ABSTRACT:
The overall purpose of this paper is to explore how and under which conditions HRM service value is created for and by employees. In this, Service-Dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) is drawn upon to theorise how actions of, and interactions among actors in the HR triad underlie value creation, in which the main principle is that actual value is only created when employees make use of HR services to satisfy their needs. Since previous research has argued that such value is dependent on the social context in which it is created (Edvardsson et al., 2011), this study consequently applies social structure modalities (i.e. interpretive schemes, resources, and norms), as provided by structuration theory (Giddens, 1984), as a lens for exploring how actors shape their perceptions and behaviours towards value creation. The consequent goal of this research is to explore how the interplay among social structure modalities of actors in the HR triad explains the creation of HRM service value for and by employees. To do so, an explorative case study was carried out within a medical organisation, in which a survey and semi-structured interviews were mainly used to collect data. Here, developmental HR services, being training, appraisal, and career development (Kuvaas, 2008), were chosen as a vantage point for data collection. Results showed that especially employees’ interpretive schemes on their employment identity were the driving force behind value creation through HR services, as this determined their development need and their sense of responsibility in the employee-employer relationship. However, the degree to which actual value could be created heavily depended on line managers’ interpretive schemes towards development, the departmental context in terms of norms and resources, and the resources that individual employees were able to draw upon. In addition, this study shows that for different types of HR services, different interactions between HR triad actors, and thus differing social structure modalities, are of importance in realising desired outcomes.

Supervisors:
First supervisor: dr. J.G. Meijerink
Second supervisor: prof.dr. T. Bondarouk

Keywords:
HRM service value-in-use creation, HRM service co-production, Service-Dominant logic, value-in-social-context, HR triad, social structure modalities
# Table of Contents

1. Introduction............................................................................................................................................. 3

2. Theoretical Framework ............................................................................................................................... 3
   2.1 HRM Value for Employees ....................................................................................................................... 3
      2.1.1 HR Triad actors in HRM Value Creation ......................................................................................... 4
   2.2 Applying Service-Dominant Logic to HRM ............................................................................................ 5
      2.2.1 Value Creation and Value Propositions ............................................................................................ 5
      2.2.2 Interaction as a Prerequisite for Value Creation: Co-production and Co-creation ....................... 5
      2.2.3 Networks as Facilitators of Interaction ............................................................................................ 6
      2.2.4 Value and Interaction: Applying S-D logic and the Service Network Model to the HR Triad ........ 6
   2.3 The Role of Social Context in Value Creation ....................................................................................... 7
      2.3.1 Social Structure Dimensions of Signification, Domination, and Legitimation ............................... 8
      2.3.2 Conclusion on the Role of Social Structure Modalities in Value Creation .................................... 9

3. Methods ..................................................................................................................................................... 9
   3.1 Developmental HR Practices ............................................................................................................... 9
   3.2 Research Site and Respondents ............................................................................................................. 10
   3.3 Data Collection Methods .................................................................................................................... 10
      3.3.1 Selection of Respondents ............................................................................................................... 11
      3.3.2 HRM Service Value ....................................................................................................................... 11
      3.3.3 HR Triad Interaction & Social Structure ....................................................................................... 12
   3.4 Data analysis ......................................................................................................................................... 13
   3.5 Reliability and Trustworthiness .......................................................................................................... 13

4. Results .................................................................................................................................................... 13
   4.1 Survey Results ..................................................................................................................................... 13
   4.2 Medicorp’s Overall Context for Value-In-Use Creation .................................................................. 14
      4.2.1 Training and Development .......................................................................................................... 15
      4.2.2 Appraisal and Work Floor Support ............................................................................................... 16
   4.3 Training and Development ................................................................................................................. 17
      4.3.1 Competence for Delivering High Quality Work ................................................................. 17
      4.3.2 Competence for Career Development ....................................................................................... 20
      4.3.3 Reflection on Training and Development ................................................................................... 21
   4.4 Appraisal and Work Floor Support .................................................................................................... 22
      4.4.1 Communication about Work Floor Wellbeing ............................................................................. 22
      4.4.2 Making Agreements about Personal Development ..................................................................... 22
      4.4.3 Feedback and Assessment .......................................................................................................... 24
      4.4.4 Reflection on Appraisal and Work Floor Support ......................................................................... 24

4.5 Overall Reflection on Results ........................................................................................................... 25
5. Discussion.............................................................................................................................................. 26
   5.1 Implications for Research......................................................................................................................... 26
   5.2 Implications for Practice .......................................................................................................................... 28
   5.3 Limitations & Future Research .................................................................................................................. 28
6. Conclusions.................................................................................................................................................. 29
7. Acknowledgements...................................................................................................................................... 29
8. References..................................................................................................................................................... 30
9. Appendices.................................................................................................................................................... 34
   9.1 Appendix A: Employee Survey Items (English) ......................................................................................... 34
   9.2 Appendix B: Operationalisation Table ....................................................................................................... 35
   9.3 Appendix C: Employee Interview Guide (Dutch) .................................................................................... 36
   9.4 Appendix D: Line Manager Interview Guide (Dutch) .............................................................................. 38
   9.5 Appendix E: HR Specialist Interview Guide (Dutch) ............................................................................. 40
1. INTRODUCTION

In the past, human resource management (HRM) scholars have conducted research on how HRM creates value for employees (e.g. Vanhala & Tuomi, 2006), who are the primary consumers of HRM (e.g. Paauwe, 2009). Employees are often considered as an important, if not the most important source of competitive advantage for a firm, which makes it crucial for organisations to invest in their well-being and performance (e.g. Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Wright, McMahen & McWilliams, 1994). Here, it was found that HRM can deliver value to employees by affecting employee outcomes like general well-being, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Huselid, 1995; Guest, 2002) through the development and implementation of human resource (HR) services such as training and development, appraisal, and internal career opportunities (Vanhala & Tuomi, 2006). Also, it has been shown that when such employee outcomes are positively affected, performance is likely to be stimulated (Van De Voorde, Paauwe & Van Veldhoven, 2012). On the contrary, Appelbaum (2002), who reviewed the literature on the link between HRM and employee outcomes, stressed that definitive conclusions on this link are hard to reach, implying that there might be other factors that influence this relationship. Therefore, this study sets out to explore what other factors might be of importance for creating HRM service value for employees.

To further explain the effect of HRM on employee outcomes, literature has often assessed how the main providers of HRM, being HR specialists (Renwick, 2003a), line managers (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), or these two actors together (e.g. Whittaker & Marchington, 2003), play a role in the development and implementation of HR strategy and practices, from which it was concluded that a partnership between the two is needed for effectively delivering HRM. However, studies have largely neglected to incorporate the partnership between HR specialists, line managers and employees together, which is referred to as the “HR triad” by Schuler and Jackson (2005, p. 18), in explaining how HRM creates value for employees. This partnership implies that all three actors can have an active role in creating value for employees through interaction and cooperation in the development and implementation of HR practices (Schuler & Jackson, 2005), which means that line managers, HR specialist and employees each are a primary source of variability in creating value for employees. With regard to line managers and HR specialists, such proactive roles have been widely recognised in HRM literature (e.g. Currie & Procter, 2001), whereas these were only investigated more recently for employees themselves (Meijerink, Bondarouk & Lepak, 2016). Thus, although all actors in the HR triad seem to be able to have an active role in the creation of value for employees, the roles of these three actors, and more importantly how they interact with each other to create HRM value, have never been investigated simultaneously in this capacity.

To analyse interaction and value creation in the HR triad, this study draws on service-dominant (S-D) logic (e.g. Vargo & Lusch, 2004), which contends that interaction between providers and consumers of a service is key to creating value, and that this value is eventually determined through consumer use of services. In addition, Edvardsson, Tornqvist and Gruber (2011) argue that how value is perceived, approached and consequently created depends on the social context in which it is created (i.e. value-in-social-context), implying that actors who are located in differing contexts also perceive and approach value differently. In exploring how such contexts underlie value creation processes, this study borrows concepts from structuration theory (Giddens, 1984), which states that actors draw upon a social structure to shape their perceptions and behaviours, and that their actions consequently reproduce or alter this same social structure. Here, Giddens (1984) argued that such a structure is represented in so called modalities, being interpretive schemes, resources, and norms, and that the combined content of these three form the foundation for actors’ perceptions and behaviours. According to structuration theory, these different modalities thus together make up the relevant social context of actors, meaning that they provide a lens for exploring how social context plays a role in HRM service value creation for employees. Similarly, Meijerink (2014) already argued that it is likely that social structure modalities influence the interaction between employees and their managers, and thus also the content of the employment relationship.

Consequently, the goal of this study is to apply structuration theory’s modalities to value creation in the HR triad. In this, it is investigated how the interplay between the modalities that different actors draw upon explains the actions of, and interactions between these actors with regard to the creation of HRM service value for employees through HR services. By doing this, the current study adds to contemporary literature by providing insights into how social context plays a role in the creation of HRM service value for and by employees, as it shows which modalities of which actors are most important in realising such value.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. First, HRM value for employees is discussed, after which S-D logic (e.g. Vargo & Lusch, 2004) is reviewed and applied to the HR triad to show that interaction in this triad affects HRM value creation. Then, Giddens’ (1984) structuration theory is described, after which it is shown how social structure modalities inform perceptions and actions of, and interactions among actors, and how this applies for the HR triad. This eventually demonstrates how the interplay between social structure modalities influences the value that HRM has for employees, by for example stimulating and enabling high quality cooperation and collective sense-making processes towards value (co-)creation and service co-production. Then, the methodological choices that were made are explained, after which results are reported. Eventually, the paper is concluded with a critical discussion of these results, in which contributions to theory and practice, limitations, and any suggestions for future research are highlighted also.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 HRM Value for Employees

Ideally, as Ulrich (1998) argued, HR should achieve organizational excellence and deliver “results that enrich the organization’s value to customers, investors and employees” (p. 124). With regard to employee evaluations of the value that HRM has to them, the quality of, the satisfaction with, and the perceived effectiveness of HR services have all been considered (Gilbert, De Winne & Sels, 2011; Van Veldhoven, 2005; Chang, 2005). As Meijerink et al. (2016) argue, all these approaches generally measure to what degree HRM services meet the needs and expectations of employees in terms of, for example, general helpfulness, the timeliness of delivery, and the development of competences. Further, it has been shown that, through meeting employee needs, HRM services consequently influence employee outcomes like affective commitment (Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton & Swart, 2005; Gilbert et al., 2011), job satisfaction (Steijn, 2004; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008), performance (Kuvaas, 2008; Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, Gatenby, 2013), and turnover intentions (Kuvaas, 2008). Here, Gilbert et al. (2011) advocate the use of perceived HRM (by employees), rather than intended HRM as measuring standard, because the former can be seen as the driving force behind employee attitudes and behaviours.

Meijerink et al. (2016) stress, based on S-D logic, that
the value that employees assign to HRM can be divided into two constructs, namely (1) the quality and utility of HR services for an employee, and (2) the non-monetary costs that an employee associates with the consumption of these services, for example in terms of the time and effort (i.e. ‘sacrifices’) that are needed to use a service. Together these constructs are labelled as ‘HRM service value’, and the same definitions are adopted in assessing HRM value in the further progress of this study. Service value (i.e. its quality and costs) has been often conceptualised and used in previous studies (e.g. Zeithaml, 1988; Cronin, Brady, Brand, Hightower & Shemwell, 1997), and the common underlying idea is that it is based on the perceived balance between “what is received” and “what is given” (Meijerink et al., 2016). The quality of a service can however be difficult to assess, as services are intangible and heterogeneous, while its production and consumption activities are often inseparable (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985). Quality of services is generally determined by consumer perceptions, meaning “the consumer’s judgment about an entity’s overall excellence or superiority” (p. 15), rather than by objective measurements of quality, due to its characteristics that were sketched above (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988). This also means that different employees regard different quality- or cost-related factors as (most) important, making service value a subjective term that represents a different trade-off between quality and costs for each employee (Zeithaml, 1988; Meijerink et al., 2016).

In an HRM setting, quality and cost perceptions are thus attached to HR services by employees, given that these services can provide them with certain benefits and means while consuming such services. In this, consumption, or use, generally refers to the integration, application, and possible transformation of services in a specific context to meet the needs of the consumer, and the extent to which this is the case has been said to eventually determine the value that is created for and by an employee (e.g. Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Vargo, Maglio & Akaka, 2008; Meijerink et al., 2016). Here, resources can be tangible and static objects (e.g. materials), although they might also be intangible and dynamic in nature (e.g. knowledge), which is especially the case with regard to services (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Practically, one could for example think of trainings, appraisal talks, or involvements in decision-making, that each enable employees to satisfy their personal needs and to reach their goals in a certain way. After all, these services might help employees in acquiring knowledge and skills, in getting feedback on their work, in having a say in company policy, or even in gaining new contacts, in- or outside the company. This shows that the same service can address different employee needs, being for example a training that provides both new knowledge and access to new contacts. Next to the gains of consuming HR services, employees also have to make ‘sacrifices’ in doing so, being for example the time and energy that has to be invested in participating in a training or the decision-making process, while the sharing of information in an appraisal talk might also be regarded as a cost. Overall, employees evaluate both the provided quality and costs of a service, together resulting in their perception of HRM service value (Meijerink et al., 2016).

Furthermore, various factors have been shown to affect the relationship between HRM and the value that it has for employees. For example, organisational support and commitment to employees (Kuvaas, 2008), cooperation between, and willingness to cooperate among line managers and HR specialists in delivering HR practices (Renwick, 2003b, Perry & Kulik, 2008), line manager ability to provide HRM (Currie & Procter, 2001; Renwick, 2003b), and the role of contextual or institutional settings in HRM provision and usage (Huang & Gamble, 2011; Ruel & van der Kaap, 2012) have all been found relevant for the extent to which HRM can deliver value to employees and the organisation as a whole. This already shows that social structure modalities could play an important role in the successful creation of HRM value for and by employees, for example in terms of a line manager’s interpretive scheme towards value creation or his available resources to fulfill employee needs.

2.1.1 HR Triad actors in HRM Value Creation

It is likely that line managers, who have more direct contact with employees, perform their supporting HR role in the foreground on a continual basis (Perry & Kulik, 2008). Here, the quality of the relationships between line managers and employees is said to have a major effect on the value of HR services, while line managers also have an influence on how employees perceive both these services and the general working climate (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Gilbert et al., 2011). Consequently, the role of HR specialists would be to strategically develop HR services (Huselid, Jackson & Schuler, 1997) and to train, guide and empower line managers with regard to HR (e.g. Currie & Procter, 2001; Renwick, 2003a; Renwick, 2003b), while they would probably only support employees directly when their expertise is needed. In other words, line managers seem to hold the ‘HR front-line’, while HR specialists work more ‘behind the scenes’.

However, as already mentioned before, the roles of HR specialists and line managers should blend together for effectively providing HR services to employees. As Renwick (2003b, p. 276) notes; “the assumed split between HR taking a ‘strategic’ HR role and the line doing ‘operational’ HR work seems a false one’. HR practices, and thus HR specialists, need effective line managers that have the necessary HR knowledge, skills and abilities, whereas line managers themselves need HR practices that are workable and applicable to ‘serve’ employees in an optimal way (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), implying that mutual support is very important. To guarantee this, frequent and high-quality interaction between the two actor groups could play a significant role, since it implies a process where parties can influence each other (Grönnos, 2011) to assure successful service provision and support to employees. Similarly, Bowen and Ostroff (2004) have argued that a ‘strong’ HRM system has to be created to shape employee perceptions and their consequential behaviours in a uniform way, so that an organisational climate is created in which employees identify with, and understand the firm’s expectations and goals correctly. Such a ‘strong’ system is characterised by messages that are distinctive, consistent, and agreed upon by organisational actors (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), which already shows that quality interaction between policy makers (e.g. line managers and HR specialists) is likely to be of crucial importance to realise an organisational climate that is preferable for optimal HRM value creation for employees.

Furthermore, employees can be seen as the primary consumers of HRM (Pauuw, 2009), in which their perceptions of HRM eventually determine the extent to which they see HRM as being valuable to them (Gilbert et al., 2011). Meijerink et al. (2016) argue that employees are proactive consumers in the creation of HRM value, in that they are able to participate in the development and implementation of HR services in interaction with their organisation, which is represented by line managers and/or HR specialists. This is called co-production, and it is defined as the consumer’s “participation in the creation of the core offering itself” (Lusch & Vargo, 2006, p. 284). Also, actual HRM service value is only determined and realised when employees use or consume HR services, as this represents the moment in which they integrate and apply resources to meet
2.2 Applying Service-Dominant Logic to HRM

S-D logic, which was already referred to in the above sections, is about the interactive relationship between providers and consumers of a service, where the use of such services is essential for creating actual value for consumers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Since the relationship between service providers (i.e. line managers and HR specialists) and service consumers (i.e. employees) is also essential in HR service delivery and eventual value creation, the application of S-D logic to HRM can provide useful and new insights on how HRM service value is created for employees.

2.2.1 Value Creation and Value Propositions

S-D logic’s main principle is that actual value is not created through exchange of goods and services between a provider and a consumer, but through consumer use of a service (e.g. Lusch, Vargo & O’Brien, 2007; Vargo & Lusch, 2011). Here, service concerns “the application of specialised competences (knowledge and skills) through deeds, processes, and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself” (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 2), while use is defined as “the integration and application of resources in a specific context” (Vargo et al., 2008, p. 145). S-D logic thus implies that the real value of a service is only released when consumers utilise a service to serve their interests and needs (i.e. value-in-use creation), and that services themselves are not embedded with value. Services are only embedded with knowledge and other resources that have potential value for the intended consumer in the form of a value proposition, which is communicated and offered to them by a provider (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Such a value proposition basically is a value creation foundation which sketches the value that a service can provide to a consumer (e.g. competences, knowledge, but also accompanying tangibles), based on which this consumer decides if, how, and for what purpose the service is going to be used (Grönroos, 2008; Meijerink et al., 2016). When consumers consequently accept the value proposition as their ‘value creation foundation’ during service consumption, they integrate the resources that are made available by the service provider(s), most likely represented by line managers and HR specialists in the case of HRM, with any of their own resources that are required (e.g. skills, competences), to eventually translate potential value into actual value through value-in-use creation (i.e. using the service as a means to satisfy their needs) (Grönroos, 2008; Grönroos & Voima, 2012; Meijerink et al., 2016).

