the April–Smit discretionary effort model (Box 5.1).

Although there is a significant amount of research that has been conducted into the concept of motivation in the organisational workplace, that concept of DE has hardly any empirical research accredited to it. This is a strong disadvantage to the modern organisation, as DE is a crucial element that can allow managers and leaders to understand how

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BOX 5.1   THE APRIL–SMIT DISCRETIONARY
                  EFFORT MODEL

Discretionary Effort (DE) = $(0.1^*I) \times (0.2^*O) \times V \times (0.1^*A)$

where:

I = Importance of the Expectancy Construct to the Individual
O = Measure of Desired Outcome Materialising in Workplace
    = Effort Expectancy Construct (EE) + Performance Expectancy Construct (PE)
V = Valence
    = Workplace Orientation for Desired Outcome / Emotional Orientation for Desired Outcome at Workplace
    = (Importance Value of the Expectancy Construct to the Workplace (W) + Achievement of Workplace Goals (WG)) / Emotional Orientation for Desired Outcome at the Workplace (EO)
A = Affirmation of Self through Expectancy (Self-Esteem)
    = Positive Comparison of Expectancy with Peers Meaningfully Evaluated by Workplace (PC) + Self is Perceived to have Capacity for Efficacious Action as evaluated by Workplace (EA)

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and why individuals differentially offer more than they have to, in terms of their time and effort, with regard to their designated position within an organisation. To this end, the current research has drawn upon existing models of motivation as a framework for the foundation of a DE model. Even though theory has a critical part to play in this type of research, 'it is the application of theory that is important in this case' (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002: 9). The rationale of this research is to add insight to the existing concept of DE, by proposing a model that can be utilised by leaders in organisations, including multinationals in Asia, to put to practical use when addressing the issue of diverse personal productivity and diverse personal expectancy of employees, with regard to motivation.

Variables and questionnaire
The measurement variables that were used in the research are listed below.

The dependent variables measured are:

- industry;
- age;
- gender;
- nationality;
- ethnicity;
- highest organisational position;
- years work experience;
- highest qualification; and
- virtual or co-located work.

The independent variables measured are:

- effort-performance expectancy (EP);
- interpersonal-performance expectancy (IP);
- effort-learning expectancy (EL);
- leading-visibility expectancy (LV);
- network-performance expectancy (NP);
- internal-recognition expectancy (IR);
- mutual-reciprocity expectancy (MR);
- individual-network learning expectancy (NL);
- performance-outcome expectancy (PO);
- team-sustainability expectancy (TS);
- effort expectancy constructs (EE);
- performance expectancy constructs (PE);
- achievement of workplace goals (WG);
- emotional orientation for desired outcome (EO);
- positive comparison of expectancy with peers (PC); and
- self is seen to have capacity for efficacious action (EA).

A questionnaire was developed for data collection. The questionnaire (Appendix 5A) is designed to assist interviewees, in a self-assessment, in thinking through the critical behaviours in 10 key areas for effectively engaging in, utilising and creating and conducting, value-adding, professional network relationships. The DE questionnaire was designed, using standard guidelines, to assist our understanding of the mediating effects of expectancies in professional network performance and learning that will eventually lead to self-affirmation, and thus influencing individuals to freely offer their DE. The questionnaire was tested and was found to satisfy the standard requirements.

The questionnaires were sent out via email, fax and as setup electronically

using website survey software. These responses were collected during leadership courses at the Graduate School of Business, University of Cape Town and at Rotterdam School for Management. The permission for the use of these questionnaires had been obtained from the respondents. The sample includes managers from 21 different nationalities, 17 different economic sectors, five different managerial levels, diverse qualifications and a spectrum of work experience and age. They have in common the fact that they have been enrolled on a management development programme, but no claim is made to representativeness. They rather reflect the richness and diversity of international managers.

For the purpose of this research, the data were classified into both categorical and quantitative variables. The design of the questionnaire imparts itself to categorical questions such as gender, ethnicity and virtual or co-located work. The questionnaire also has quantifiable components; the questions on effort-performance expectancy, interpersonal-performance expectancy, and effort-learning expectancy were classified as quantitative as they are all measured on a five-point Likert scale.

Results

Descriptive measures
In the overall sample, there were 1,548 observations, however, not all cases contained complete information and in the data summary and analysis that follows, missing observations were case-wise deleted.

Table 5.1 reports on gender and Table 5.2 presents the age distribution. The data reflects a relative young group of managers, predominantly male, with more than 60 per cent of the respondents younger than 35 years.

The frequency distribution for position in the organisation and highest qualification, respectively, are shown in Tables 5.3 and 5.4, reflecting a relatively well-educated group of people operating mainly at middle-management level. A sectoral distribution of the data indicates a more-or-less random distribution between economic sectors with two exceptions – a preponderance of observations in the financial and engineering sectors.

Table 5.5 reports some descriptive statistics for the personal expectancies and the workplace expectancies (see Appendix 5A for definition of variables). The subscript P refers to a personal expectancy while the subscript W refers to a workplace expectancy.

Statistical differences between biographical categories
The expectancy scores were investigated for statistical differences between the different categories of the biographical data. Four variables indicated significant differences between males and females (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.1   Frequency distribution for gender

Gender	Frequency	%
Male	1,005	64.9
Female	543	35.1
Total	1,548	100.0

Table 5.2   Frequency distribution for age

Age category	Frequency	%
≤ 30	513	33.3
31–35	413	26.8
36–40	235	15.2
41–45	146	9.4
46–50	78	5.1
> 50	157	10.2
Total	1,542	100.0

Table 5.3   Frequency distribution for position in organisation

Position	Frequency	%
Manager	777	50.8
Director	230	15.0
Specialist	353	23.1
CEO	84	5.5
Section head	87	5.1
Other	7	0.5
Total	1,538	100.0

Table 5.4   Frequency distribution of highest qualification

Highest qualification	Frequency	%
Doctorate	50	3.3
Master's degree	286	18.7
Bachelor's degree	733	47.9
Diploma	244	15.9
Matric	146	9.5
Not reported	71	4.6
Total	1,530	100.0 (rounded)

Table 5.5   Means and standard deviations of expectancies (n=1540)

Variable	Mean	Std dev.
EP_p	4.498	0.620
EP_w	4.263	0.797
IP_p	4.206	0.730
IP_w	3.937	0.866
EL_p	4.202	0.772
EL_w	3.838	0.883
LV_p	3.871	0.850
LV_w	3.792	0.952
NP_p	3.828	0.850
NP_w	3.915	0.923
IR_p	3.792	0.962
IR_w	3.560	0.974
MR_p	3.790	0.857
MR_w	3.522	0.946
NL_p	4.284	0.729
NL_w	3.823	0.916
PO_p	4.317	0.750
PO_w	4.072	0.854
TS_p	4.110	0.868
TS_w	4.062	0.921

Table 5.6   T-test for significant differences between gender categories

Variable	Male mean	Female mean	p-value
LV_p	3.906	3.806	0.027
NP_w	3.871	3.996	0.011
IR_p	3.754	3.861	0.036
TS_w	4.013	4.152	0.005

As far as age categories are concerned, six different categories were distinguished and analysed by means of one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance). The variables where significant differences were observed between at least two categories are listed in Table 5.7. The six categories relate to ages less than 30, 31–35, 35–40, 41–45, 46–50 and older than 50. The analysis of class means shows great consistency in so far as the measurements increase with increasing age.

A one-way ANOVA was executed on the five different qualification categories namely matric, diploma, bachelor's degree, master's degree and doctorate. Three of the expectancy variables indicated significant

Table 5.7   F-*tests for significant differences between age categories*

Variable	p-value
EP_p	0.007
IP_p	0.005
MP_p	0.012
MR_p	0.014
MR_w	0.017
NL_p	0.023
PO_p	0.006
TS_p	0.000
TS_w	0.013

Table 5.8   F-*tests for significant differences between qualification categories*

Variables	p-value
IP_p	0.000
LV_p	0.001
IW_w	0.006

differences between the qualification categories (see Table 5.8). The analysis of the class means for the significant variables indicates a strong trend for the class means to increase with higher levels of education. In all cases, the mean of the doctoral class is significantly greater than the other class means.