2.2.2 Interaction as a Prerequisite for Value Creation: Co-production and Co-creation

Interaction is regarded as a dialogical process in which customers and providers actively merge their processes or actions by means of some kind of contact between them (i.e. physical, virtual, or mental) (Grönroos & Voima, 2012), and it is defined as “mutual or reciprocal action where two or more parties have an effect upon another” (Grönroos, 2011, p. 289). Interaction is seen as the pivotal concept around which value creation is nested, since it is required for firstly providing the service, and secondly, for allowing providers and consumers to influence each other’s (value) creation processes (Grönroos, 2008). This is why Grönroos (2011) refers to value creation as being reciprocal, while he views services as the key mediating factor in realising value. By definition, the activities that are fundamental for HRM service value creation, such as service, or value proposition co-production, and service value co-creation, rely on some kind of interaction between multiple actors to be performed successfully (e.g. transferring and receiving resources, sharing information and knowledge, suggesting improvements), making it a key aspect in the realisation of HRM value for employees. As Grönroos and Voima (2012, p. 139) note; “Co-creation occurs only when two or more parties influence each other or, using service marketing terminology, interact”. As already mentioned above, two main forms of interaction can be distinguished with regard to the creation of HRM service value for employees, being co-production and co-creation (Meijerink et al., 2016), and they are explained below.

Employees can affect the quality of a value proposition through co-producing the relevant service together with its providers, or in other words, through their participation in the development and implementation of HR services, which makes them co-producers of potential value (Grönroos, 2011; Meijerink et al., 2016). Examples of such co-production activities are providing feedback about HR services, raising questions during trainings, or reviewing the performance of fellow employees as part of a 360 degree feedback system. Consequently, co-production again influences the actual value that employees create while using HR services, since the offered services are then embedded with a higher value potential, in that they are better able to meet employee needs (Meijerink et al., 2016). In addition, mass customisation literature stresses that a consumer’s active participation in the development of a product (i.e. co-design or co-production) could already contribute to the overall satisfaction of this consumer, and thus also to the eventual value that is created. Here, scholars have argued that consumers are likely to appreciate initiatives in which they can provide input to product or service development, leading to a higher value due to symbolic benefits (e.g. pride-of-authorship) that result from this process (e.g. Piller, 2004; Franke & Piller, 2003). Hence, while co-production by consumers might lead to an improved value proposition, it might also directly lead to increased value for consumers in that the process itself provides them with a certain degree of satisfaction.

Furthermore, providers can help in creating actual value through influencing consumer use of the service, making them co-creators of actual value, or in other words, value-in-use co-creators (e.g. Grönroos & Voima, 2012). Such a co-creator role means that a provider joins in “the employees’ consumption process by facilitating them to better create value-in-use and to derive benefits from utilising HR services” (Meijerink et al., 2016, p. 235), which can for example be done through guiding and assisting employees while using a (new) HR service. By doing so, providers transcend the sole role of value facilitators, which entails that they, next to the activities
of creating and offering value propositions, also have a part in the actual value creation processes of employees (Grönroos, 2011). Thus, through interaction, both consumers and providers are a resource in each other’s creation processes, which is likely to eventually lead to the creation of more and better value for employees.

2.2.3 Networks as Facilitators of Interaction
Because S-D logic views value as the result of a process that integrates and transforms knowledge and resources of different actors (i.e., service usage by employees to satisfy their needs), it also implies the importance of networks in creating value (Lusch & Vargo, 2006), since these bond actors and their resources together, which consequently facilitates interaction (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009). Fyrberg & Jüriado (2009) have built on this by creating an empirically grounded inter-organisational service network model (see figure 1), that explains how a service brand, as the overarching entity to which all actors are bound, facilitates and mediates the relationships and interactions between providers and consumers of the relevant services. The model expands the dyadic provider-consumer relationship that is often used in S-D logic (e.g., Vargo & Lusch, 2004), and describes interaction and value creation between multiple service companies, a so called ‘brand governor’ who oversees the whole service network, and the consumers of the provided services.

Trust and (balance of) power within such relationships, next to the ways in which actors search for them, were found to be influential factors in determining the eventual quality of interaction in the network, which already links to the social structure modalities that will be discussed later. In the end, interaction among actors leads to a co-created outcome that can, but not necessarily will be converted into value, depending on this quality of interaction (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009). In the service network model, balance also refers to the fact that consumers perceive differing factors as being important when it comes to service provision (i.e., no one-best-way for all), which means that service providers must balance their resources and activities over all these fields of interest, and thus over all consumers, in different compositions (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009). This is in line with the findings of Kinne et al. (2005), who found that some HR services were effective in stimulating affective commitment among all employees, while other services only realised this for specific employee groups, and it is also congruent with the earlier discussed subjectivity in employee perceptions of service value (i.e., differing trade-offs between quality and costs). Also, Guzzo and Noonan (1994) have argued that the same set of HR practices can be differently perceived by different employees, based on how these practices fit with an employee’s characteristics, such as their values and expectations, and this was confirmed by Mejjerink et al. (2016). This fit consequently influences employees’ reactions to, and satisfaction with the firm and its practices (Veenendaal & Bondarouk, 2015), which already hints towards the importance of social structure modalities, and in this case particularly interpretive schemes, in the creation of HRM value for employees. Thus, if a balanced approach towards employees is not maintained, involvement of (some of) them in the service network, and thus in the creation of value, might be impaired.

Overall, interaction in networks can be seen as an enabler in the creation of HRM value for employees, since it is required to successfully perform many of its related activities, such as co-production of services and value propositions, and co-creation of value-in-use (Grönroos, 2011), while the quality of interaction is said to eventually influence the extent to which value for consumers, or employees in the case of HRM, is actually created in a network (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009).

2.2.4 Value and Interaction: Applying S-D logic and the Service Network Model to the HR Triad
Remarkably, the structure and properties of the service network model by Fyrberg & Jüriado (2009) appear to be comparable to those of the HR triad in many ways, as will be explained below, and so it can help in explaining the underlying mechanisms that allow employees, HR specialists and line managers to interact and affect the value of HRM for employees. The model suggests that there is a so called ‘internal interaction’ between ‘providers’, who are the direct service providers to consumers, and the ‘brand governor’, who could be seen as the supervisor of the whole network, in which meanings and experiences with regard to the provided services are exchanged between the two actors. This ‘internal interaction’ refers to the fact that the providers and the brand governor are on the supplier- or provider-side of the network, as opposed to the ‘customers’. Here, the brand governor is the one who develops the guide around which the providers align their common activities, while they together discuss the overall strategy of the network in various meetings. Also, the providers are not only dependent on interaction with the brand governor; mutual interaction between them is also of significant importance in effectively providing services to consumers.

![Figure 1: The service network model (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009)](image)

When translating the model of Fyrberg and Jüriado (2009) to a HRM setting, line managers are viewed as providers since they are mainly the ones who directly and continuously interact with employees on a day-to-day basis while providing HR services (Whittaker & Marchington, 2003; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Moreover, HR specialists, or the whole HR department, can be seen as brand governor, because they logically are the ambassadors and main designers of HR services, next to which they are also content experts of the HR domain in general (e.g. Whittaker & Marchington, 2003). This would mean that HR specialists and line managers, through ‘internal interaction’, together optimise and develop HR services and their corresponding value propositions that are offered to employees, which again refers to the required partnership between HR and the line that was already discussed (e.g. Currie & Procter, 2001). Here, line managers would have a co-producing role, while HR specialists influence the way in which line managers co-create actual HRM value with employees through supporting and guiding them. HR, while receiving frequent input from the line, would then take the lead in creating (initial) value propositions that have potential value for employees, which eventually can be translated into actual value through consumption by these employees (Lusch et al., 2007; Whittaker & Marchington, 2003). This ‘internal interaction’ thus points to co-production of services and value propositions by HR specialists and line managers, which could for example appear
in practice through meetings between the two actor groups, to discuss long- as well as short-term issues related to the development, implementation, improvement and (assistance in) employee usage of HR services.

Furthermore, in the service network model, it appears that customers, who are employees in the case of HR, interact with providers of the service to co-create meanings during actual use, whereas they interact with the brand governor of the service to provide suggestions for value proposition improvement, which is called 'reciprocal development' (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009), or in other words, the continuous improvement or adaption of services, based on consumer feedback. These two interactions again represent the co-creation of value-in-use between consumers and service providers (Grönroos, 2011), and the co-production of HR services and their value propositions by employees (Meijerink et al., 2016), that were already referred to earlier. For example, employees might seek and get support from line managers in using HR services to satisfy their needs, thus leading to co-created value-in-use. Also, based on HR service usage, employees might share feedback and suggestions for improvement with HR specialists, thus leading to a co-produced (improved) value proposition and consequent service, given that the HR service providers indeed act upon the provided feedback.

The last concept of the service network model that has to be discussed is the service brand itself (Fyrberg & Jüriado, 2009). While in HRM one cannot speak of actual brands when it comes to service provision and interaction, there might be another facilitating entity at work. In HRM, interaction after all takes place within a company that has a meaning to everyone who works there, while it usually also brings people physically together at the company grounds. Through this, the company and its infrastructures, that might be both physical and web-based, are the main facilitators of interaction and any other HR service activities (e.g. development, implementation, usage), and thus also of service or value proposition co-production and value co-creation, through which value for employees is created.

In summary, when applying the entire model of Fyrberg and Jüriado (2009) to HRM practice, it would be the line managers that mainly co-create actual HRM value for and with employees, for example through supporting them during service usage, which eventually leads to co-created value-in-use. Furthermore, HR specialists would be the ones that fundamentally develop HR services, in which both line managers and employees can have a co-producing role through for example feedback. Thus, the basic principle in HRM would be that employees co-create value with line managers, while they co-produce value propositions with HR specialists. However, in reality, it might be that both interactions occur in each relationship, for example in that suggestions for improvement are also made towards line managers (who might then share them with HR specialists), while HR specialists might also assist employees in their use of HR services, resulting in value-in-use that is co-created by employees and HR specialists. Following Gilbert et al., (2011), this link between HR specialists and employees is very important to uphold, because losing direct contact with employees would mean that HR is no longer able to effectively represent employee interests anymore. To conclude, the service network model of Fyrberg & Jüriado (2009) helps us to understand how interaction in the HR triad could play a role in the creation of HRM value for and by employees. Now, Giddens’ (1984) structuration theory is reviewed, to eventually show how social structure modalities shape the context that facilitates interaction and eventually value creation between actors.

### 2.3 The Role of Social Context in Value Creation

Perceptions of services and their value may differ across contexts and actors, being for example employees, line managers, and HR specialists in a HRM environment, and such perceptions are ideally shaped by a ‘social consensus’ among actors. This consensus is constituted through shared understandings among actors, that are in turn produced and reproduced by individuals when they interact with each other (Edvardsson et al., 2011). However, it has also been shown that such perceptions can fundamentally differ between actors or actor groups (Orlikowski & Gash, 1994; Bondarouk, Louise & Lepsinsk, 2009), through which the realisation of desired outcomes might be impaired. Based on the work of Giddens (1984), Vargo and Lusch (2014) already proposed that value (co-)creation occurs in a dynamic service ecosystem, where actors, as resource-integrators, are connected by shared institutional logics. Consequently, they see value creation as an emergent process that takes place within an ever-changing context, in which the institutionalisation of value propositions as acceptable solutions to certain (common) needs plays a key role in enabling exchange and value creation.

According to Giddens’ (1984) structuration theory, actors draw on and apply knowledge of prior actions and the current situation, which is often referred to as interpretive schemes, tangible and intangible resources and facilities available to them, and norms that are considered valid in the specific context to shape their current (inter)actions, and thus their behaviour, and to make sense of the actions of others (Orlikowski, 2000; Edvardsson et al., 2011). Giddens (1984) labels these three concepts as ‘modalities’ that each represent a part of the underlying social structure, being those of signification, domination, and legitimation respectively. These different social structure dimensions (or simply social structures) were however only separated for analytical purposes, as they appear to be interlinked and overlapping in practice (Giddens, 1984). Social structure is generally defined as an emergent set of “empirically unobservable rules and resources that directly influence social activities” (Edvardsson et al., 2011, p. 330), and it can both enable and constrain actors in their behaviour (Rose & Scheepers, 2001). By drawing upon the modalities of social structure in their behaviour, actors manifest or ‘reveal’ them in social practice, meaning that they also (re)produce these guiding principles of the underlying social structure which again informs their subsequent (inter)actions. This is why Giddens (1984, p. 19) refers to structuration as “the duality of structure”, in which this structure is thus only observable and existent by means of the behaviour of human beings (Ehrenhard, 2009). In the current study, this structuration process will however not be used, as structuration theory is only drawn upon for its social structure modalities, since these provide a lens for analysing the social context in which HRM service value is created.

For example, it has already been shown that previous HR service usage can provide employees with certain HRM-and interaction related competences that enable them to make better use of HR services (Meijerink et al., 2016), meaning that they draw on certain resources available to them to inform their current actions, which is in this case making (better) use of HR services (i.e. more value-in-use creation). Also, previous experiences with HR services and their providers that have helped employees in satisfying their needs are likely to lead to positive employee perceptions of HRM (i.e. their interpretive scheme), which could create a willingness among them to engage in HR service co-production. Furthermore, when the valid norms in an organisation promote employee participation,
for example through formal company statements or informal encouragements by (direct) management, it is also probable that there will be an increase in employees’ active interaction with HR service providers, leading to better service and value proposition co-production and value-in-use co-creation. The above examples already show how certain states of social structure can play a role in interaction and HRM service value creation, as it informs the actions and interpretations of organisational members in a multitude of ways. This was also argued by Meijerink (2014), in that the modalities of social structure are likely to influence the interaction between employees and their supervisors, while employees might also consume HR services differently when they draw upon differing modalities, leading to varying experiences of benefits (i.e. value) among them. An overview of the three dimensions of social structure, their subsequent modalities or principles and the (inter)actions that arise from them is shown in Figure 2, and they are further explained below.

**Figure 2: Structuration Dimensions (Jones & Karsten, 2008 (adapted from Giddens, 1984, p. 29))**

### 2.3.1 Social Structure Dimensions of Signification, Domination, and Legitimation

The social structure dimension of signification helps actors to guide their own actions and communications, to attach meaning to those of others, and to make sense of interactions and communications with others by using interpretive schemes, or ‘codes of signification’, that are based on the knowledge of prior experiences or actions and the specific situation at hand (Giddens, 1984; Orlikowski, 2000; Rose & Scheepers, 2001). Such interpretive schemes have also been labelled as a set of semantic rules (Edvardsson et al., 2011), the identity of a group or individual (Jarzabkowski, 2008), or the underlying sets of values, beliefs, and experiences that actors adopt and acquire over time (Broadbent, 1992), and these are influenced by an actor’s position or role within a specific context (Edvardsson et al., 2011). In other words, interpretive schemes are basically the frames of reference that people hold in determining their path of action, and in assessing the actions of, and interactions with others. Whereas interpretive schemes can be similar among different individuals, it has been argued and found that interpretive schemes can also vary much differ across actors, even if they are within the same social group (Broadbent, 1992). Actors integrate both personal and organisational knowledge and experiences in their own way, leading to schemes that might be similar or fundamentally different from each other (Suchan, 2006), meaning that actors for example have different views on ‘how things should be done’ to reach some (agreed-upon) goal (Broadbent, 1992) or that they respond differently to certain impulses within an organisation (Veenendaal & Bondarouk, 2015).

Actors however not only shape their behaviour based on the ‘codes of signification’ that they have adopted over time; they also draw upon the resources and facilities that are available to them to inform their actions, which consequently provides them with power in that they are able to allocate and control such resources (Orlikowski, 2000; Rose & Scheepers, 2001). Resources can be broadly defined as “actual or potential means for achieving one’s goals” (Freund & Riediger, 2001, p. 373), and distributions of such resources are shaped by and institutionalised in the structure dimension of domination. Resources can be both intangible (e.g. competences, knowledge) and tangible (e.g. materials) in nature (Jarzabkowski, 2008; Edvardsson et al., 2011), or, as Giddens (1984) originally argued, they can be authoritative, meaning that they stem from authority relationships and the ability to coordinate and control human activity, or allocative, meaning that they reflect control over aspects of the material world (Jarzabkowski, 2008). In the case of HRM, the knowledge, skills and abilities (i.e. human capital) of actors can be seen as important resources, given that they are indeed used by these actors (Meijerink, 2014). Consequently, (unequal) distributions of resources in contexts where actors are to some extent dependent upon each other enable individuals to exercise a certain degree of power and control (over others), implying that resources are a means through which power is exerted.

The last social structure dimension that has to be discussed is the structure of legitimation, from which actors derive the norms and social values that determine what behaviour can, and should be sanctioned (Giddens, 1984; Rose & Scheepers, 2001; Jones & Karsten, 2008). Such norms, or moral codes, enable actors to evaluate the legitimacy of the actions of others (Edvardsson et al., 2011), and they refer to the (collective) expectations surrounding someone’s rights and obligations in a certain context (Giddens, 1984). Here, the role and position of actors within this context, and thus also the interpretive schemes that they draw upon, have implications for how norms are perceived by them (Edvardsson et al., 2011). Additionally, norms are to some extent related to interpretive schemes, as they are both means or ‘rules’ through which actors can determine, understand, and evaluate their own actions and those of others (Giddens, 1984). However, while interpretive schemes are said to be at least partially idiosyncratic (Orlikowski & Gash, 1994), meaning that they are to some extent unique for each individual, norms are usually accepted and applied by (a majority of) a certain collective in a given context (Giddens, 1984), being for example HR specialists, line managers, employees, or all actors that work for a specific organisation. Thus, a set of norms is ideally shared within a whole firm, while it is also possible that different social groups within a firm adhere to differing norms; something which is likely to have implications for how well actors interact and cooperate. Also, it might be that the most powerful group of actors, which would usually be senior management in a firm, impose their norms upon all other organisational actors, making these the formally established norms upon which sanctions are based in the firm. Nevertheless, other actors or actor groups might still adhere to differing informally established norms that they see as being valid in social practice. The most obvious example of norms is of course the law, in which it is publicly made clear what is not allowed and what is thus open for sanctioning. However, many, more implicit ‘codes of conduct’ can also be seen as norms, being for example dress-codes or etiquette, in which there might be more room for interpretation with regard to what ‘sanctionable’ behaviour is. Thus, one can distinguish between norms that are formal in that these norms, together with their corresponding sanctions, are unambiguous and written down, and norms that are more informal in that they usually only exist in the minds of individuals. In addition, associated sanctions to the latter form of norms are likely to be not strictly set beforehand, meaning that these are emergent in nature.
To summarise, by drawing upon the modalities of social structure, actors are able to:

1. assign meanings to all kinds of phenomena, their own actions and those of others,
2. to exercise power and control through allocating resources, and
3. to apply norms or moral rules through adhering to them or through sanctioning illegitimate actions (Edvardsson et al., 2011)

It is however important to note that Giddens (1984) only separated the different social structure dimensions and modalities that were discussed for analytical purposes. In practice, they appear to be interrelated and overlapping constructs that together inform the behaviour and perceptions of actors. For example, Giddens (1984) argued that interpretive schemes and norms come together when discussing the idea of accountability: “To be ‘accountable’ for one’s activities is both to explicate the reasons for them and to supply the normative grounds whereby they may be ‘justified’” (p. 30).

2.3.2 Conclusion on the Role of Social Structure Modalities in Value Creation

As the above discussion shows, actors are likely to draw upon differing modalities, being interpretive schemes, resources, and norms, in shaping their perceptions and behaviours, due to their different backgrounds and positions within a specific social context. Here, Edvardsson et al. (2011) argued that value should be understood as value-in-social-context, given that meaning is assigned to it by actors based on the social context in which they are located, making it a relative and subjective concept. For example, how employees perceive HR service provision by line managers and HR specialists, based on their interpretive schemes, is likely to influence how and to what extent employees react to and use HR services (i.e. declining or accepting value propositions) (Veemendaal & Bondarouk, 2015). Given the value-in-use concept, this consequently determines the extent to which resources are applied and integrated to satisfy employee needs, and thus to what degree HRM value is created for and by them (Grönnroos, 2008, Meijerink et al., 2016). Here, employees might only perceive HR services as useful after they have been thoroughly briefed on how they work (i.e. consistent communication of value propositions), and more importantly, on how they can satisfy specific employee needs. This would again inform the extent to, and way in which employees will use the specific service, consequently leading to different types and degrees of value to be created eventually.

In this sense, the value that is created seems to vary with how a specific social context is configured, and in this study social structure modalities are used to describe and map this social context. Such modalities are assumed to lie at the foundation of the actions of actors in the HR triad, while these are again essential for creating and optimising HRM value for employees. Consequently, how actors draw upon modalities, and what content these modalities have appears to be crucial for the value that is created in the end. Based on this, one can argue that social structure modalities provide an underlying framework through which the behaviour of actors, the interactions between them, and the subsequent creation of value in the HR triad can be explained. This brings us to the overall research question of this study, which is:

*How can HRM service value creation for and by employees be explained by exploring the interplay among the social structure modalities that actors in the HR triad draw upon in shaping their perceptions and behaviours?*

Below, in figure 3, the research question is also presented visually, as it shows the link between the three sets of modalities of HR triad actors, and HRM service value creation for employees.

![Figure 3: Visual Representation of the Research Question](image)

3. METHODS

Given the fact that social structure and its modalities are inherently part of the context in which they manifests itself, a research method in the form of a case study seems bestfitting. After all, a case study can be characterised as “a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 534), making it an appropriate approach in this case. Also, it can be a means in generating new theory, which conform the goals of the current study, as its main aim is to explore the role of social structure modalities in HRM service value creation for employees. Furthermore, a case study is regarded as an effective research strategy if the topic that is to be investigated is relatively novel, which is the case in the current study, while many kinds of data, being both qualitative and quantitative, can be effectively used when adopting a case study approach (Eisenhardt, 1989).

3.1 Developmental HR Practices

This research is especially, however not exclusively, focused on the role of ‘developmental HR practices’ (Kuvaas, 2008) in the modalities, interaction, and value creation within the HR triad. Such developmental HR practices are generally considered as those practices that are concerned with training opportunities, career development, and performance appraisal (Kuvaas, 2008). These widely-known HR services are often used to support, guide, and reward employees (Lepak, Bartol, & Erhardt, 2005), meaning that such HR services are mainly about creating value on the individual employee-level. Also, it has been argued that employees have a certain degree of freedom in the way and extent to which they respond to such services (Kuvaas, 2008), which probably leads to different degrees of created value, and this is akin to the value-in-use concept that is adopted in the current study. A similar argument was also made by Meijerink et al. (2016), in that employees and their attributes are an important antecedent of the eventual HRM service value that is perceived by them. Overall, developmental HR services can thus be regarded as suitable entities through which HRM value for employees can be studied, and they will be used as a vantage point during data collection and analysis. Below, the three developmental HR practice types are briefly discussed.

Training is defined as “the process of change used to develop specific skills, usually for a job” (Bloisi, 2007, p. 218).
Mostly, trainings imply specific learning goals for employees, and they are generally used to increase the human capital (i.e. knowledge, skills, and abilities) of employees (Boselie, 2010). For example, an organisation might train its employees, or send them to an external training, to make sure that they are equipped with the necessary competences for performing their job well. While training is thus considered as being quite specific, this is not the case for career development. Development is more concerned with the individual employee rather than with the job or occupation he or she performs at a specific time, and it contains a wide array of activities that are generally aimed at longer-term personal growth and career movement (Winterton, 2007, as cited in Boselie, 2010). An example here might be the long term coaching of employees who are considered as talents by an organisation. Lastly, performance appraisal in its most broad sense is regarded as “a variety of activities through which organisations seek to assess employees and develop their competence, enhance performance and distribute rewards” (Fletcher, 2001, p. 473). A common example of performance appraisal is the (annual) appraisal talk that an employee has with his or her manager. The above definitions already show that there is some overlap between the different HR practices, as they are all aimed at developing or ‘improving’ the employee in a certain way, which is also why they were chosen as vantage points for studying social structure in the HR triad and HRM service value as perceived by employees.

### 3.2 Research Site and Respondents

This study was carried out in a medical company which operates two hospitals and various other sites in the eastern parts of the Netherlands, and it will be referred to as ‘Medicorp’ in the remainder of this paper. At the time of this research, Medicorp employed 220 medical specialists, and around 3,200 other employees, who together treat approximately 250,000 patients per year. Also, the firm had initiated a long-term change process in which it will transform from a traditional organisation into a network organisation, to be better able to meet current and future healthcare challenges. Medicorp characterises itself as a high-quality healthcare provider that continually searches for improvement and innovation, where professionalism, cooperation, education, and scientific research are central in its working environment. In addition, it strives to be an attractive employer in order to attract and retain the best employees, for example by adopting and applying state-of-the-art (medical) technologies. In accordance with the above, Medicorp’s vision and policy with regard to developmental HRM can be summarised into three pillars:

1. Offering wide development opportunities for employees in both internal and external settings.
2. Facilitating a working climate that focuses on education and research, with continuous educational possibilities for employees.
3. Stimulating pro-activity and flexibility among employees; they are expected to feel personally responsible for professional behaviour, expertise, and personal growth.

As point three already showed to some extent, Medicorp management took a particular interest in stimulating proactive, ambitious and entrepreneurialbehaviours among its employees, which are together referred to as ‘personal leadershipbehaviours’, because these were regarded as crucial prerequisites for meeting the current and future challenges emerging from Medicorp’s dynamic context. Such proactive employeebehaviours can be considered important in co-production and co-creation activities surrounding HRM as well (Meijerink et al., 2016), next to which they are likely to be influenced and stimulated by developmental HR services (Kuvaas, 2008), and by high-quality support of, and cooperation with line managers and HR specialists (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), making this theme fit well with the main topics of the current study. To some extent, thesebehaviours are even comparable to work engagement, which is used as a sub-variable to measure perceived HRM service quality in this research (see section 3.3.2). Therefore, personal leadership was also incorporated in the empirical investigation and consequent analysis of social structure modalities in the HR triad, as it provides another means through which the modalities that actors draw upon can be studied.

Medicorp was regarded as appropriate for collecting data that could answer the research question, as its many departments assured that differing social contexts could be examined, enabling the uncovering of certain trends throughout these contexts. To fit to the research goals and question of this study, Medicorp however also had to meet specific additional criteria. First of all, a certain HR triad should exist within the firm, in the sense that employees, line managers, and HR specialists should be well represented. Here, it was also of importance that there was sufficient and frequent interaction within this triad, as HR triad interaction is one of the main topics of this study. Next, as this study focuses on developmental HR practices, another criterion was that such practices were indeed frequently used at the research site. Lastly, it had to be assured that there would be variance in responses, so that differences could indeed be found and consequently explained, for example based on respondents’ function, expertise, age, ethnicity, or education. After checking with company documents and representatives, it was concluded that these criteria could all be met to a satisfactory degree.

The company’s employees were considered to be the main ‘cases’ under study, as the main aim of this research is to explain variance in employees’ HRM service value perceptions. However, the views of line managers and HR specialists were also crucial in effectively assessing HR triad interaction and congruence in social structure modalities, meaning that the overall group of respondents included a variety of employees, line managers, and HR specialists.

### 3.3 Data Collection Methods

Edmondson and McManus (2007) describe three general types of prior theory with regard to a specific research subject, being a body of literature that is nascent, intermediate, or mature. The state of prior theory and research relevant to this specific study can be considered as intermediate, as it draws from separate bodies of (established) literature that have only been marginally connected in contemporary research (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). After all, social structure is considered a well-manifested concept in social research (e.g. Orlükowski, 2000), while HRM (service) value for employees, although being a quite new concept in itself (Meijerink et al., 2016), is founded on an extensive body of marketing literature (e.g. Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Here, interaction is seen as a pivotal concept in value creation (Grönroos, 2008), while it is also inherently linked to structuration theory (e.g. Giddens, 1984). To some extent, structuration theory has already been conceptually linked to service value creation (e.g. Edvardsson et al., 2011; Vargo & Lusch, 2014), while this was only done marginally with regard to HRM service value for employees specifically (Meijerink, 2014). In conclusion, one can thus speak of an intermediate state of prior literature, as the links between the two main variables (i.e. social structure modalities and HRM service value creation) have been scarcely investigated in contemporary research, while they both hail from two well established streams
of literature.

Given the intermediate state of prior theory, it is likely that a mixed method approach resulting in a hybrid dataset (i.e. both quantitative and qualitative data) will yield the best results and insights. After all, some constructs can be measured quantitatively and qualitatively (i.e. HRM service value), while a sole qualitative approach is likely to better fit others (i.e. HR triad interaction and social structure), as is explained below. Eventually, a hybrid dataset would strengthen the reliability as well as the richness of the findings in this study, as the two data types can support and reinforce each other. Also, this again shows the appropriateness of a case study approach, since it enables the researcher to combine different kinds of data collection methods such as observations, interviews, surveys, and document analysis (Eisenhardt, 1989).

First of all, company documents that were made available (i.e. reports, policy documents, internal messages/newsletters etc.) were studied in order to better understand the company, its policies regarding (developmental) HR services, and any other subject that was deemed relevant to the goals of this research. Especially, such documents enabled exploration of the overall and more general context in which value-in-use creation took place. This analysis was not done to acquire data on any of the studied variables specifically, but more to create a fundament of background knowledge on the firm’s HRM policy that could be further used in the other data collection methods.

For HRM service value, a quantitative approach in the form of a survey was chosen as the data collection technique. HRM service value and concepts related to it have been used in a variety of studies, and it has also already been measured quantitatively (e.g. Meijerink et al., 2016). It is a concept that can be considered as ‘established’ and quite straightforward, while questions about it can be asked in a relatively simple and delineated fashion. Altogether, this justifies the use of a quantitative survey to acquire data on HRM service value. In addition, given the emergent nature of value-in-use, and to effectively make a link between social structure modalities, interaction, and HRM service value, the latter was also included in the questions that were used in the interviews that are discussed below.

For HR triad interaction and social structure, a sole qualitative approach in the form of semi-structured interviews was chosen. These concepts can be considered as largely implicit, meaning that for example a survey would not yield desirable results, as it does not enable the researcher to go in-depth. The use of follow-up questions and probing techniques is likely to be of critical importance if one wants to explore and explain social structure modalities and the interaction among individuals in any setting, as the content of these concepts is likely to differ extensively for differing respondents due to their differing backgrounds and positions in their specific context. This means that relevant question domains within these concepts are hard to establish beforehand, implying that formulating additional questions ‘on the go’ is a prerequisite for effectively exploring their content, as it enables the researcher to respond to emerging themes within interviews. Overall, semi-structured interviews “are well suited for the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding complex and sometimes sensitive issues, and [they] enable probing for more information and clarification of answers” (Barriball & White, 1994, p. 330).

Also, to add to the acquired data from the survey and semi-structured interviews, field notes were taken of informal conversations and observations that were deemed relevant for the purposes of this research.

3.3.1 Selection of Respondents

The initial survey on HRM service value was filled out by a convenience sample of 131 employees, who worked in eight different departments (response rate: 64.22%). Then, based on all HRM service value ratio scores (these will be explained in section 3.3.2.), employees with varying scores were approached for a semi-structured interview, so that the causes of the differences in HRM service value perceptions could be explored and analysed. The line managers of these employees, next to the HR specialists that supported their particular departments, were interviewed in a similar way. Selection of employees was done on the basis of purposeful sampling, as a variety of conditions had to be assured beforehand. First, it was required that employees with different value perceptions were approached, to safeguard variance in interview responses. In addition, interviews were held with employees that differed in their characteristics as much as possible, for example in terms of age, gender, job, and expertise, to acquire maximum variance in employee perceptions. Another criterion was that they worked for the firm for a period longer than two years, so that they had a reasonable amount of experience with HRM and their line managers at Medicorp, meaning that they would have substantive experiences on which they could base their perceptions. Lastly, it had to be assured that the respondents came from a different department, so that the corresponding HR specialists and line managers (who would be interviewed also) would differ for each interviewed employee. Through this, comparisons could be made between several mini-HR triads (i.e. one employee, one line manager, and one HR specialist who were linked to each other in day-to-day working life), and also between and within the different actor groups as a whole.

Eventually, eight representatives of each group were interviewed, adding up to a total interview amount of twenty-four. Given the findings of Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006), this can be seen as a sufficient amount of interviews to assure an acceptable degree of data saturation. As was already mentioned above, the study was designed in such a way that there was no overlap between the different HR triads in terms of interviewed respondents, as this enabled better comparability and distinctiveness of the different HR triads. The code names for all different respondents were composed out of their HR triad number (e.g. T1) and their function, being either employee (E), line manager (M), or HR specialist (H). For example, the interviewed employee from HR triad one, would be labelled as T1E, while the interviewed line manager from triad eight would be labelled as T8M.

Below, the operationalisation for every main concept that was used in this study is outlined.

3.3.2 HRM Service Value

To measure HRM service value as perceived by employees, a survey containing 5 point Likert-scale items on the subject was distributed among the specified group of employees. Following, Meijerink et al. (2016), the survey contained items on both the quality and non-monetary costs, or sacrifices, associated with HRM services.

The items on HRM service quality were derived from studies on three differing concepts that each reflect a distinct kind of quality that HRM services can deliver, being human capital, work engagement, and perceived organisational support. These three concepts respectively represent the abilities, motivations, and opportunities (AMO) that employees can acquire through making use of HR services, and it has been argued that employee interests are best served when these three aspects are well attended to by a firm’s HRM (Boselie, 2010). If so, this would lead to high HRM service quality perceptions by employees, as HR services then succeed in meeting employee
interests, or in other words, they would succeed in satisfying employee needs. In addition, these concepts are to a large degree generic in nature as they are not oriented towards the value of a specific HRM aspect (i.e. satisfaction with supervision, or the utility of specific trainings), meaning that they can better capture value-in-use creation in the way it was defined in this study (i.e. emergent, non-standard). This multifaceted approach was also chosen so that the quantitative data on HRM service value could provide more detailed and diverse results, eventually leading to richer findings when combining them with the data from the semi-structured interviews. Human capital, or in other words the “individual employee’s knowledge, skills, and abilities” (Youndt, Subramaniam, and Snell, 2004, p. 338), was measured by using an adapted version of the scale developed by Youndt et al. (2004). To measure work engagement, which is defined as “a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006, p. 702), an adapted version of the scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2006) was used. Lastiy, perceived organisational support was measured using the short version of the ‘Survey of Perceived Organisational Support’ (SPOS) (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997, as cited in Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), which was originally developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986). Generally, perceived organisational support is defined as an employee’s “global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501), and such organisational support is often expressed through providing employees with certain opportunities (e.g. autonomy, involvement in decision making, job enrichment/enlargement) (Boselie, 2010)).

With regard to the non-monetary costs of HR services, the scale developed by Meijerink et al. (2016) was used. This scale however focused on more transactional HR services such as personnel- and payroll-administration within HR shared service centres, meaning that it had to be adapted to better fit the measurement of developmental HR services that are delivered in-house. Eventually, the overall scale on HRM service value thus consisted of four parts, and all items can be found in appendix A.

To reach an eventual score on perceived HRM service value, a ratio was calculated between the overall average quality and costs. In deciding which employees were to be approached for an interview these ratios were used as a guideline, while the separate absolute value scores were also held in mind, to eventually assure that there were sufficient differences between the interviewed employees. Likewise, no strict cut-off point was chosen for the identification of low- and high-perceiving employees. Rather, the overall set of value scores was analysed for each employee, after which employees with relatively extreme scores, or with scores that were considered ‘out of the ordinary’, were approached for an interview, given that they were willing to do so.

Furthermore, questions on HRM service value were also included in the semi-structured interviews with line managers, HR specialists and employees themselves, to effectively link HRM service value, interaction, and social structure within those interviews. These semi structured interviews are outlined in more detail in section 3.3.3.

In addition to these content-oriented variables, a variety of control variables was added to provide insight in the demographics of respondents. These variables were especially added to allow for the selection of employees with differing backgrounds and positions, as it would enable more divergent perceptions among the interviewed employees. These were:

- gender (1 = male, 2 = female), age, highest completed education (1 = primary school, 2 = high school, 3 = secondary vocational education, 4 = higher vocational education, 5 = university), tenure, contract type (1 = temporary, 2 = permanent), and working hours.

3.3.3 HR Triad Interaction & Social Structure

Semi-structured interviews with low value perceiving employees, high value perceiving employees, and their corresponding HR specialists and line managers were executed to firstly gain insights into the interaction among, and the social structure modalities drawn upon by the different groups, but also to gain further understanding of their views and perceptions of HRM service value. Here, it was crucial that the sets of interviewed HR specialists, line managers and employees were indeed linked to each other in day-to-day life (i.e. not interviewing a line manager of department 1, and interviewing an employee of department 2 for HR triad 1), so that the relationships and interactions between them could be better investigated and analysed. Here, confidentiality was assured to respondents, as they could otherwise be inclined to withhold (parts of) their opinions. While the interview questions were largely self developed in order to fit to the current research, both company documents (e.g. about Medicorp’s HR vision, policy and services) and scientific literature (e.g. Ehrenhard, 2009, Bordarouk, Bos-Nehles & Hesselink, 2016) were used to inform their design. Appendix B shows the (sub)definitions that were used while designing the interview questions (i.e. the operationalisation table), whereas the questions themselves can be found in appendix C, D, and E (in Dutch). While these protocols were the basis for all interviews, they can be better characterised as general guides, because they were purposefully followed in a non-strict fashion to ensure flexibility and openness during interviews. This also means that not all displayed questions were asked (in the way that is shown), as this mainly depended on the course of the interview and the kinds of topics that would emerge.