The five different means for the variable that pertains to the position in the company, namely specialist, section head, manager, director and CEO were also compared in a one-way ANOVA (see Table 5.9). For four variables, significantly different class means could be demonstrated. As in the previous two analyses, there is a notable tendency for the class means to increase with the seniority of the position in the organisation.

The personal and work expectancies were also investigated for significant differences between the means of co-located workers and virtual workers. In two cases, significant differences were observed (Table 5.10). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated for each variable pair in Table 5.10. All the correlation coefficients were greater than 0.90 and all were statistically significant at the 1 per cent level of significance.

Principal component analysis was applied both to the five personal behaviour and the five workplace variables and in both cases a single

Table 5.9   F-tests for significant differences between positional categories

Variable	p-value
LV_w	0.019
NP_p	0.001
NL_w	0.046
TS_p	0.000

Table 5.10   T-tests for the means of personal and work expectancies between co-located workers and virtual workers

Variables	p-value
IP_p	0.025
TS_w	0.000

factor, with all factor loadings in excess of 0.95, explained more than 95 per cent of variability in the variables.

Item analysis
The next stage in the analysis involved an item analysis for the questions pertaining to personal behaviour and the meaningfulness to the workplace (see Appendix 5A).

   The following variables were analysed:

● effort expectancy (*EE*);
● performance expectancy (*PE*);
● achievement of workplace goals (*WG*);
● emotional orientation of desired outcome (*EO*);
● positive outcome comparison with peers (*PC*); and
● capacity for efficacious action (*EA*).

   Each variable was measured using five items and the Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for each item. Where the reliability of the sum scales could be improved by deleting items, this was done. Table 5.11 summarises the overall scale reliabilities and the items retained for further analysis.

Canonical correlation
The variables in the April–Smit Discretionary Effort Model are now defined and estimated as follows:

Table 5.11   Cronbach alphas for items retained

Variable	Cronbach alpha	Items retained
EE_p	0.664	1–5
EE_w	0.817	1–5
PE_p	0.625	1–5
PE_w	0.827	1–5
WG_p	0.979	1–5
WG_w	0.981	1–5
EO_p	0.910	1–4
EO_w	0.420	1–3.5
PC_p	0.405	1–4
PC_w	0.514	1–4
EA_p	0.418	1–4
EA_w	0.798	1–5

$\overline{P}$ denotes the mean of the 10 personal expectancies and $\overline{W}$ the mean of the 10 work expectancies.

I = Importance of the expectancy construct to the individual = $\overline{P}$;

O = Measure of desired outcome materialising in workplace = Effort expectancy construct + Performance expectancy construct = EE_w + PE_w;

V = Valence = Workplace orientation to desired outcome / Emotional orientation to desired outcome at workplace

= $(\overline{W} + WG_w) / EO_w$;

A = Affirmation of Self through expectancy (self-esteem)

= Positive comparison of expectancy with peers meaningfully evaluated by workplace + Self is perceived to have capacity of efficacious action as evaluated by workplace

= $PC_w + EA_w$.

Discretionary effort in general (EP)

= $(0.1I)(0.2O)(0.1A)$ with the 0.1 and 0.2 arbitrary scaling constants.

For each expectancy, the discretionary effort can therefore be calculated as:

$$DE\ (EP) = \{[0.1\ EP_p]\ [0.2\ (EE_w + PE_w)]\ [(\overline{W} + WG_w) / EO_w]$$
$$+ [0.1]\ (PC_w + EA_w)]\}\ \text{etc.}$$

To investigate the relationship between the dimension of expectancy and personal behaviours, canonical correlation analysis was used between

Table 5.12   Chi-square test with successive roots removed (R = 0.615,
         p = 0.000)

Root removed	Canonical R	p
0	0.615	0.000
1	0.237	0.000
2	0.191	0.000
3	0.091	0.471
4	0.069	0.777
5	0.023	0.977