The main approach used in all of the interviews was to ask respondents about their views on various HRM-related topics such as developmental HR practices and HR triad interaction in their firm. Then, especially through probing and follow-up questions, the goal was to ‘ease out’ statements that reflected the social structure modalities that respondents were drawing upon in their perceptions and behaviours. Examples of initial questions and follow up questions in this respect were:

- To explore employees’ value perceptions and interpretive schemes with regard to training: “What trainings do you receive? What do you expect from these services? What outcomes do these services actually yield?”
- To explore resources relevant for employees in HRM service usage: “What do you need from your line manager to effectively make use of these HR services? What do you provide by yourself to be able to make use of these HR services?”
- To explore relevant norms among line managers with regard to HR triad interaction: “For what purposes do you cooperate with your employees with regard to developmental HRM? What do you expect from them in this regard?”

All interviews could generally be characterised as open, largely informal conversations in that they did not follow a strict protocol, and each of them lasted for approximately one hour, amounting to a total time of twenty-four hours. Interviews were recorded to ease the transcription and analysis processes, for which permission from respondents was asked beforehand. The course of the interviews depended to a certain degree on the answers of current and previous respondents, as these often
contained new information. After an interview had taken place, recordings of these interviews were transcribed, and the resulting transcripts were always communicated to the respondents as a check up, in which they could mark inaccuracies or errors. In these e-mails, the respondent was also encouraged to provide further clarification and explanation if he or she would feel that it was needed.

Lastly, as was already mentioned before, informal conversations and observations were drawn upon to add to the data acquired from the survey and interviews, in that they could confirm, strengthen, and broaden the findings. Here, a variety of day-to-day occurrences were monitored and analysed, being for example HRM meetings, while regular informal conversations with organisational actors were also included in the overall analysis when deemed relevant.

3.4 Data analysis
Firstly, relevant company documents were read and analysed to gain an image of the overall context in which value-in-use was being created within Medicorp. Before the analysis of interviews, the obtained qualitative data was firstly categorised per HR triad. After all, it is proposed in this research that a specific social context has implications for the kind and degree of value that is being created, meaning that data should be analysed and categorised per context (i.e. per HR triad). Then, interview transcripts and field notes were analysed, and statements that reflected social structure modalities and respondents’ perceptions or behaviours towards (developmental) HR services, HR triad interaction, and HRM service value were labelled accordingly. This process entailed a mixture of open and closed coding, in which six initial closed categories were used as the basis for all eventual codes, being value-in-use creation, value-in-use co-creation, service co-production (i.e. ‘inter(actions)’, interpretive schemes, resources, and norms (i.e. ‘modalities’)). Examples of such codes were:

- ‘ValueInUse_Training_Competence’
- ‘ValueCoCrea_Appraisal_Voicing’
- ‘ServiceCoProd_Training’
- ‘IntScheme_WorkTasks_Challenges’
- ‘Resource_Training_Time’
- ‘Norm_Training_Participation’

Afterwards, the collection of coded statements was re-analysed to identify common categories and patterns among them. What followed was a comparison between HR triads, to see in what way different modality configurations were corresponding with differing HRM service value ratings and perceptions of employees. The main focus here was to identify how the interaction between modalities of different HR triad actors played a role in the kind and extent of value-in-use that was created for and by employees eventually.

Lastly, the quantitative survey was not subject to extensive statistical analysis, since it was mainly a means for identifying employees with differing perceptions and for providing initial information on the value perceptions among interviewed employees, as was explained before.

3.5 Reliability and Trustworthiness
During the development of research methodology, the survey and various interview protocols were communicated to, and discussed with both the first supervisor of this project and various representatives of the HRM department at Medicorp. The survey was also tested through a pilot, in which an employee filled out the survey while the researcher was physically present. This was done so that problems or questions that emerged could be tackled immediately, which eventually led to small adaptations of the survey to better fit the research context (i.e. Medicorp). In addition, interviews were also practiced with the first supervisor, which led to some insights on how to execute interviews practically, for example with regard to how questions could be posed to acquire responses that would reflect the variables of interest. Overall, the above activities contributed to the reliability of research instruments, as they were agreed-upon by multiple actors ranging from different backgrounds.

With regard to the trustworthiness of data, interview transcripts were always communicated with respondents, as was mentioned before, to assure that the transcribed statements actually reflected their view and perceptions on the discussed matters. Occasionally, this led to small adaptations of transcripts, while a large portion of respondents approved the original transcripts. Here, another portion of interviewees did not respond to the e-mail about the interview transcripts, through which it was assumed that they had no remarks whatsoever. In addition, various interview transcripts were (partially) discussed with, or reviewed by the first supervisor, which was also done with any preliminary results and findings, in order to improve the trustworthiness of reached conclusions.

4. RESULTS
In this section, the results of the research within Medicorp are reported. Here, the kinds of, and ways wherein value-in-use is created or co-created by HR triad actors are discussed, in which focus especially lies on HRM service value creation processes from an employee point of view. In this, it is shown how the configurations of social structure modalities that actors were drawing upon had an influence on the kind of value being created by them. This implies that HRM is mainly approached through a practice perspective, meaning that attention was particularly paid to the actual enactment of developmental HR services within Medicorp’s departments. First, the survey results are discussed, after which general findings regarding developmental HRM at Medicorp are presented. In this, the types of social structure modalities that were found relevant for HRM service value creation are outlined to provide the context for the following results. Then, the different ways in which value-in-use was (co-)created through developmental HR services are discussed, eventually showing how social structure modalities played a role in the extent and type of HRM service value creation among employees within Medicorp.

4.1 Survey Results
The main purpose of the survey on HRM service value was to identify employees with both high and low service scores, through which employees with differing perceptions on HRM service value could be approached for an interview. Additionally, it provided insight in the differing demographics and work contexts of employees, through which variance in interview responses could be better safeguarded. On the next page, in table 1, the descriptive statistics of the used variables are provided, while table 2 shows the individual value scores of the interviewed employees. As can be seen in the latter table, it was made sure that employees with varying backgrounds were interviewed, and eventually four ‘low perceiving’ and four ‘high perceiving’ employees were approached for an interview. Here, 45,80% of the surveyed employees indicated that they were willing to participate in an interview, meaning that the pool of potential interview respondents was much smaller than the initial survey sample. While being a good instrument for respondent selection and variance assurance, further analysis showed that making a link between the above survey scores and specific configurations of social structure modalities did not lead to substantive and tenable conclusions that enriched the study’s findings in a significant way, meaning that only qualitative data was used in reaching conclusions eventually.
4.2 Medicorp’s Overall Context for Value-In-Use Creation

With regard to developmental HRM, the HRM department of Medicorp appeared not to be involved directly in employee level HRM service value creation processes in a structural and frequent way. Interviews revealed that it was mainly line managers, employees themselves, or a cooperation between the two that accounted for the creation of employee value, while service development and co-production on these levels was not unusual too. HR specialists only interacted with employees when it came to exceptional situations, for example in cases of regular or long-lasting absenteeism, dysfunctional behaviours, requests for career advice, specific questions, recruitment processes, or custom development programs for certain departments. Furthermore, all interviewed employees had no or superficial experiences with HRM representatives, and when discussing their image of the department’s functions, employees saw HR’s role as a facilitating one that was for example concerned with working conditions, salary, recruitment, contracts, legislation, absenteeism, and information provision, while some employees also had the view that HR specialists would come into play “when there is something wrong or out of the ordinary”. A HR specialist (T4H) argued in line with this, by summarising HR and its goal as follows:

“I think it is okay that employees do not have much contact with us, I don’t think that is a task of the HRM department. ... So it is not the intention that I am in the spotlights, I have to work behind the scenes and as discrete as possible, in which I hope to influence the interaction between line managers and employees through a detox. ... And I can see that it has an effect in for example absenteeism figures of departments that I’ve paid particular attention to, but also in the growth and development of line managers. ... I think the goal is that people are good at their jobs, and that they enjoy them. And do we as HRM department personally take care of that? No, that would be too scenic, but we do have an influence on the carefulness and diligence of the employer.”

With regard to developmental HR services, which are a focal point of this study, employees indicated that their line manager was the prime actor with whom there was interaction, for example through facilitating trainings, having appraisal talks, or discussing and enabling development options, while employees themselves also regularly took responsibility for realising developmental HR services, as will be explained in the next sections.

Thus, HR specialists generally stood quite far from the work floor as they had little direct contact with employees, while all of them also regarded line managers as their main customers. In this respect, they acted as a guiding actor for line managers, in which these relationships were mainly based on the varying amounts of line manager demand for HRM advice and accompaniment. The most common subjects for which line managers searched consult from HR specialists were general advice and coaching with regard to HRM, recruitment and selection, absenteeism, and the discussion and handling of specific cases within departments, while assistance also regularly took responsibility for realising developmental HR services, as will be explained in the next sections.

Overall, one can speak of a highly devolved HRM system within Medicorp, as interviews and documents revealed that many HRM responsibilities, being both transactional and transformational ones, were deliberately placed and organised within the line. HR specialists acknowledged that the tasks of line managers were both divergent and extensive in nature, which, according to them, could have negative implications for
the development and support provided to employees within departments, as a HR specialist argued (T3H):

“I think that our operational line managers have a lot on their plate, in a way that they are happy if they can leave for home at a normal time after a working day. ... One manager has a more coaching leadership style than the other, but their tasks are quite extensive, and we try to make them aware of what they are doing all day, because if they want, they can be busy with ad hoc matters all day. But are you then paying attention to where you want to go with your department? Well, not always. ... What is your goal, where do you place accents, what is your ‘greater good’ in the end? What you see is that many line managers are mainly consumed by daily issues.”

In this respect, line managers indeed confirmed that they were responsible for many areas of work, being for example HRM, while some also stressed that they had only a limited expertise on such subjects. This also shows the origin of line managers’ need for HRM support, or support from staff departments in general, although interviews revealed that line managers very much differed in their need for HRM assistance, implying differing degrees of HRM expertise among them. Also, while HR specialists appeared to contribute little to HRM service value creation in a direct sense, the above quote again shows that they still had an indirect role to play. In this, they tried to coach and facilitate managers in formulating their own department-oriented vision and policy, while also guiding them in finding their way between the interests of employees on the one hand, and those of Medicorp on the other. This was especially underlined by another HR specialist (T7M) while discussing the limited and sometimes negative view that employees had of the HRM department:

“Good advertising is never wrong, so we should show what we do for employees, and we also try to do so. But on the other hand, I think, well, in a football game, you don’t see the referee when he is doing a good job, and I think that also applies for a HRM department. So, what we do doesn’t always have to be that clear.”

Next to varying needs for HRM assistance among interviewed line managers, they also varied in the extent to which they found themselves capable of paying attention to developmental HR services and employee value creation, and they put forward varying reasons for why this was the case. Examples here were their own view on (personnel) management and employee development, the resources that they were provided with (e.g. mainly budget or time), and above all the characteristics of their departments, being for example the type of work or the size of their workforce, but also the willingness and need among their employees to create HRM service value and to make contributions themselves. Thus, the actual enactment of developmental HRM and employee value creation within Medicorp varied heavily with the positions and attitudes of both line managers and employees, as will be further explained in the below sections on value-in-use (co-)creation at the employee level.

Now, the two main HR service sets that were studied, being training and development, and appraisal and work floor support, are discussed in a more general sense, in which particular attention is paid to the types of social structure modalities that played a role in the context of Medicorp.

4.2.1 Training and Development

In its long-term policy vision, Medicorp aimed at attaining a top clinical status, which implied that education and training were high on its agenda in terms of the development and maintenance of high-quality medical expertise. Here, the organisation argued that it offered wide and continuous development options to its employees, while constantly working on a development-oriented working climate throughout the hospital. In return, Medicorp expected employees to have a proactive and flexible attitude towards change, while also underlining the importance of employees’ personal responsibility in realising their own professional competence, expertise and development. This approach can be considered a consequence of Medicorp’s intended standard with regard to the employee-employer relationship (EER), as it aspired to shape this relationship in such a way that both employer and employee were taking responsibility in ensuring successful and sustainable employment oriented at high quality care for patients. Here, interviews with HR specialists and line managers revealed that this standard had not been the status quo in the past, meaning that employees generally were used to having a rather passive position, while it was mainly the employer who took responsibility in ensuring compliance and competence. However, nowadays, a more interactive EER was required by Medicorp, as the firm envisioned that a shared responsibility was key in taking on current and future healthcare challenges. In this regard, HR specialists recognised that the shift towards employee ownership and awareness was still very much underway, implying that this new behavioural standard was not yet fully realised throughout the workforce and departments of Medicorp. In this, an HR specialist (T6H) placed a critical footnote, as she stated:

“Lifelong learning is our principle at Medicorp, and I think that we train and educate a lot, but I don’t think we do it too much, as I actually think we have to do this a lot more. ... So we consider it normal within this organisation that people learn, and we also emphasise this. Really like that. However, we, being the higher levels of the organisation, insufficiently communicate this principle and the means we provide to do so to the individual employee, while we also lack in expressing that employee initiatives therein are supported warmly.”

This HR specialist thus argued that, while a segment of Medicorp’s employees still had to catch up with the established behavioural norms of Medicorp, the firm also could do more to stimulate desired behaviours and to enable employees in meeting the newly set norms. In other words, HRM in practice was not always congruent with the intended HRM of the hospital, while its overall vision was not structurally articulated in concrete initiatives that were visible for employees within their departments.

When looking at the investigated departments, interviews revealed that the policies and practice of training and development largely differed between these departments, both in terms of the trainings that were being provided as with regard to the role that employees themselves assumed in it. Here, participation in various trainings was mandatory for all employees who stood in direct contact with hospital patients, and these were aimed at general healthcare skills such as reanimation, hospitality, and dealing with aggression. With regard to such items, another staff department of Medicorp, being their ‘hospital school’, usually was responsible for policy, coordination and oversight, while it also played a supportive function for departments and their line managers with regard to other training initiatives. Responsibility for such initiatives, and thus for developing and maintaining professional competence, was however largely placed at departments or even employees individually, meaning that they were expected to give shape to such activities themselves. Following this, and in accordance with the high degree of devolvement within the firm, departments
within Medicorp could to some extent be characterised as separate ‘companies’, as interviews revealed that employees’ perceptions were mainly based on a department or profession group level perspective, while departments were to a large degree independent in their operations also. In addition, HR specialists argued that a department’s welfare in terms of developmental HRM was predominantly linked to the management style and capability of its line manager, and the degree to which its employees took personal responsibility in their own development.

As enactment of training and development varied between investigated departments, varying training-oriented norms were applied in the these departments too. Within a large portion of departments it was common practice that employees had to attain certain ‘training credits’ to retain their quality registration, which could be based on either departmental norms or norms related to their specific profession, and responsibility to maintain such a ‘passport’ was mainly placed at employees themselves. In addition, various departments had set up their own norms and consequent internal training systems to assure professional competence and development, whereas some interviewees also indicated a lack of structural trainings within their departments, thus implying an absence of visible norms in that respect. When present, such norms implied that various obligatory but also voluntary job-specific trainings would be offered in addition to the standard obligatory items that were discussed above, and in such cases departments often organised all obligatory items together in certain training days or sessions.

Furthermore, interviews revealed that employees’ interpretive schemes towards their employment identity differed, which informed their attitude and actions towards training and learning initiatives. Here, the way in which employees framed their employment identity was found to be an antecedent of their perceived development need, which consequently caused them to differ in their own behaviours towards development, in their perception of training-oriented norms, and in their expectations and perceptions towards their employer in this respect. Most importantly, such frames provided employees with different motives for participating in trainings and development activities, causing them to (co-)create value-in-use in different ways and proportions. Here, interviews revealed that a portion of Medicorp’s employees were well aware of their own responsibility and the importance of development, causing them to be proactive and embracing towards initiatives aimed at stimulating it, while others were quite conservative in the view of their job, meaning that they were hesitant towards new developments and activities, which caused them to be passive and to engage in compliance behaviours when norms were imposed. Generally, these two types of frames were the two extremes of a continuous scale, on which every employee of Medicorp could be placed.

In the same vein, interviewed line managers argued that they attached importance to the development of their employees, in which some mainly prioritised professional competence, whereas others also had the idea that it was a prominent way to engage and challenge employees. Here, line managers had differing experiences with the degree to which employees also showed responsibility and willingness towards progressing their own development, which according to them could be especially traced back to employees’ awareness of their own responsibility in the EER and the extent to which these employees saw development as a means to stay up-to-date within their job (i.e. the aforementioned employment identity frames). Also, the means or resources available to employees and especially line managers influenced the way in which training and development was enacted within departments, as interviews revealed that the degree to which time and mainly budget was available inhibited or enabled employees as well as line managers in reaching desired outcomes. Here, interviews revealed that in a majority of departments, training budgets were almost completely swallowed up by obligatory job-specific trainings, meaning that there was little left for additional activities, while some interviewees also argued that certain employee groups were underexposed in terms of the trainings that they received. In addition, employee attitudes towards training also largely varied with the degree to which these could be followed in working time, as they were not always prepared to take responsibility for their development by sacrificing their own free time.

Overall, the training and development context of Medicorp was thus characterised by varying amounts and types of relevant norms and available resources within departments (i.e. the amount and extensiveness of value propositions and accompanying value potential), in which the adopted employment identities of employees had a major influence on the extent and type of value that was eventually created.

4.2.2 Appraisal and Work Floor Support

With regard to appraisal within Medicorp, the most prominent HR service was the ‘yearly interview’, and in a broader sense also the more regular and informal dialogue with line management. The yearly interview at Medicorp was not designed in a traditional way, as it was not aimed at discussing and assessing employee performance in particular. In various cases, this would also not be possible due to the fact that line managers did not always have substantive expertise on the jobs that their employees were performing, meaning that they lacked an essential resource that was required for appraising employees effectively. The talk instead placed more emphasis on employees’ current work experiences and their needs with regard to their development and future, in which it was considered important by HR specialists that employee and line manager would co-produce the service, meaning that they both would participate in a proactive way. Also, the yearly talk provided opportunity to discuss some general and practical matters, like leave hours and working conditions. Whereas it was made mandatory through collective labour agreements (i.e. a norm), HR specialists argued that line managers did not always execute the yearly interviews as intended, while they also perceived that these talks were sometimes not held at all due to perceived time constraints among line managers. To stimulate usage, the HRM department had offered various tools which line managers could use to properly execute these yearly interviews, while HR also encouraged them to take freedom in shaping these talks around the predetermined topics in ways that they deemed best fitting.

Interviews revealed that interpretive schemes about the yearly interview differed to a certain degree, as some interviewees attached more value to discussing matters informally and directly, while others saw the yearly interview as a useful means to discuss topics that were quickly overlooked in day to day working life. Here, a few interviewees argued that the yearly interview and the accompanying forms were an abstract, formal, and far-fetched representation of something that could also be done regularly and more informally on the work floor, and interviews with HR specialists and line managers also revealed that a segment of employees were reluctant towards the yearly interview. In this regard a HR specialist (T6H) argued:

“Some employees subject themselves to it. Some have a yearly interview, and they behave like a lamb that is led to slaughter, while I think; ‘it is about you, it is the intention that you start the discussion on what your ambitions and wishes are’.” ... When I look around, I see a growing amount of employees, and
particular higher educated nursing staff, as there is a difference in that respect, who think it is completely normal to discuss their own development. I think that is beautiful, I think that is a very good development."

Thus, for the formerly mentioned employees the motive to participate was merely to comply to the norm that was attached to the yearly interview, whereas others viewed it as a means to communicate and discuss how they wanted to invest in themselves and their employability, leading to differing types and degrees of perceived value among them. Overall, most interviewees argued that the yearly interview was a useful moment on top of the more regular work floor interaction, as it enabled them to put things in perspective, while also being able to discuss matters in a more structural way together. Here, they argued that the yearly talk was not necessarily a moment to discuss urgent or impactful matters, as these were often already discussed in the day-to-day interaction on the work floor. This was for example underlined by a line manager (T4M), who stated:

"See, I do not wait until a yearly interview when something is going on, but it enables you to look back, to look forward, to see what you can do for an employee. And not with the phone, and not in a casual way, as usually it is always 'busy, busy, busy'. So you really sit together and I think that is a very valuable moment, also for the employee. And they know, if there is something else, they also wouldn’t wait for the yearly interview, that would be insane."

When compared to training and development, this HR service was furthermore subject to less resource restrictions as it only required a certain amount of time from participants, although it could on the other hand be a gateway for them to acquire new resources. Here, line managers could for example gain insights on the demands and work experiences of employees, while employees could voice their concerns and needs, possibly leading to the formulation of agreements that could satisfy these needs, and consequently, lead to value-in-use (co-)creation. Whereas some formalities and mandatory items had to be discussed in the yearly interview, the talk was mainly aimed at giving employees the opportunity to openly discuss how they felt at work, given that the talk was executed in the intended way, and that employees were willing and able to make a proactive contribution to it themselves. In this sense, the interpretive schemes of employees and line managers towards the yearly interview thus largely influenced the kind of value-in-use that would eventually be co-created through it.

Now, the various ways in which employees (co-)created value in use through HR services are discussed, in which it is also outlined how social structure modalities influenced this process.

4.3 Training and Development

4.3.1 Competence for Delivering High Quality Work

A prominent way in which interviewed employees created value-in-use through training and development services at Medicorp was because they wanted to maintain and renew the human capital that was needed to successfully perform their job. In other words, they were intrinsically motivated to stay competent for delivering high quality work and healthcare. While often being obliged to follow trainings, the interviewed employees generally acknowledged the usefulness of such trainings for the execution of their jobs, although some argued that this to a certain extent depended on the content of these trainings. With regard to the ‘training credits’, responsibility was mainly placed at employees themselves, which thus also allowed them to choose the courses or activities that they valued the most. As an employee (T2E) commented on training and development within his department:

“If you want to go somewhere, it is always possible, that is not a problem within our department. ... Also, there is a list on which you can enrol, and if you don’t want, or you don’t find it interesting, then you don’t have to go. There are a few obligatory items though, everyone has to go there, but everything else is up to you. However, you have to acquire your credits at the end of the year to assure that you are working on your development. It is a pity that it has to be done through these credits, but now people at least go somewhere, as some would go nowhere otherwise, I am 100% sure about that. ... I myself do not really go for these points, I’d rather have the information that is shared. I understand that the credits are needed to let people show where they have been, but I am more interested in the subjects of such activities."

This employee viewed trainings as useful, as his main interpretive scheme towards participation in such trainings was to gain knowledge that could help him in staying competent. However, employee perceptions towards trainings apparently differed within the department, since not all employees saw value in activities that could contribute to acquiring and maintaining human capital in their job; their main interpretive scheme was that they were not in need of the content that was offered during such activities. For these employees, the main reason to follow such trainings was basically to comply to the ‘training credits’ norm which was imposed onto them, implying that their motivation was extrinsic rather than intrinsic. In this sense, these employees thus created little value-in-use for themselves, as they did not participate out of a need to develop their human capital. On this matter, the line manager of the same department (T2M) made a similar argument, in which she expressed that such obligatory trainings (i.e. norms) could also be a means to change employee perceptions towards human capital development on the long term:

“My view is ‘lifelong learning’, and you can try to stimulate that, but if employees are not inclined to do so, so be it. What I however do demand from them is that they stay competent within their expertise, for which there is this quality registration, ... One half likes it, the other half thinks it is nonsense. However, no discussion is possible about it anymore. ... One will be participating in a symposium in an interested way, and the other will not. And I hope that the uninterested one will someday find a symposium that he likes, in which he joins and where he might learn something. And there are actually people from whom I know that they did not want to go, but who after all went and came back with an enthusiastic attitude.”

As can be seen in the above, the views of the interviewed employee and line manager were similar in that they both valued learning, and as the line manager also put this view into practice by setting training-oriented norms and making resources available, the employee felt supported in maintaining and acquiring the human capital that he deemed relevant for executing his profession. On the other hand, this norm was set in place to assure that all employees, and in this regard especially those who did not have such a view on trainings, would at least do something to remain competent for their jobs.

Moreover, perceptions on learning-oriented norms differed across the hospital, as both employees and line managers from various other departments argued that...
employees were very self-reliant in acquiring sufficient training credits, and also in participating in, seeking out, or even organising training activities. According to line managers and HR specialists, the cause of such differences could mainly be found in the education level and age of employees, their intrinsic motivation and engagement towards developing their work and expertise, and consequently the degree to which they were aware of their own responsibility in the EER. In this sense, a rough distinction could be made between employees who identified themselves as ‘transactional workers’, being those employees that had little orientation towards their future development and also limited awareness towards their own responsibility in the EER, and ‘engaged professionals’, being those who were proactive and self-reliant in anticipating change and in assuring their competence for the jobs to which they were dedicated. These two work identities can be considered as two ends of a continuum rather than a dichotomy, as employees could vary in the degrees to which they strictly identified themselves as one of the two. For example, interviews showed that there were also employees who put high interest in providing high quality care, but who were not motivated to ‘go the extra mile’ in this respect, meaning that they were hesitant to use their own resources (i.e. time, money) to stimulate their own development. When looking at Medicorp’s intentions towards how the EER should be shaped, these two extremes of interpretive schemes also largely represented the employee attitudes that it wanted to change and the attitudes that it aspired for the future respectively. Here, a HR specialist (T3H) also effectively summarised the variance in employee attitudes:

“There are groups that are very ambitious, who very much want to follow trainings and education programs. However, I think that there are also groups who say: “I don’t need that, I preferably do what I do now, and I want to keep doing so for the next twenty years. I don’t want any changes and I want that it stays the way it is, I think it is fine this way”.

Here, a line manager (T6M) also argued that the degree to which employees were enabled to follow obligatory trainings within working time determined their motivation to follow such trainings, which could however not always be realised as she also had to deal with restrictions in terms of scheduling. This meant that employees sometimes had to ‘come back’ for certain trainings, which she argued to be detrimental for the attitude with which employees participated in such trainings. Next to this, she also argued that the way in which trainings were communicated could make a large difference in employee perceptions:

“It also comes down to how intrinsic it gets with an employee. When training is communicated to them in ways that make them see that it can be useful for improving healthcare within their department, I think their motivation is good. However, when they do not see the added value in a tangible way, I think they will simply go because they have to.”

Thus, providing employees with the time to participate in trainings and making them aware of the need for development could realise quite profound changes in their attitude towards trainings and development activities. As was argued above, these employees were not willing to ‘go the extra mile’ for their own development, although they saw use in such activities when it was communicated and provided to them in a way that they deemed attractive and appealing.

For engaged professionals, it was however a shared belief that continuous development was an essential part of working life, while gaining and maintaining human capital was considered as a prerequisite for staying competent in successfully performing a profession. Interviews showed that, within such engaged departments or function groups, a collective expectation (i.e. norm) was established, which implied that employees took their own responsibility in developing human capital, while these employees in turn expected a facilitating, enabling and stimulating attitude from their line managers, making the development of human capital a shared responsibility in the end. This was for example stated by an employee (T3E), who commented on training and development activities as follows:

“It absolutely has added value, because it offers a refreshment of knowledge that you have to possess ... and it also causes us to take a step back and look at things from a different perspective, which enables us to be innovative and to provide the best care. ... I think that, within our department, it is also expected from us that we keep up and that we develop ourselves. We are for example stimulated to stay up-to-date in terms of professional literature.”

The above quote shows that this employee attached importance to gaining and maintaining human capital to stay competent, while possibilities to do so were versatile in her opinion. In conjunction with such departmental norms, these engaged professionals, who often showed a high allegiance towards their specific profession, also attached importance to developments within their overall field of expertise, meaning that they also had an outward orientation. In this, it was common practice that they were inclined to adhere to norms and initiatives that came from outside the hospital, as the same employee argued:

“If we miss something, we as a team are well able to articulate this, in that we together say: “this could also be something for us”. For example if we have read something, as most of us are member of a professional magazine that also has an attachment especially for child care. And if we read certain things in there, new ideas or new insights, such things are then also implemented in our department.”

Overall, she underlined that, when a need for certain knowledge arose on the work floor, initiatives and suggestions for human capital development also came from employees themselves. Here, the line manager of the same department (T3M) indeed argued that employees were well aware of what they needed, and that they, in congruence with what she expected from them, often took responsibility in staying competent professionally, while also assuming a proactive role in making sure that their needs were fulfilled, for example through voicing their needs or through organising certain activities themselves:

“If they want a clinical lesson about something, well, if they can organise it themselves I am fine with it, and if I have to do something for it, then I do something for it. So it also comes from employees themselves, which needs they have. If they have heard about a course or symposium in which they are interested, they often come to me, and if I receive information about such things from other parties, I usually communicate it to them. ... So yes, there is an interaction in that respect.”

Thus, in this department it was common practice that training services were co-produced by line management and employees, which led to co-creation of value in optimal ways as employees themselves were often at the foundation of such services, meaning that their needs were converted into services that also satisfied these needs. Moreover, when particular employees would follow a more extensive training program on a certain
subject, this line manager also expected them to spread the gained knowledge throughout the department to stimulate human capital development among all employees. In this sense, these employees would thus also change their frame of their employment identity, as they took on more responsibilities in educating fellow employees. In this respect, the line manager (T3M) stated:

“If employees have a certain need or interest, it can well be that something flows out of it, for example that they follow a training somewhere, or that they specialise themselves more, or that they involve their colleagues in the content of these trainings. ... And from these people I also expect a contribution, which is always discussed beforehand. ... So employees who have followed such trainings use these to consequently educate their colleagues.”

This was also experienced by the aforementioned employee, who perceived this employee involvement in training and education as very useful, as it better enabled her to meet her needs with regard to gaining and maintaining knowledge, skills, and abilities that were required to stay competent and be successful in performing her profession. Thus, within this department, interpretive schemes among the employee and line manager were similar, meaning that they agreed upon the importance of trainings and the role that employees themselves had to fulfil in it, while the resources of both of them complemented each other in shaping HRM practice, eventually causing value-in-use to be co-created in an optimal way.

When looking at all investigated departments, interviews showed that the degree to which trainings or courses were organised or offered differed largely per department. Some of the interviewed employees received very little training or any related activities apart from obligatory trainings concerning general skills. In this respect, interviews revealed that although the interpretive schemes of these specific employees and line managers did not differ substantially in most cases, meaning that they both attributed importance to developing and maintaining human capital, a lack of resources on the part of line managers inhibited such growth. For example, some line managers felt that they did not receive enough options or budget from the organisation to offer their employees the trainings that they actually deemed necessary. As a line manager (T4M) argued:

“Nowadays, medical secretaries have to have very specific knowledge of the field of expertise for which they work, doctors also specialise further, and if you don’t have that knowledge, it can very easily happen that the wrong patient ends up at the wrong doctor. Thus, for medical secretaries I would like to see something more, yes. ... There is an annual symposium for medical secretaries, and every year [only] two of them are allowed to go there as I don’t have a large training budget, and well, we have to do it with what we have. ... I think that if we would internally organise more trainings for them, they would make use of it, yes, although you have to bring it to them, they do not take initiative themselves.”

As the last line indicates, this line manager also acknowledged that most medical secretaries in her department were generally not proactive in voicing their development needs if they would have any. She argued that this was caused by a multitude of factors, including work overloads due to forced downsizing, a large amount of part-time employees, a high average age, and, related to the latter two, a generally high degree of job satisfaction and work-life balance among medical secretaries. In this sense, interviews thus showed that, when employees feel comfortable and competent within their current tasks and responsibilities, there is not always a significant need for human capital oriented value creation among them. In other words, these employees could be characterised as largely having a ‘transactional worker’ identity, as they expressed little orientation and anticipation towards their development and the future of their profession, while being satisfied with the present situation. Here, the line manager (T4M) also made a similar statement:

“Another manager recently said: “Yes, they are the mortgage secretaries; they come, they go, they do their thing, they go home, and then there’s something else” ... They are engaged in their job, but that’s it, that is enough for them.”

Whereas in this department employees generally did not perceive an extensive mismatch between what they needed and what they were offered, such discrepancies did occur in other departments. Here, a line manager (T5M) who supervised a large and a small department argued that organising regular and extensive trainings for the larger department was not an issue, while this was much more the case for the smaller one due to its size, as he noted:

“Yes, here we have very little training, at least no education days or monthly clinical lessons, and then we try to do it more in the form of symposia or otherwise. This is because the team here is very small, meaning that I can’t organise specific education days for them. ... I understand that employees miss this, but I don’t yet know how to organise it, as there are people who can give a training, but not for only a few employees.”

This mismatch and a subsequent disappointment was indeed experienced by the interviewed employee from this department (T5E), who argued:

“There are a few mandatory trainings for general skills, but that’s basically it. We want to educate further, but we really have to beg to get things done, because then the budget is depleted, or something isn’t possible. So that makes me think, how should we actually attain our knowledge? ... And if I look at other departments, I see that they can do a lot more, and why is it then that we can’t? In that respect it seems that Medicorp is applying two different standards, and I think that is strange.”

Consequently, the above situation caused this employee to proactively search for internal and external opportunities to assure that her development needs were, at least partially, served, implying that she framed herself as an ‘engaged professional’. Here, the fact that she perceived ambiguous organisational messages and norms in terms of development did not stop her from finding ways to retain and acquire human capital, as she was intrinsically motivated to maintain her abilities in providing high quality healthcare. While regularly voicing her viewpoint to her line manager, which was in most cases without a tangible result, she also reached out to the HRM department and consequently the ‘hospital school’ to explore possibilities for her professional development. In addition, she voluntarily maintained a membership of a professional association for nurses, meaning that she also had to acquire certain ‘training credits’ over a given period. Again, she argued that this could not be realised extensively within the internal setting of the hospital, meaning that she also participated in external activities to eventually satisfy her needs for human capital development within her job, be it at her own costs. Thus, because she framed herself as an ‘engaged professional’, a perceived lack of provided resources caused her to use her own
resources in order to create value-in-use towards her development as a healthcare professional in the best way possible.

In two other departments, a similar situation had presented itself in the past, meaning that no substantial or regular training was offered to employees, apart from some occasional items and the standard and obligatory items about general skills. Here however, employees themselves had taken collective initiative in setting up trainings, for example through creating a work group which upheld contacts with suppliers, while others had set up a custom-made training program which was designed in such a way that it fitted the specific development needs of their department, as was argued by an employee (T6E):

“With regard to actually performing your job, there isn’t much, nothing actually, so that is why we gave content to it ourselves. In this respect, we organise a yearly education day and quarterly refresher courses in which we invite speakers to discuss topics that we also bring up ourselves. In this, Medicorp doesn’t facilitate anything, we do it all ourselves, in our own time. ... Only the costs are paid through our training budget, in which we get facilitated by our line manager, as she is in favour of personal development.”

This was also indeed underlined by the accompanying line manager of the department (T6E), who encouraged employee initiatives and personal development, while being an advocate of empowerment and employee responsibility in the EER. With regard to developing people, she stated:

“I want to stimulate it very much, and my education work group, we organise our own education, also our own yearly professional competence training so to speak. ... I like it, really, coaching, development, leadership, to get the best out people. Yes, that is actually, I think that is what you do it for. And employees will then also emanate it to patients; when you invest in that, it will eventually reach the patient in the best way.”

Thus, as the employees and line manager were in agreement on the importance of human capital development to stay competent, they together co-produced trainings that eventually led to a co-creation of value-in-use. The above also shows that employee agency in the development and realisation of trainings has the advantage that their needs are well represented in the actual training activities, leading to value creation in an optimal way. Here, a stimulating and facilitating attitude of line managers can be considered as an enabling factor, more so because they often have more means at their disposal for realising such initiatives.

On the downside, in some of the above discussed cases the employer firstly had to come short in offering trainings to employees before they took action themselves, which can have implications for employee perceptions of their employer in a broader sense. This was effectively summarised by the aforementioned employee (T6E), who took pride-of-ownership in the self-developed trainings, while also underlining the shortcomings of his employer in it:

“Medicorp did not contribute to this, nor did they kick-start it, the only thing they do is pay the bill. Apart from that, they don’t have anything to do with it, but eventually they do end up with better qualified personnel. ... On the one hand I think that is a pity, but on the other hand I think, we did it ourselves, we gave content to it ourselves, and we can also determine by ourselves how we want it. They cannot take this from us anymore, as it is digitally recorded, and we see it a bit as our flagship so to speak.”