Table 5.13   Factor structure: personal expectations

Variable	Root 1	Root 2	Root 3	Root 4	Root 5	Root 6
EP_p	0.577	−0.194	−0.280	0.229	0.363	−0.459
IP_p	0.616	−0.280	−0.099	−0.375	−0.386	−0.264
EL_p	0.671	0.133	0.176	−0.242	0.164	0.175
LV_p	0.591	0.642	0.071	0.175	−0.094	−0.118
NP_p	0.482	−0.387	0.648	0.429	−0.057	−0.010
IR_p	0.468	0.038	0.149	−0.053	−0.093	0.369
MR_p	0.154	−0.200	0.077	−0.205	0.640	0.373
NL_p	0.719	−0.047	−0.025	−0.201	0.048	−0.052
PO_p	0.635	−0.024	−0.353	0.411	0.028	0.028
TS_p	0.218	−0.347	−0.296	0.105	−0.294	0.364

the 10 personal expectational variables EP_p to TS_p and the six averaged
personal behavioural variables EE_p to EA_p.

The overall canonical R is fairly substantial and highly significant.
Table 5.12 indicates that the first two canonical roots are significant and
need further examination.

Using 0.6 as cut-off, IP_p, EL_p, NL_p and PO_p show substantial loadings
on the first canonical factor, that is, they correlate highly with that factor.
The variable LV_p is substantially correlated with the second canonical
factor. The first two roots extract an average of about 38 per cent of the
variance of the personal expectations (Table 5.13).

This first canonical root of the personal behaviour variables is marked
by high loadings on EE_p, PE_p, WG_p and PC_p while EA_p loads highly on the
second canonical root. The first two roots account for about 53 per cent of
the variance in the personal behaviour variables (Table 5.14).

Overall it is concluded that IP_p, EL_p, NL_p and PO_p affect EE_p, PE_p, WG_p
and PC_p while LV_p has a strong influence on EA_p.

Table 5.14   Factor structure: personal behaviours

Variable	Root 1	Root 2	Root 3	Root 4	Root 5	Root 6
EE_p	0.915	−0.040	0.000	0.171	0.213	−0.293
PE_p	0.842	−0.207	−0.295	−0.066	−0.258	0.296
WG_p	0.725	0.110	0.306	−0.122	0.341	0.486
EO_p	0.554	−0.335	0.101	−0.734	0.146	−0.089
PC_p	0.665	−0.140	0.632	−0.058	−0.363	0.042
EA_p	0.570	0.690	0.063	−0.400	−0.180	−0.017

Finally, DE was analysed using ANOVA to test for the significance of the demographic grouping variables. No significant differences (at the 5 per cent level) could be observed between males and females, between the different age groupings or between the different positions in the organisations.

Significant differences, however, could be observed between different qualification levels with diplomas leading to significantly higher DE values that high school, first degree or master degree qualifications induce.

Conclusion

> there exist innumerable forces which interlace, an infinite number of parallelograms of forces giving a resultant, the historical happening. This in its turn can be regarded as the outcome of a force acting as a whole, without consciousness or will. For that which each individual wishes separately, is hindered by all the others, and the general upshot is something which no one in particular has willed.
>
> (Engels, 1941: 55)

In the management of humans there is a trend to emphasise certain visual and group traits, modes of connection and relationship development, and ways of communicating which have proved, in part, to favour the maintenance of norming and stability. In the course of time these manners of regulating affairs restrict the desires of individuals to function diversely or outside of the dominant norm. These desires are generally resisted by both the gatekeepers of the norm (typically organisational management within the workplace) and those whose organisation-based self-esteem is quite low.

The process, emergent self-organisation around a replicating discourse, can be argued as a relatively simple case of a more general phenomenon. In 1976, Dawkins suggested a cultural replicator: the meme – essentially a

belief, fashion or idea which replicates, in the broad sense, through imitation. The case for memes has been argued elsewhere; as underpinning a theory of socially contagious behaviour in individuals (Marsden, 1998; Blackmore, 1999) or as the foundation of a more general theory of individual consciousness (Dennet, 1991; Gabora, 1997). A wider view would see memes, or complexes of coexisting memes, as encoding a schemata for cultural organisation (Hull, 1990; Williams, 2000; Weeks and Galunic, 2003). With differences of emphasis, these authors all argue that organisational 'rules' are products of self-replicating systems of ideas and dialogue; in essence, Foucauldian discourses.

The field of diversity management, and diversity scholarship, can be considered as an emergent property of organisations enabled by, and dedicated to the maintaining of, particular paradigms. More generally, understanding of diversity depends on the mainly unwritten organisational 'rules and procedures' (Hannan and Freeman, 1977; Scott-Morgan, 1994), 'institutions' (Powell and DiMaggio, 1991) or 'cultural hegemony' (Gaudelli, 2001) and may be called into existence through organisational discourse; discourse frequently shaped by the metaphors which give it meaning (Morgan, 1996), such as seeing and treating all Chinese employees in the same way (through the generalised lens of culture), treating culture in an undifferentiated manner at both individual and group level (through the lens of national culture) (Härtel et al., ch. 11, this volume), or seeing and treating all multinational employees in the same way (through the lens of self-serving behaviour, towards their own career and financial ends). We find that such generalisations of Chinese, or Asian employees in general, draw diverse individuals into an otherwise undifferentiated mass, based on a particular commonality. This practice tends to victimise people, and leave them in a state of dependency or disempowerment of being, as their classification is imposed upon them by (powerful) others. The extent to which these generalised constructions impose a hierarchy of power is particularly disturbing to us. Within Asia, China can be seen as a cluster of cultures from different regions. This is similar to how it is in Europe, that instead of it being a single country it is a union of countries. China has many different regions and almost 40 nationalities, plus many different languages. In some cases, Chinese cannot understand other Chinese who live just across the river. Such understanding of the diversity of Chinese culture renders the generalised cultural discourse irrelevant.

Complexity arises from viewpoints, beliefs and actions of agents/people in the system, and is enabled by emergence of a replicative meme (discretionary effort), as opposed to an imposed meme (culture). Our research, which looked at individuals with high organisation-based self-esteem, has raised the fact that individuals do in fact act outside of, or contrary to,

particular paradigms, that is, in our FMCG firm, Chinese employees were displaying highly individual behaviour (which challenges the accepted collectivist/groupthink cultural paradigm traditionally used to describe Chinese employees); however, these diverse discretionary efforts were not ultimately self-serving but for the collective organisation to do well. We felt that focusing research on diverse discretionary effort will go some way in decoupling the commonality/cultural discourse from individual choice and action – and, hence, sought to develop a model to both account for, but also measure, diverse levels of discretionary effort. Our research, conducted on a sample similar in locus of control, showed that known demographic variables do not account for significant differences in discretionary effort, but that further study needed to be conducted on the role of qualifications in discretionary effort mitigation.

Each society produces contradictions within a given time–space continuum, and each individual develops according to his/her needs, and these needs eventually conflict with the dominant paradigm. Because each person is an individual and hence unique, it would be impossible for there not to be acute contradictions, at some time, between the emotional investments and subsequent efforts of the modern Asian individual to solve his/her unique problem and the effort of society to reward previously tried and tested methods of so doing. It is this contradiction which served as our stimulus to conduct this research study, and we hope which will provide the impetus for thinking more critically about diversity in Asia.

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Appendix 5A   Research questionnaire

PROFESSIONAL NETWORK EXPECTANCY QUESTIONNAIRE
Self-Assessment Tool for Expectancies within Professional Networks

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The following self-assessment tool is designed to assist you in thinking through critical behaviours in 10 key areas for effectively engaging in, utilising, and creating conducive, value-adding, professional network relationships. Through self-reflection, the tool highlights areas for personal growth, and raises personal awareness with regard to working through a professional network. It will also assist the researcher in establishing a baseline against which to measure future development and success of employees and managers such as yourselves, and gain understanding of the enhancing and mediating effects of expectancies in professional network performance and learning.