Thus, in this regard, interviews revealed that when there is a perceived mismatch between employees’ development needs and the offered opportunities, they are able to arrange alternatives themselves, although this depends on factors like the intrinsic motivation of employees to do so (i.e. the extent to which they identify themselves as ‘engaged professionals’), their willingness to also use their own resources, and the degree to which they are enabled in it by their line managers, or in a more general sense, by their employer, in terms of resources and support.

4.3.2 Competence for Career Development

Whereas most human capital development initiatives at Medicorp were aimed at employees’ competence in their current functions, some employees also negotiated what might be called an individually tailored deal with their line managers to shape their human capital development in a certain way. These ways of creating value-in-use were not part of the more collectively fashioned trainings around general skills and professional competence, but instead had the goal to provide employees with additional human capital which could enable them to open up more career opportunities. However, such deals were not part of everyday business, as interviews revealed that a large portion of the employees within Medicorp were content with their current jobs, while such initiatives also required more preparation and consideration due to their tailored nature, larger resource requirement, and larger potential impact. With regard to the former, a line manager (T3M) for example argued:

“I think it is inherent to the department, you know, people already have chosen a certain direction when they work in child care. You have specialised in the nursing of children, and often people are satisfied with doing that. For them this was so to speak the goal that they had in mind while starting somewhere in healthcare.”

Here, the interview with the employee from the same department (T3E) revealed a similar view, as she argued that she had done a specialised education to eventually end up at the child care unit. Now, she was both engaged and satisfied in her current job, in which the main goal was to keep providing the best care for ill children (i.e. an ‘engaged professional’). Thus, in this department no significant attention was placed on career development in terms of ‘a next step’, as there was generally no need for it among employees, while the above discussions on the same department already showed that this was much more the case in terms of the development and maintenance of competence towards current professions.

Nevertheless, the degree to which interviewed employees regarded their current function as their final station differed. In one investigated department, an employee (T2E) had communicated his need for a more management oriented education to his line manager during a yearly interview, as he aspired to shape his career towards a more management related job on the longer term.

“I indicated that I wanted to develop myself more, and one thing led to the other, and it was actually organised pretty fast. My line manager said: “see what you want to do, it of course has to do with the job”, but no, further she made absolutely no difficulties about it. ... Well, and when I was already going to do this education, a vacancy for part-time coordinator became available at our department, for which I applied. So this came
together in a kind of accidental way, but it enabled me to get into it right away, and that was quite ideal.”

Thus, while starting an external management education program, a career opportunity already presented itself to this employee, enabling him to create optimal value as he could combine theory with practice at work. For both of these things, the employee himself had taken initiative, although the facilitating role of his line manager eventually ensured that arrangements were made. This line manager (T2M) argued to be very welcoming to such initiatives as long as these initiatives complied with the norm that they were job-oriented, while her view and the view of the employee on “lifelong learning” were similar, causing the value proposition of the education program to be co-produced between them. The conditions under which this deal came to be also implied a compromise between employee and employer, as the employee noted:

“Yes, the education is paid for by Medicorp, but in return I have to stay here for two years when I’m done. ... I go to school once a month, and the rest I have to do at home, which is quite a lot. ... I can do half of the education in working time, while I have to do the other half in my own time. So I get some free days for it, but of course I can also use my personal leave hours, which I do regularly because it wouldn’t be doable otherwise.”

As the above quote shows, a synergy of, and complementarity in resources between the employee and his line manager, or in a broader sense, his employer, enabled him to successfully participate in an extensive development program, while also being empowered to put the gained knowledge into practice directly. In this process, the employee regarded his line manager as a mentor and coach on the work floor, meaning that value was eventually co-created in a way that optimally fitted the needs and interests of the employee.

In another investigated department, which was not a healthcare department, but rather a staff department focused on the facilitating structure of the hospital with regard to for example technology, an employee (T7E) explained how he perceived the cooperation he had with line management with regard to developmental HR services:

“My former manager said to me; “I see that you can and want to do more, so why not see if we can get you an additional education”. This led to a two year long education at university which was largely paid for by Medicorp, although I also contributed something myself, and it eventually enabled me to make a next step in my career. And now I was asked for another job within our department, to which I said; “fine, but then I also want an additional education to come with it”, and that was not a problem. ... I wanted to do new things, learn new things, and that opportunity was absolutely given to me. ... God knows where I’ll be in five to ten years, but it will either be a place in which I am still challenged, and until now Medicorp does a fine job at that.”

As can be seen above, this employee put high interest in gaining new human capital and in being challenged, and he argued that his employer did an excellent job in satisfying this need, while he was also willing to provide his own resources in order to do so. In addition, he stated that he did not see salary as a key motivator, while being much more motivated by challenges, appreciation, and freedom in his job. In this respect, the perception that his line manager (T7M) had on facilitation and development was very similar, as she argued:

“We organise development ourselves, we get a training budget and with that we arrange training and education. ... It has to be related to work, but I also look at the needs people have to develop themselves, ... when employees indicate that they need more space or that they want to develop, I try to look at it together with them. And sometimes it can be in the little things, a bit of appreciation, it doesn’t always have to be money. ... And this causes employees to become more active, involved and motivated; a motivated employee who also wants to think along, takes care of things, and doesn’t lean back.”

Thus, the management approach of this line manager fitted well with the employee’s view on how the EER should be, meaning that the line manager understood the kind of value to which employees attached most importance. In addition, her statements prove that she also had sufficient resources to her disposal to actually meet these needs, while she would make such resources available when requests for training complied to the norm that these were work-related. Through this, employee and line manager were together able to co-create value-in-use in terms of human capital development, as the employee indicated to be fully satisfied with the support he had received.

The above cases show that a third interpretive scheme around employment identity emerged in terms of career development, being the ‘engaged professional’. This employment identity can be considered as a variant of the ‘engaged professional’, since both represent employees who were engaged and future-oriented in their work, although in this case they did not consider themselves to be at their ‘final station’, implying that they especially put interest in the development of their own career. Here, interviews also showed that employees who considered themselves ‘engaged professionals’ in the present, often considered themselves as ‘engaged potentials’ in the past.

4.3.3 Reflection on Training and Development

With regard to the (co-)creation of value-in-use through training and development, the above results show that the main antecedent of the way in which such value was created was employees’ framing of their employment identity. This interpretive scheme about how employees view themselves within their job consequently influenced the needs that they had with regard to their profession or their career as a whole, while it also determined their attitude and consequent actions towards norms oriented at training and professional or personal development. Here, a rough distinction could be made between ‘transactional workers’ on the one hand, and ‘engaged professionals/potentials’ on the other hand. The main distinction between these two extreme types of employment identity were that the former had little orientation, awareness, and motivation towards professional development, and in a more broader sense, towards the rapid changes inherent to the medical sector, while the latter group showed more self-reliance, proactivity, responsibility, and ownership with regard to these topics. Here, interviews revealed that a multitude of factors caused such differing perceptions, being for example employees’ level of education and age, the extent to which they were effectively stimulated in it, but also, more importantly, their intrinsic professional allegiance and the degree to which they were aware of their own responsibility in the EER.

Employees who framed themselves in different ways, consequently acted differently towards organisational norms and resources. Here, data showed that when training-oriented norms were imposed within departments, transactional workers were mainly extrinsically motivated by these norms, implying that they were mostly not driven to create value-in-use through these trainings, while engaged professionals would see such norms as stimulators for the creation of value-in-use to which
they also attached importance themselves. Here, interviews also showed that effective communication of trainings and the provision of sufficient time could still stimulate transactional workers to create value through these trainings, although especially the latter proved difficult to realise in practice. In addition, it was common that engaged professionals were also inclined to pay attention to external norms or tendencies within their field of expertise, as they saw these as important additional benchmarks in improving and maintaining their professional competence. On the other hand, when developmental norms were not present internally, engaged professionals would search for alternatives to still create value-in-use with regard to their human capital development as they were intrinsically motivated to do so, even if they perceived ambiguous organisational messages in this respect, while transactional workers mostly remained passive in such instances, as they did not feel the need or urgency to take responsibility.

While the presence of norms usually implied that resources to meet them were made available within departments to a certain degree, this resource availability was often limited in departments that had no structural norms towards training and development. When present, such norms however also often implied that employees had to use their own resources to effectively create value-in-use, being especially time, meaning that an integration of resources from differing actors eventually enabled value-in-use co-creation. Here, interviews revealed that this could very much de-motivate employees in making use of trainings, being especially those with a more transactional mindset. When these norms were not present, engaged professionals would proactively try to find or create resources nevertheless, while they were also willing to use their own resources to still satisfy their need for development. Here, the degree to which line managers were able and willing to facilitate employee initiatives surrounding training and development influenced the extent to which HR services could be co-produced on the work floor, while it also played a role in the kind of value-in-use that employees were able to create eventually. A lack in such resources meant that employees were not fully able to create value-in-use as they were limited in their possibilities, while resource availability would enable them to meet their needs in such a way that value-in-use was optimally co-created.

Overall, interviews thus revealed that there were various ways through which employees were able to realise value for themselves in training and development activities, be it individually or through co-creating it with line managers. In this, various cases showed that employees were able to successfully produce their own training activities, as they themselves had the best insight in how their needs could be satisfied. However, a variety of factors can be seen as enablers or inhibitors in this process, being mainly employees’ own interpretive schemes towards their employment identity and the training-oriented norms within their context, the extent to which such norms were actually put in place, and the degree to which resources were made available for development initiatives. In this respect, employees who had an intrinsic need to develop themselves proved that they could satisfy their needs to a significant degree on their own, although stimulating norms from inside or outside the hospital, and especially the availability of resources within their departments caused such initiatives to have more impact in terms of the value-in-use that was being (co-)created.

4.4 Appraisal and Work Floor Support

4.4.1 Communication about Work Floor Wellbeing

A straightforward type of value-in-use that could be co-created through the yearly interview and the dialogue with management was that employees could explicate their needs or wishes towards their current work situation. Such items were often basic and practical in nature, as they were for example aimed at improving working conditions and the consequent sustainable employability of employees. Generally, both transactional workers and engaged professionals/potentials would engage in this kind of value co-creation, as all employees considered being able to perform their job well in a practical sense important. In this, the voicing of relatively small problems or perceived ambiguities occurred regularly, in which value was mainly derived from gaining advice or from realising changes with regard to the matters that employees communicated to their line manager. Here, some would not hesitate to approach their line manager directly, while others preferred to discuss such things in the yearly interview, and value-in-use co-creation in this respect was generally aimed at maintaining or improving employees’ current situation at work. Again, availability of resources within departments limited the extent to which requests and wishes could be granted, for example in terms of the budget over which line managers acquired, or the latitude and flexibility that a department had in terms of its planning. Here, an employee (T4E) for example argued:

“I have received a very nice headset because I am left-handed, as this can be quite annoying while having to phone and write at the same time. And also with regard to people with back pain, we received special chairs. What you however always encounter is money, as now we have received these things, but actually there is little budget for them.”

However, interviews also revealed that line managers did not always pay attention to the needs of employees in this regard, as another employee (T3E) argued that she perceived her line manager as too hasty and busy, causing her to have a hard time in realising sometimes very basic needs and wishes:

“I get that my line manager has a lot of people in her department, but she is too busy, always hurried, and she has little time. She tries, it’s not like that, but because of her hastiness she has little time for a lot of people in my view. ... If you indicate things, and nothing is done with it, and you ask again and again, you ask it three times; at a certain moment it is finished. ... I consider myself as someone who always communicates things, but when it isn’t fed back that is a pity.”

In this sense, a line manager’s attitude and receptiveness towards employee requests thus heavily influenced the extent to which value was co-created for and with employees. However, this particular employee also indicated that this to some degree had to do with all the tasks and responsibilities that her line manager had, meaning that the extensive organisational expectations that line managers had to conform to could disable them in better serving employee interests.

4.4.2 Making Agreements about Personal Development

This type of value-in-use was the most profound and development-oriented one when it came to appraisal. Here, the above sections on training and development have already shown that the yearly interview sometimes formed the gateway to satisfying certain developmental needs of employees. While interviewed line managers generally stimulated employees to come forward with such needs, their own employment identity largely influenced the extent to which, and the way in which they would do so. Here, HR specialists and line managers argued that employees differed in the extent to which they were able to communicate any needs in this respect, as some had no
orientation towards their future, and this difference can again be attributed to the differences in employment identities that prevailed throughout Medicorp. Also, while speaking openly about one’s need provided employees with some value in that they could speak their mind, significant value was only created when employees’ requests would also be remunerated, and interviews revealed that this was not always the case.

In this sense, interviews revealed that a desired next career step was not always feasible given the circumstances of a department or its employee. Here, a medical secretary (T4E), who already took on certain extra tasks herself, argued that she aspired a more challenging job with more management responsibilities, preferably within her own department. However, she and her line manager together were not yet able to give shape to such a desire, as it was hard for them to make this fit within the current organisational structure:

“I perform extra tasks for my line manager, ... and we also discussed in the yearly interview that I optionally would like a heavier secretary job, or more towards the management side, and we also talked about if I should follow an education, yes or no. But it remained between my line manager and me, with the agreement that I could perhaps support her in certain tasks. ... The relationship between her and me is also very good, so it would be nice if I could support her with management responsibilities, only as a function this cannot yet be fitted in. ... The ideas are there, only with current developments in the hospital, how they possibly want to do it in the future, it still remains a bit unclear because you cannot really capture it in a certain function.”

While thus being unable to fully satisfy the employee’s need, the line manager still had acknowledged her need by setting up an informal agreement through which the employee was empowered to perform various additional tasks, meaning that they together shaped a ‘middle way’ in this respect. In other words, while the employee’s need could not be fully accommodated due to a lack of means, a mutual understanding and agreement among line manager and employee caused them to co-create value-in-use nevertheless. After all, through this arrangement, the employee experienced more satisfaction and challenges in her tasks, meaning that employee value was being created. On the other hand although, this value was created in a non-optimal way, as her need for development was not fully satisfied. Here, the employee however also indicated that there was a certain threshold for her to switch jobs, which implied that her demands and the limited resources available to her diminished the space for career opportunities as well:

“So, you also have to make choices I think, and that is something for now in terms of age and the job that I now have. Also a piece of assurance, as I have a household with studying children. I am now in a permanent job, so when there would be a switch I would have some demands; a permanent job and a certain amount of hours that you want to work. So I want to switch, but there should also be something in return for security.”

Likewise, another employee (T8E) also argued that while she aspired a more challenging job, she currently was not in the position to pursue such a career path due to her private situation, which again underlines that the resources that employees are able to bring to the table also influence the extent to which they can make a deal with regard to their career development. In other words, the fact that employees’ interpretive schemes and resources were not aligned with each other inhibited them from creating value for themselves:

“I want to do something different, something that is more exciting, but now I work a certain amount of hours, and I am fine with that. Perhaps when my children grow older I will do something like that. Although I want to do so now, much of such jobs require more hours, and for me that isn’t possible yet due to the age of my children.”

Furthermore, in another department, an employee (T6E) managed to enrich and enlarge his tasks in a multitude of ways, as he was intrinsically driven to find challenges that could make his job more satisfying and rewarding apart from his regular healthcare work. To do so, he had communicated his needs to his line manager, eventually leading to an agreement that enabled him to for example participate in organisation-wide projects, while also becoming a management assistant to his line manager:

“I also perform tasks for the department as a whole, but then more on the work floor. ... So, during the yearly interview I indicated that I wanted to support my line manager more. For me that is an enrichment, or a diversion of my boundaries, and through it I perform various tasks that would usually be done by a line manager. For example, I order supplies, for which I also received an account from my manager.”

In all these activities, his line manager had proven to be fully supportive, as can already be seen from this line manager’s quote used in the previous section (T6M), while it was also underlined by the employee (T6E) himself while discussing his yearly interview and more regular conversations with his line manager:

“It contributes in that my line manager knows what activities I am involved in, and that it is of course not only providing healthcare. And second, that she proactively creates the conditions, while already plotting some paths in which I can participate next to my healthcare work. ... So, if I have any wishes, these are treated seriously, and they are also acted upon by my line manager.”

Thus, while employee and line manager had similar beliefs on development and empowerment, the line manager was also able to provide the means which fitted the need of the employee. Consequently, this led to optimal value co-creation between them as the employee’s job became more rewarding and satisfying, while he was also enabled to contribute to departmental goals other than those related to healthcare. In addition, while this agreement led to benefits for the employee, it also benefited the line manager as she now had disposal over an extra resource within her department, being an employee who was able and willing to ease her workload.

However, in other situations where employees had voiced their development needs, it also occurred that agreements like the above were not made, or were not kept by line managers due to lacks in resources or because of unforeseen events. This consequently led to disappointment and little value creation among employees, and also to a less positive view of the yearly interview and the line manager in general. While such employees usually were proactive in communicating their needs, they nevertheless were not able to realise access to resources that they deemed relevant, causing them to either search for alternatives themselves or give up. Here, one employee (T5E) for example argued:

“I think you have to keep up with new developments and develop yourself. Healthcare is changing a lot, and if you want
to function properly. I think you have to stay informed about nationwide guidelines, to see to what you have to adhere. In this I mainly take the lead myself. ... Attention is paid to these things in the yearly interview, but I don’t get much further with such actions, as each year the same points return. ... Of course, sometimes it simply can’t be done, as my manager also has to deal with managers above him.”

Here, this engaged professional could not realise her needs via her line manager, causing her to search for other ways to keep up with the norms set within her field of expertise. This again shows that employees who frame themselves as engaged professionals commit themselves to a cause greater than their specific department, as they are inclined to also follow institutional trends in ensuring that they provide high quality care. However, while understanding that her manager’s hands were tied to some degree, the lack of provided resources nevertheless caused her to co-create little value-in-use through the yearly interview specifically.

4.4.3 Feedback and Assessment
While the intentions behind the yearly interview were not particularly aimed at assessing employees in a formal sense, interviews revealed that in various departments discussions about employee performance were included in these interviews. In this regard, another dimension of value co-creation could thus be added to the yearly interview, as it enabled employees to gain insights on their performance and work attitude. The degree to which this was done however depended on a line manager’s approach towards the yearly interview, as well as on the extent to which they were able to provide substantive feedback given the level of expertise they had in terms of the employees’ job.

Here, a studied department had for example initiated a 360-degree feedback system, implying that employees had to ask colleagues and a doctor to provide them with both positive feedback as well as areas for improvement, and these were consequently discussed in the yearly interview with their line manager. On this matter, the interviewed employee (T3E) commented as follows:

“At first I found it difficult, especially with the doctor. Also because we have a culture here that when there are things, we rather have it fed back and discussed immediately. But well, that still happens, and in addition it also gives some sense of accomplishment if you read the positive things that people think of you. Those are often the things that you get back, and then you notice that you do not always do that when you’re simply at work, so it is pleasant to hear such things sometimes. And well, with regard to areas of improvement, it sometimes gets written down, but those are mostly things that were already discussed with you or of which you already know that you have to improve on them.”

Thus, whereas feedback had already been a part of the department in an informal sense, there was now also a formal norm established around it, which, after some habituation, was seen as useful by the employee in that it provided both constructive criticism as well as a form of appreciation. This provided her with indications about what she did well and what could be improved, through which value-in-use was co-created. With regard to these yearly interviews, the line manager (T3M), who herself had been a nurse in the past, argued that she completed the 360-degree feedback system by also providing employees with feedback and advice about their performance. In addition, she also asked employees for feedback on her own performance, as she also attached value to receiving feedback herself. This means that the views of employee and line manager were similar in that they both attached importance to feedback, and, with the help of both a stimulating norm to which they both adhered, and the expertise of the line manager on job content, this caused them to co-create value during the yearly interview. Also, employees themselves played an important role in realising this particular feedback mechanism, meaning that the service was a co-production of employees and their line manager together.

4.4.4 Reflection on Appraisal and Work Floor Support
Similar to training and development, employees themselves were largely at the foundation of the extent and type of value that they co-created through appraisal. In this regard, the data provided less extensive results, as appraisal and work floor support were considered to be more straightforward and less profound, while the HRM service value that was created was often less impactful compared to training and development.

Results showed that the way in which this HR service was implemented within departments differed largely, meaning that the potential value of it, next to the degree to which it was actually a co-production between employee and line manager also differed between departments. In addition to its basic themes, some departments were also able to attach additional topics to the yearly interview, being for example 360 degree feedback, which increased the potential value of the service for employees. Giving substantial feedback however depended on the line manager’s expertise on the jobs of employees, and the degree to which this was the case differed throughout the studied departments. While the approachability of line managers, next to their devotion to the yearly interview affected the ease through which value could be co-created, employees themselves were still responsible for communicating their needs and wishes to them.

Here, interviews showed that it sometimes proved difficult for line managers to combine their extensive tasks and responsibilities with serving their employees’ needs to a satisfactory degree. Also, if the norms surrounding the yearly interview were adhered to by organisational actors, meaning that these talks were actually held in the way it was intended by Mediscorp, the likelihood that value was created would increase. However, the results show that this was not always the case, sometimes causing little value co-creation or even disappointment among employees. In this sense, a similar view of employees and line managers, meaning that employees were willing and able to voice their needs, and that line managers would stimulate and welcome such request, was a prerequisite for co-creating value-in-use. Here, the means available among line managers and employees consequently influenced the kind of value that they were able to co-create, as different resource distributions affected the kinds of agreements that could be made between them.

Interviews also showed that how employees framed their employment identity again influenced the way in which they approached the yearly interview and work floor support, meaning that different kinds of value-in-use were co-created through these services. Here, engaged professionals regarded the yearly interview as useful for communicating and realising their developmental needs especially, while they would try to realise these needs through other ways if they perceived that the yearly interview and consequently their line manager proved unable in satisfying them. On the other hand, transactional workers mainly made use of the yearly interview or work floor support for more practical matters in order to maintain their current job situation, as they were to a larger degree indifferent and sometimes hesitant towards discussing their future and the developmental needs that they might have.
4.5 Overall Reflection on Results

The above discussions show that the social contexts in which HR triad actors found themselves indeed differed extensively throughout Medicorp, through which different degrees and types of value were created for and by employees. In this regard, some more general conclusions can be drawn, as certain trends were found to be relevant for many of the studied contexts (i.e. departments), and these are visually represented in Figure 4, which can be seen below. This model is not fully conclusive in nature, as it merely provides an indication of the overall findings of this exploratory study. Consequently, in this section, the different arrows of this model are explained, which thus shows how the configuration of, and interplay between social structure modalities explains how HRM service value is created for and by employees within the HR triad.

Firstly, the model shows that HR specialists’ modalities were of little importance for the creation of developmental value for employees, as they were usually only marginally involved in value creation processes in this respect. Here, it was particularly the modalities and consequent actions of employees and line managers that accounted for the degree and kind of value creation. The focal point and main source of variability in the below model is the employee’s interpretive scheme on his/her employment identity, which basically consists out of various interpretive schemes on particularly employees’ intrinsic motivation to develop themselves and their work, the degree to which they perceived a need to develop themselves, and the extent to which they were aware of their own responsibility in the EER. In this respect, the two extreme forms of employment identities were labelled as ‘transactional worker’ and ‘engaged professional/potential’. When employees identified themselves to a large degree as engaged professional, they generally had the motivation and intention to (co)create value through developmental HR services (arrow H), for example by acquiring new human capital, realising a more challenging job, or getting feedback on their work. This drive was to a lesser extent present in the case of transactional workers, although an appealing way of communication by line managers (Arrow B), the instantiation of stimulating norms (Arrow D), and the provision of sufficient resources within their department (again arrow D) could encourage them in becoming more aware of, and embracing towards (the need for) development. Consequently, if such initiatives had an effect, these employees would get more engaged in value creation processes (Arrow H), for example by participating in more trainings, by participating in trainings with better motivation, or by proactively discussing their needs in interaction with their line manager. However, this still depended on the extent to which such employees were susceptible to these stimulations, which could be traced back to their aforementioned interpretive schemes, and especially their willingness to change these views.

Here, a very important enabler was also the degree to which a line manager, or in a broader sense the valid norms and available resources within a department (arrow F) could stimulate and facilitate the development needs of employees, while employees’ willingness and ability to use their own resources also played a major role (arrow G). In this respect, results showed that a lack in one of these two caused suboptimal or even no value to be created eventually. Subsequently, the departmental context could be characterised as the arena for value (co-)creation, in which differing kinds and quantities of value propositions, and thus differing degrees of potential value, were found throughout the studied departments. Here, line managers were to some degree able to shape the departmental context, and especially the relevant norms and available resources in this arena, based on their own view on management and employee development (arrow C). However, results showed that they were sometimes unable to (fully) do so, which was caused by limitations that were imposed onto them by the larger organisational context, for example in terms of budget restrictions or perceived time restrictions due to extensive other tasks. This also means that they in some cases came short in facilitating the fulfilment of employees’ needs with regard to developmental HR services.

Once employees experienced that developmental services could provide them with certain benefits, and thus value in their work, this could also change how they viewed themselves in their job (arrow I), for example in that they became more enthusiastic and engaged at work, or in that they assumed additional tasks and responsibilities. In addition, when employees considered themselves to a larger degree as engaged professionals, they usually understood and embraced the developmental norms that were set within their departments (arrow D), as the reasons behind such norms (e.g. staying competent, ‘lifelong learning’) were usually similar to their intrinsic motivation towards development, for example in terms of keeping up with developments within their work field. Although such norms often obliged employees to follow certain activities, engaged professionals saw them as a further stimulant in their development, in which they were also willing to use their own resources (arrow G). On the other hand, transactional workers were more likely to simply comply to the norm in these cases, especially if they saw no use in such activities or if their employer did not provide them with all the required resources, meaning that little value was (co-)created in these cases.

![Figure 4: Modalities Underlying HRM Service Value (Co-)Creation Through Developmental HR Services](image-url)
In addition, engaged professionals were often inclined to adhere to institutional professional norms and trends (arrow A), next to more common departmental norms on developmental HRM, if present (arrow D), in further shaping their employment identity and in determining their development need and their consequent actions in satisfying these needs. Such institutional antecedents could for example be manifested in certain ‘training credits’ that employees had to obtain to stay quality-registered and to maintain a membership of a professional association, while employees in these cases also paid attention to overall trends and developments in their specific work field. In pursuing their needs, results showed that such employees were also likely to draw upon their own resources (Arrow G), especially if certain internal or external norms required them to do so, or if their departmental context proved unable to fully satisfy their needs (Arrow F). Similarly, these employees sometimes influenced their own departmental context as well (arrow E), for example by providing input for new trainings or even by developing and co-producing internal trainings themselves, which consequently enabled them to create more and better value-in-use as the departmental context was better adapted to satisfying the aforementioned employees needs (Arrow F). In this, line manager support and encouragement (Arrow B), and the degree to which these line managers could make things happen within the departmental context (Arrow C), again played significant roles in the extent to which such initiatives could be realised.

5. DISCUSSION

This study set out to investigate how interpretive schemes, resources, and norms among HR specialists, line managers, and employees influenced their actions and interactions concerning HR services, and how this consequently affected the perceived HRM service value among employees. The underlying assumption in this respect was that, when drawing upon certain social structure modalities, HR triad actors would consequently understand and approach employee value in a certain fashion, influencing the way in which they would co-produce HR services and co-create HRM service value for employees (i.e. value-in-social-context). In this, developmental HR services, being mainly training, appraisal, and career development, were chosen as a vantage point, as literature showed that these services in particular were concerned with creating value as perceived by employees (Lepak, Bartol, & Erhardt, 2005).

Results showed that HR specialist’s social structure modalities were of little relevance for value creation at the employee level, as they were not structurally nor frequently involved in such processes. In line with the devolved nature of Medicorp’s HRM architecture, co-production of services and co-creation of service value mainly occurred between line managers and employees, meaning that the interpretive schemes, resources, and norms of these two actor groups were of particular importance in realising employee value. Thus, an ‘internal interaction’ (Fyrberg & Järjä, 2009) between line managers, being the main providers of developmental HRM, and HR specialists was not present, but also not necessarily required to ensure value creation among employees, as various departments, meaning both its line manager and employees, had established collective meanings and expectations towards what was required to satisfy employees’ needs with regard to their development. In this sense, a partnership was thus established between line managers and employees, while on other HRM aspects such as absenteeism or recruitment and selection, a partnership between HR and the line was more common, which confirms the findings of Whittaker and Marchington (2003) in this respect. Overall, when looking at developmental HRM services, a simultaneous partnership within the HR triad, meaning one between employees, line managers, and HR specialists, did however not come forward in a structural way.

5.1 Implications for Research

The most straightforward contribution of this study is that it supports S-D logic and especially the notion of value-in-use creation within HRM and more particularly the EER, as results have shown that employees indeed create value by integrating or applying resources to meet their needs, both by themselves or through interaction with representatives of their employer, being line managers in the case of developmental HRM. In this, various types of value-in-use creation were identified, being for example ‘realising competence for high quality work’ or ‘making agreements about personal development’, and results showed that these were all caused by different needs among employees, thus also supporting the notion of ‘value-in-social-context’, as proposed by Edwardsson et al. (2011).

This brings us to another contribution that this study provides to contemporary HRM literature, which is that, with regard to developmental HRM, employees’ interpretive schemes towards their employment identity, and consequently their perceptions of internal as well as external norms around developmental HRM are fundamental to how HRM service value-in-use is eventually (co-)created (i.e. the type of, and degree to which), while these also have a significant influence on how HR services and their accompanying value propositions are co-produced by employees. Simply put, this means that employees themselves are the most prominent source of variability in creating HRM-related value-in-use for themselves, as their interpretive scheme towards their employment identity determines (1) how and with which motives they make use of HR services that are offered to, or imposed onto them (i.e. which needs they intend to satisfy), and (2) how they act if they perceive discrepancies between what they need and what is provided to them. The current study shows that employee responses to the same HR services differed if they either saw themselves to a larger degree as ‘transactional workers’ on the one hand, or as ‘engaged professionals/potentials’ on the other, causing them to respectively attribute little or extensive importance to norms, activities, and opportunities aimed at stimulating their personal and professional development. This finding thus confirms and supports the findings of Meijerink et al. (2016), who argued that employees can be regarded as active agents and consumers in the EER, meaning that their own attributes, being in this case mainly their interpretive schemes on employment identity, determine the type and degree of HRM service value that is perceived by them. The above is also in accordance with what was argued by Bondarouk et al. (2009), in that a strong HRM climate, as proposed by Bowen and Ostroff (2004), is still dependent on employees’ constitution of enacted HRM frames to reach desired outcomes. In other words, the offering and consistent communication of high-quality HR services and thus value propositions by HRM policy makers appears to be insufficient for guaranteeing actual value creation, as it is the way in which employees decide to use these services that determines the type and extent of value-in-use that is eventually created (Meijerink et al., 2016).

In addition, the present study shows that employees can also have a significant influence on their own HRM climate, and thus on existing HRM service value propositions, through co-producing or even independently producing HR services themselves, which supports the argument of Meijerink et al. (2016). Here, previous HRM studies have already found that HRM can influence employees’ employment identities through for example ‘educating’ them (Alvesson & Willmot, 2002), while this study adds that, with regard to developmental HRM, employees’ employment identities can also influence
how HR services themselves are developed and implemented (i.e. co-production) to eventually fit employee needs. This implies that employees are able to influence the content, type, and intensity of HR services that they can consequently use themselves, enabling them to translate their own needs into services that actually satisfy these needs, which thus leads to the creation of employee value in an optimal way. Also, next to meeting their needs in a more accurate way, this active participation also can provide employees with pride-of-ownership, thus creating an additional value dimension. This is in accordance with marketing literature on mass customisation (e.g. Piller, 2004; Franke & Piller, 2003), meaning that it provides additional evidence for the notion that various marketing concepts offer an interesting lens through which value creation in the EER can be studied. Here, employees’ willingness and ability to become proactive and self-reliant in HR service development and implementation however again depended on the framing of their employment identity, as this determined their need for development and the extent to which they would perceive insufficiencies in the offered HR services. In this, employees who framed themselves to a larger degree as engaged professionals would be persistent and proactive in closing such gaps, in which they would also use their own resources when deemed necessary (i.e. time, money), due to their allegiance and dedication towards their profession and/or personal development. On the other hand, transactional workers would not perceive such gaps in the first place, as they attached little importance to continuous development given their lack of awareness in this respect. This means that HRM studies should take employees’ perceptions of their needs in account in order to be able to explain how HR services are implemented, as it is shown here that such services can also emerge from, or be adapted by needs and consequent behaviours (i.e. norms that employees perceive as necessary to understand in what they need and what is offered to them).

Next, employees’ frame on their employment identity also showed to be a determinant of their attitude towards developmental norms instantiated by their employer, as they differed in their perception on the relevance or usefulness of developmental activities linked to these norms, causing them to either see these as supportive or inconvenient in their work. This means that while norms may oblige employees to follow trainings or to participate in appraisal talks, it does not necessarily mean that they also derive value from such activities. Here, the resources with which employees were provided could however make a large difference in such perceptions. While norms and consequent obligatory activities around development or competence may provide employers with assurances that their employees meet certain standards, this study shows that employees’ agency in how they make use of such services can prevent desired results from being realised. Additionally, results revealed that various employee groups, being especially those who saw themselves as engaged professionals, were also inclined to adhere to norms that ranged from their field of expertise as a whole in shaping their development needs and consequent behaviours (i.e. norms that are largely outside of the organisation’s influence), due to their high allegiance to their particular healthcare work field. This means that their institutional environment influenced how they made use of HR services, while it also determined how they gave substance to satisfying these needs by themselves if they perceived any insufficiencies, for example through co-producing HR services. Here, HRM scholars have already proposed that, when employees are members of certain professional groups and accompanying associations, this might influence the expectations of employees and consequently the freedom that firms have in designing adequate HR policy and services (e.g. Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). However, while such studies mainly place agency at the organisation to adapt to relevant professional norms and expectations of employees, the current study shows that employees themselves are also able to shape HR practice based on their professional background and context, meaning that the development of effective HR services might also emerge from the work floor in such cases. In this sense, HRM studies might benefit from considering such a work floor perspective in explaining how institutional normative mechanisms shape HR policy and especially practice, next to what effects these have on employee- or organisation-level outcomes.

While the above discussion merely accentuates the active role of employees in their own value creation processes, the role of line managers, and in a broader sense the departmental context that forms the arena for value creation, is also important in determining the eventual kind and degree of value that is co-created. Especially in a highly devolved HRM environment, a line manager’s interpretive schemes towards developmental HRM, as well as the valid norms and available resources within departments, are of essential importance in realising and stimulating HRM service value (co-)creation for and by employees. In this sense, HRM devolution literature also underlines the importance of line managers’ attitude and behaviour in realising positive employee perceptions (e.g. Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), while it is shown here that the degree to which line managers are able and equipped to help satisfy employee needs plays a crucial enabling role. Whereas it is important that line managers understand and agree with employees’ needs, the organisational resources that line managers receive largely determines the degree to which they can assist in realising such needs, while these also influence the extent to which they can set up developmental norms within their departments. In this sense, line managers themselves do not always have complete freedom in how they co-create value-in-use with employees, as they have to deal with larger organisational trends that limit their resources and the degree to which they themselves can give shape to developmental HRM. Here, results showed that while top management had indicated a certain expectation towards line management involvement in developmental HRM, various line managers were not able, or not enabled to meet this expectation, which led to situations in which “there is a gap between what is formally required in HR policy and what is actually delivered by front line managers” (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007, p. 3). The devolution of HRM thus caused differing HRM policies and practices to emerge within Medicorp’s internal context, especially due to variance in established norms and availability of resources throughout its departments. This implies that the quality and value potential of value propositions within departments varied strongly, which caused various employees to perceive mismatches between what they needed and what they were offered, leading to little value co-creation. Thus, future studies should consider the position of line managers in explaining the extent to which HRM outcomes, such as value creation for employees, are realised, especially with regard to the extent to which they are enabled and equipped to do so by organisational policy.

In addition, while this study set out to investigate social structure modalities among HR specialists, line managers, and employees, results showed that those of HR specialists were not of major importance for interaction and value creation in terms of developmental HRM. However, results also indicated that other types of HRM services (e.g. recruitment and selection, absenteeism handling) did require a different and more extensive ‘internal interaction’ (Fyrberg & Júriado, 2009) between HR and the line to assure effective service execution and value creation. Likewise, while this study shows that employees’ interpretive schemes and available
resources in a department mattered extensively for creating service value through developmental HR services, these might be of less importance when it comes to creating value through more transactional HR services (e.g., salary administration, record keeping). After all, such services are focused on very different and less profound employee needs, while also requiring different resource requirements, for example in terms of invested time or required budget. Hence, an important implication for research that this study provides is that for different HR service types, different actor interactions and accompanying social structure modalities might be important for eventually realising desired outcomes such as value creation. Thus, this study proves that the ‘service network model’ (Fyrberg & Jürjado, 2009) can be considered as a useful lens for studying how different types of HR services are realised within the HR triad, meaning that future HRM studies might benefit from adopting a similar approach in analysing HR triad interaction (i.e. co-creation and co-production) towards certain HR service types and consequent desired outcomes.