INDUSTRY	CURRENT AGE	GENDER	NATIONALITY	ETHNICITY
HIGHEST ORGANISA-TIONAL POSITION	YEARS WORK EXPERIENCE		CURRENT & PRIOR QUALIFICATIONS	
circle YES / NO	circle YES / NO		circle YES / NO	CL% V%
CO-LOCATED WORK EXCLUSIVELY	VIRTUAL WORK EXCLUSIVELY		MIX OF CO-LOCATED & VIRTUAL WORK	APPROX. % MIX

This questionnaire is designed so as to help you to reflect on your own experiences in your professional network (possibly team) in the workplace, that is, the people you draw on, work with and count on, to complete your work successfully. Expectancy refers to a person's strength of belief and conviction about whether or not what they set out to do on a personal level is achievable, and desirable, on a workplace level, of their effort and productivity. Underpinning this expectancy, is the fact that people have different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing. Desire and expectation are interwoven, and only mitigated by workplace issues and openness to their expectations, as well as personal self-esteem and self-confidence issues.

Please initially complete the table provided below, in which you rate the ten expectancies we have defined, on a 1 to 5 scale:

(a) *the value of each expectancy to yourself (what value you personally place on a particular expectancy)* (5=exceptionally high personal value to you; 4=high personal value to you; 3=moderate personal value to you; 2=low personal value to you; 1=very low personal value to you); and,

(b) *the value of each expectancy to your workplace (what value you think your workplace would place on a particular expectancy)* (5=exceptionally high personal value to your workplace; 4=high personal value to your workplace; 3=moderate personal value to your workplace; 2=low personal value to your workplace; 1=very low personal value to your workplace).

RATING OF EXPECTANCY VALUE – TO THE INDIVIDUAL & THE WORKPLACE:

EXPECTANCY DEFINITION	PERSONAL VALUE OF EXPECTANCY (II)	VALUE OF EXPECTANCY TO YOUR WORKPLACE (IW)
EFFORT-PERFORMANCE EXPECTANCY (EP): Network member (you) believes that desired levels of performance are possible, given the resources, competencies and skills s/he possesses		
INTERPERSONAL-PERFORMANCE EXPECTANCY (IP): Network member (you) believes that s/he is seen to be assisting, and developing, others		
EFFORT-LEARNING EXPECTANCY (EL): You believe that expended personal effort will have future, value-adding learning benefits		
LEADING-VISIBILITY EXPECTANCY (LV): You are seen to be in step with new trends and the cutting-edge, and acknowledged as being knowledgeable and practising at the forefront		

NETWORK-PERFORMANCE EXPECTANCY (NP): Network member (you) believes that his/her colleagues are committed to the goals and objectives of the network		
INTERNAL-RECOGNITION EXPECTANCY (IR): Network member (you) believes that s/he will be recognised (with little or no financial rewards), both within the network and the greater organisation, for the contribution s/he has made		
MUTUAL-RECIPROCITY EXPECTANCY (MR): Network members returning directly, or indirectly, aid, resources and/or friendship offered by another network member		
INDIVIDUAL-NETWORK LEARNING EXPECTANCY (NL): Network member believes that his or her own personal learning, knowledge and insights are of value, and can contribute, to the network's learning		
PERFORMANCE-OUTCOME EXPECTANCY (PO): Network member (you) believes that what s/he is doing will lead to certain outcomes		
TEAM-SUSTAINABILITY EXPECTANCY (TS): Network member (you) focused on sustaining the network, and its future		

Please now review each item below and fill in the applicable numbers (in the boxes on the right-hand side of the row) that describes, (a) your most appropriate personal response, and (b) your perception of how meaningful each response is to your workplace (please note: there are no right and wrong answers).

(a) Personal Behaviour Legend – pers – (1–5) (b) **ME** – Meaningful to Workplace & Evaluated Legend – wkpl – (1–5):

5	FREQUENTLY
4	SOMETIMES
3	OCCASIONALLY
2	RARELY
1	NEVER

5	MEASURED & REFLECTED IN PERSONAL PERFORMANCE REVIEW, AND CONSIDERED EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
4	MEASURED AND CONSIDERED EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
3	MEASURED AND CONSIDERED IMPORTANT
2	NOT MEASURED, BUT CONSIDERED IMPORTANT
1	NOT MEASURED AT ALL

	SPECIFIC RESPONSES	pers (1–5)	**ME** wkpl (1–5)
EE	Provide network members with the necessary resources, to play meaning roles in something that is quite significant to the network, and/or organisation		
EE	Insist on, and am known to insist on, the same high standards of cooperation as I personally demonstrate in my dealings with my network members		
EE	Seek to involve myself in activities that exposes me to knowledge and learning, that could eventually aid my future career(s), inside my current organisation, or outside of it		
EE	Put aside specific time slots/periods for sharing, informally and formally, personal knowledge and insights with other network members		
EE	Personally play a pivotal role in consistently ensuring the achievement of desired organisational outcomes (that is, I am needed and valuable to organisational success)		

SPECIFIC RESPONSES		pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
PE	Show courage and sense of purpose to stand up for what I believe, in pushing for the desired levels of network performance		
PE	When appropriate, honestly acknowledge to my network when I am unable to contribute significantly or am 'lost' (that is, don't fully know what I am doing nor do I know what to do next)		
PE	Believe that, with some effort, I am capable of learning the required amount, and at the required pace, in order to work competently in all workplace eventualities and situations		
PE	Provide accurate and constructive feedback to my network members regarding their understanding or misunderstanding of important milestones relating to our network's work		
PE	In consultation with stakeholders of my network's contribution (not network members), build a coherent set of both achievable-, and stretch, long-term goals for the professional network		

SPECIFIC RESPONSES		pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
WG	Purposefully explore unconventional ideas and different approaches that could eventually (currently, or in the future) be important for my network to know		
WG	Monitor whether individual network members proactively seek project engagements, and periods of projects, that suit (are aligned to) their personal team styles		
WG	Consistently work at, and seek through the eliciting of their viewpoints, the integration and alignment of my work goals with the goals of reciprocal (other contributing) members		
WG	Continuously seek to improve network processes and communication to achieve more effective network cooperation and higher levels of reciprocity among network members		

SPECIFIC RESPONSES	pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
WG Build a broad base of support, for my network, among key stakeholders by identifying and positioning ideas to satisfy their needs, interests and concerns		

SPECIFIC RESPONSES	pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
EO Allow for the expression of emotion as it relates to the performance and under-performance of network members, without allowing it to impact negatively on others or the organisation		
EO Proactively seek out opportunities to assist network members in challenging projects, or help them to do something extra, beyond the minimal requirements of workplace performance		
EO Prefer non-financial rewards over financial rewards (extended leave, flexible work hours, attend conferences, sent on courses not related to work issues, explicit peer recognition, and so on)		
EO My preference is for specific recognition and feedback concerning my contribution (not general platitudes & global statements) from other network members		
EO Consistently demonstrate high levels of respect for my network members in conversations and dealings with other non-members (in & out of the presence of my network members)		

SPECIFIC RESPONSES	pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
PC Regularly feed back new and different information and knowledge to my network members (information and knowledge that they may not have come across)		
PC Believe that my network members will match my effort in ensuring our shared success in overcoming challenging tasks/ projects or navigating areas not previously ventured into		

	SPECIFIC RESPONSES	pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
PC	Deal with would-be dominant network individuals, who no longer appear to share the same underlying intent & values of the network (for example, warning, communicate, formal complaint, and so on)		
PC	Share reputation and successes of network members with other networks (inside and outside of organisation)		
PC	Ensure that my network members' personal goals and needs are aligned with the desired network outcome(s), and therefore their needs are gratified when achieved		

	SPECIFIC RESPONSES	pers (1–5)	ME wkpl (1–5)
EA	Expend my personal energy and effort only in those things/processes/projects that currently have personal learning benefit for me, or will have in the future		
EA	Actively seek to ensure the transference of my knowledge and insights across, and outside my, discipline/functional boundaries (both within and outside of the organisation)		
EA	Regularly subject my ideas to scrutiny from non-network members (that is, present at conferences, publish in international peer-reviewed journals, write books, and so on)		
EA	Achieve more of the network milestones/goals compared to other network members, given equal access to resources and aid		
EA	Seek to pull knowledgeable people, and sources of learning and knowledge, into my network (who/that do not yet have informal, or formal, membership of my network)		