Overall, this study shows that, while employees’ own framing of their employment identity and consequent development needs forms the basis for the degree and kind of value-in-use that can potentially be created, the direct organisational context in which they are located (i.e. norms and resources), especially represented by their line manager, forms the gateway for realising such needs. In summary, both of these can either be detrimental or beneficial for the degree to which potential value is translated into actual value, as, on the one hand, a stimulating and high quality HRM environment (i.e. potential value) might be present for employees who are not inclined to make use of such services, while, on the other hand, engaged and proactive employees with a developmental orientation (i.e. potential value) might also encounter a restrictive environment and line manager, leading to no created value in both of these cases. Thus, this study still supports the common idea within HRM research that the organisation, and more specifically HRM policy makers (i.e. HR specialists and (line) management) influence the value that can be created for employees and the organisation as a whole (e.g. Whittaker & Marchington, 2003), although it places a critical note in this respect, being that employees themselves are a main source of variability in the extent to which this value is actually realised.

5.2 Implications for Practice
This study has shown that sense making processes among employees eventually determine how they make use of offered HR services. While imposing norms that oblige employees to follow developmental activities may stimulate those who attach importance to continuous development to assure their competence in delivering quality work or in stimulating their career, these had limited effects on those that did not see value in such activities, meaning that they in most cases simply participated for the sake of compliance. Thus, it is important for organisations to influence the interpretive schemes of employees in such ways that they adopt an embracing attitude towards developmental activities and norms, to eventually enable better value creation processes. Through this, not only direct organisational goals (e.g. ensuring employee competence and performance) will be realised in a better way, as employees themselves will also experience more HRM service value in such instances, causing them to feel more confident, satisfied, motivated and engaged also. Of course, the latter can again progress organisational goals in a more indirect way, as a motivated employee is likely to perform better also.

In this regard, communicating HRM messages (i.e. the HRM vision, policies, and accompanying expectations) in distinctive, consistent and agreed-upon ways to employees can provide a good start, as it decreases perceptions of ambiguous messages among them (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). In addition, it might create a larger sense of urgency and awareness towards professional development among employees, reducing indifferent attitudes among them. However, accompanying means should also be provided with such messages, as the current study within Medicorp showed that a lack in one or both of these two stimulators caused suboptimal value creation processes or no value creation at all. Here, employees who had certain needs basically had to rely solely on themselves to still create a certain amount or type of value, while those who were not aware of any needs would remain indifferent in such cases. Here, it is especially important for organisations to steer and equip their line managers in such ways that they are firstly able to stimulate employees in their development, while also being able to implement developmental HR services successfully within their departments.

In addition, allowing and enabling employees to get involved with the development and implementation of (developmental) HR services has the advantage that they themselves can tailor these services to their needs, through which they perceive a higher degree of ownership as well as a higher degree of value due to services that better fit their needs. While such initiatives were sometimes born out of necessity among employees in the current study due to perceived insufficiencies in the offer of HR services, a structured approach in this regard might lead to better value creation among them, for example by providing employees with resources (i.e., time, budget) that they can use themselves to satisfy their professional and personal needs, which can eventually also progress organisational goals. Of course, firms should still have influence on this process, as otherwise employee initiatives might not benefit or even harm these organisational goals. In terms of especially higher educated medical personnel, this research however showed that such employee groups were well aware of what they needed for carrying out their profession, both now and in the future. Thus, within such groups, who can be considered self-reliant and proactive in their work, an approach in which employees themselves are given ownership of developmental HRM might be beneficial for both employees and their employer.

5.3 Limitations & Future Research
This study focused on a combination of theoretical concepts that was largely new in current research, meaning that only a limited theoretical fundament was established as a backbone for executing this research, in which justified assumptions were sometimes used to link theoretical concepts. Likewise, the theoretical lens adopted in this study was rather broad in nature, which is naturally inherent to an exploratory study, and this caused results to be general and guiding rather than specific and conclusive. Future studies might however benefit from this first exploratory study on the interplay between social structure and value-in-use (co-)creation within HRM, as some interesting findings have opened up avenues for further research, being for example the effect of employees’ frame of their employment identity on value (co-)creation, and the direct influence of institutional norms on employee perceptions, needs, and behaviours with regard to HR services.

In studying social structure modalities and value creation within the HR triad, this study focused on a wide range of departments that were part of a highly devolved HRM architecture, through which developmental HR services and accompanying interpretive schemes, norms and resources varied heavily between them. Because of this, findings were sometimes hard to generalise towards more concrete conclusions, limiting their impact and relevance to some degree. Here, future qualitative studies on value-in-use (co-
creation and its underlying mechanisms might benefit from a more concentrated approach. This can for example be done by studying one specific HR service or a set of HR services within one specific department, as this would enable a researcher to better map the relevant antecedents of the kinds and degrees of value-in-use creation, being for example certain interpretive schemes, norms or resources.

Likewise, this study has only investigated developmental HRM, being mainly HR services concerned with training, appraisal, and career development, meaning that conclusions on value creation and its underlying mechanisms can only be generalised to a limited degree. However, as was already discussed above, this also opens up an avenue for future research, as results did show that different interactions and underlying mechanisms in the HR triad are likely to be of importance for the effectiveness of different types of HR services in realising desired outcomes. Thus, future studies might find interesting and enriching results for the HRM research field if they use social structure modalities as a lens for studying HRM service value (co-)creation through different kinds of HR services.

Also, the methodological choices of the current study are subject to various limitations. Most importantly, a convenience sample was used for both the survey and interviews, meaning that employees were free to decide if they wanted to participate or not. While this on the one hand assured a certain degree of willingness and commitment to the research among employees, it might also have provided a distorted image of employee perceptions and the overall state of affairs within departments at Medicorp. For example, most interviewed employees could to a certain degree be characterised as ‘engaged professionals/potentials’, while statements from line managers and especially HR specialists suggested that a significant portion of Medicorp’s employees rather framed themselves as ‘transactional workers’. It is likely that such employees were to a lesser degree inclined to participate in this research, as they were characterised as having a more passive attitude towards new developments and initiatives. Thus, in this sense, future studies on similar topics might benefit from executing a research in such a way that employees’ collective participation is assured beforehand, allowing for the realisation of a more balanced image in the end.

In addition, while HRM service value was also assessed qualitatively, using a quantitative measure for it did not provide a substantive contribution to the results on perceived value by employees. This might be explained by the fact that, in the current study, it is argued that value is emergent in nature (i.e. created in use through applying and integrating resources), as this implies that it occurs in a non-standard and fairly unpredictable way. Therefore, quantitative measures may come short in capturing the full width and depth of value as perceived by employees, implying that qualitative research methods are more fitting. Thus, future studies on HRM service value for employees are likely to benefit more from a sole qualitative approach than a quantitative one, as qualitative measurement allows the researcher to better uncover the process through which value emerges, especially with regard to HR service types that can be subject to very differing interpretations and perceptions among employees (i.e. developmental HR services).

Lastly, this study was carried out in a non-profit healthcare organisation. The characteristics of this sector can be considered quite specific and non-standard when compared to other companies, for example with regard to the type of work that was done or the rules and norms that were regularly attached to competence development, which implies that findings might have been different if another type of organisation would be under study. Thus, future studies could benefit from researching value creation and its underlying mechanisms in other contexts, to eventually strengthen, broaden, and/or refute the findings of the current study.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Given that it is important for organisations to stimulate the creation of HRM service value for and by its employees, this study set out to answer the following research question with regard to developmental HR services:

How can HRM service value creation for and by employees be explained by exploring the interplay among the social structure modalities that actors in the HR triad draw upon in shaping their perceptions and behaviours?

Here, results have shown that the main source of variability in creating HRM for and by employees is the interpretive scheme, or frame, that employees hold on their employment identity, as this informs how and to what degree employees perceive a need for development, are aware of their own responsibility in the EER, and are intrinsically motivated to (co-)create value and to co-produce HR services. Consequently, this determines their attitude towards norms, initiatives, and opportunities to create value through developmental HR services. Here, results showed that the degree to which employees were aligned to their specific profession, and consequently to norms and trends within their institutional environment, influenced the degree to which they adopted an identity and accompanying attitudes that were favourable for HRM service value creation. In addition, the interpretive scheme of line managers on development, the departmental context in which employees found themselves (i.e. valid norms and available resources), and employees’ ability and willingness to use their own resources were identified as either inhibitors or enablers and stimulators in value-in-use (co-)creation processes, depending on the way they took shape within the overall social context.

7. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I am very grateful to my first supervisor J.G. Meijerink for supporting me throughout this master thesis project. I perceived his expertise, enthusiasm, and patience as valuable stimulators for bringing this project to a successful conclusion, while I also very much appreciate the way in which he could bring clarity into my sometimes clouded and narrow way of thinking. Secondly, I want to thank Medicorp and especially its HRM representatives for providing me with the opportunity to execute my research, while being part of their organisation for some time also proved to be a very interesting, informative, and enjoyable experience. Thirdly, I want to thank my second supervisor T. Bondarouk for providing useful critical comments and additional ways of reflection on my work. Lastly, my thanks goes out to my family and friends, who showed interest in my project and supported me during the difficult times that occasionally emerged while executing this research.
8. REFERENCES


9. APPENDICES

9.1 Appendix A: Employee Survey Items (English)

In the eventual survey, respondents were asked to rate the below items based on their opinion about the outcomes that their employer, and more specifically the developmental HR services offered by their employer, had realised for them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-construct:</th>
<th>Original Scale:</th>
<th>Adapted scale:</th>
<th>Source:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Capital</td>
<td>‘Our employees are highly skilled’</td>
<td>‘My employer has helped me in becoming highly skilled’</td>
<td>Youndt et al. (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Our employees are widely considered the best in our industry’</td>
<td>‘My employer makes sure that we as employees are considered the best in our industry’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Our employees are experts in their particular jobs and functions’</td>
<td>‘I consider myself as an expert in my particular job and functions’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Our employees develop new ideas and knowledge’</td>
<td>‘My current firm has enabled me to develop new ideas and knowledge’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Our employees are creative and bright’</td>
<td>‘My current firm has enabled me to develop myself and be creative at work’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Engagement</td>
<td>‘At my work, I feel bursting with energy’</td>
<td>‘I feel bursting with energy at work’</td>
<td>Schaufeli et al. (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘At my job, I feel strong and vigorous’</td>
<td>‘I feel strong and vigorous on the job’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I am enthusiastic about my job’</td>
<td>‘I am enthusiastic about my job’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘My job inspires me’</td>
<td>‘My job inspires me’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work’</td>
<td>‘When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I feel happy when I am working intensively’</td>
<td>‘I feel happy when I am working intensively’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I am proud of the work that I do’</td>
<td>‘I am proud of the work that I do’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I am immersed in my work’</td>
<td>‘I am immersed in my work’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I get carried away when I am working’</td>
<td>‘I often get carried away when I am working’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘My organisation strongly considers my goals and values’</td>
<td>‘My organisation strongly considers my feelings’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘My organisation shows little concern for me’</td>
<td>‘My organisation shows little concern for me’ (reversed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘My organisation cares about my opinions’</td>
<td>‘My organisation cares about my opinions’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘My organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour’</td>
<td>‘My organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem’</td>
<td>‘Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part’</td>
<td>‘My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘If given the opportunity, my organisation would take advantage of me’ (reversed)</td>
<td>‘If given the opportunity, my organisation would take advantage of me’ (reversed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM Service Cost</td>
<td>‘It takes me a lot of effort to make sure that my personal HR data (for example with regard to address, bank account or sick leave) are updated when they change’</td>
<td>‘Participation in trainings and career development activities demand a lot of time and effort from me’</td>
<td>Meijerink et al. (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Making requests concerning personnel and payroll services (being for example leave requests, travel expense declarations, or scheme applications) takes me a lot of time’</td>
<td>‘Participation in performance appraisals costs me a lot of time and effort’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘It takes me a lot of effort to assure that my requests concerning personnel and payroll services (being for example leave requests, travel expense declarations, or scheme applications) are actually processed’</td>
<td>‘It takes a lot of time and effort to get my performance appraised’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I have to spend a lot of time to get an answer to a question that I have for the HR shared service center’</td>
<td>‘It takes me a lot of time and effort to assure that I can participate in trainings and career development activities’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I have to spend a lot of time to obtain information on personnel and payroll services, working conditions or legal issues from the HR shared service center’</td>
<td>‘When I have a question about the services mentioned above, it takes a lot of effort to get an answer to these questions’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Making enquiries to the HR shared service center costs me a lot of effort’</td>
<td>‘When I have a question about the services mentioned above, it takes a lot of effort to get an answer to these questions’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 9.2 Appendix B: Operationalisation Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>1. Construct (Definition)</th>
<th>2. Sub-construct (Definition)</th>
<th>3. Sub-construct (Definition)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>HRM Service Value <em>(The quality and costs that an employee associates with the consumption of developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>HRM Service Quality <em>(the quality and utility of developmental HR services for an employee in terms of abilities, motivations, and opportunities, or in other words, in terms of human capital, work engagement, and perceived organisational support)</em></td>
<td>Human Capital <em>(an individual employee’s knowledge, skills, and abilities)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>HRM Service Cost <em>(the non-monetary costs (sacrifices) that an employee associates with the consumption of developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>Service Co-production <em>(the employee’s or line manager’s participation in the development, implementation, or improvement of developmental HR services by HR specialists)</em></td>
<td>Work Engagement <em>(a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>HR Triad Interaction <em>(mutual or reciprocal action where two or more parties have an effect upon another through co-producing (i.e. developing and implementing) developmental HR services or through co-creating value-in-use during the usage of these services)</em></td>
<td>Value-in-use Co-creation <em>(line manager or HR specialist involvement in the employee’s HR service consumption processes by facilitating them to better create value-in-use and to derive benefits from utilising developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>Perceived Organisational Support <em>(an employee’s global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Social Structures <em>(empirically unobservable rules (i.e. interpretive schemes and norms) and resources that directly influence perceptions and actions of, and social activities among individuals during the development, implementation, and usage of developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>Interpretive Schemes <em>(the underlying sets of values, beliefs, and experiences that actors adopt and acquire over time, and upon which they consequently draw during the development, implementation, and usage of developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Resources <em>(actual or potential means for achieving one’s goals in relation to the development, implementation, and usage of developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>Norms <em>(the (collective) expectations surrounding an individual’s rights and obligations during the development, implementation, and usage of developmental HR services)</em></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9.3 Appendix C: Employee Interview Guide (Dutch)

Introductie/Algemeen:

➔ Bespreken survey resultaten waar nodig (als aanleiding voor de rest van het interview)
- Kunt u iets vertellen over uzelf en uw werk? Wat is uw formele functieomschrijving en wat voor werk voert u uit van dag tot dag?
- Hoe zou u de algemene culuur binnen uw organisatie, en meer specifiek binnen uw afdeling, beschrijven?

P&O Diensten:

1. Waarover gaat P&O in uw beleving? En waarmee houdt de afdeling zich bezig in uw ogen?
   a. Wat is volgens u het doel dat P&O nastreeft, en hoe tracht men dit te realiseren? Kunt u zich hierin vinden? Wat zou volgens u het doel van P&O moeten zijn?
   b. Hoe denkt u dat het P&O beleid ontwikkeld en uitgevoerd wordt?
   c. Vindt u dat P&O u beperkt in uw werk, of vindt u dat de afdeling juist zaken voor u mogelijk maakt? Waarom?
   d. Wat zou er in uw ogen moeten veranderen aan het P&O beleid en haar diensten in de toekomst? En wat is goed aan het huidige beleid?

2. Wat is voor uzelf het nut van P&O, en meer specifiek van de diensten gericht op individuele ontwikkeling, zoals training, beoordeling (d.w.z. met name het jaargesprek), en carrièreontwikkeling?
   a. Worden deze diensten aangeboden en ontvangt u deze ook? Wat houden deze diensten volgens u in? Wat verwacht u van ze en wat leveren ze u daadwerkelijk op?
   b. Wanneer en waarom maakt u gebruik van deze diensten (i.e. welke doelen wilt u ermee bereiken)? En hoe? Wat heeft u nodig om effectief gebruik te maken van deze P&O diensten?

3. Hebt u het gevoel dat P&O diensten (rondom individuele ontwikkeling) of P&O in het algemeen invloed hebben op uw gedrag en uw werk? Zo ja, hoe?

Samenwerking met directe leidinggevende en P&O adviseur:

1. Hoe werkt u samen met uw directe leidinggevende? En op het gebied van P&O gerelateerde zaken (e.v.t. nader uitleggen → werkrelatie e.d.)? Hoe werkt u samen met de P&O adviseur van uw afdeling?
   a. Voor welke doeleinden werkt u met hen samen?
   b. In welke mate heeft u het gevoel dat uw leidinggevende en P&O adviseur en/of P&O medewerkers er alles aan doen om u tevreden te stellen en u te helpen/assisteren tijdens uw werk? En tijdens het gebruik van P&O diensten specifiek? Hoe zou dit beter kunnen?
   c. In hoeverre heeft u het gevoel dat u met hen op één lijn zit?
   d. Welke omgangs-normen hanteert u op het gebied van deze samenwerking (e.v.t. voorbeelden noemen)? Zijn anderen (d.w.z. alle relevante betrokkenen) het eens met deze normen?
   e. Wat is uw beeld bij de samenwerking tussen uw leidinggevende en P&O adviseur onderling?
   f. Ontstaat er wel eens een conflict tussen u, uw leidinggevende en/of de P&O adviseur? Indien ja, waarover gaat een dergelijk conflict dan en hoe uit zich dit?

2. Wat verwacht u van uw leidinggevende en P&O adviseur (d.w.z. rechten en plichten)? En specifiek op het gebied van P&O?
Maken zij deze verwachtingen waar?
   a. Welke rechten en plichten heeft u, of denkt u zelf te hebben op het gebied van P&O? En met betrekking tot de samenwerking met leidinggevende en P&O adviseur?
   b. Wat heeft u nodig van uw leidinggevende en P&O adviseur om uw werk goed uit te kunnen voeren? En om goed en voldoende gebruik te maken van P&O diensten?
   c. Waarover beschikt u zelf waardoor u uw werk goed kunt uitvoeren? En om goed en voldoende gebruik te maken van P&O diensten? Hoe probeert u dit zelf uit te breiden?
   d. Heeft u het gevoel dat uw leidinggevende en P&O adviseur uw duurzame inzetbaarheid in acht nemen? Hoe? En wat doet u hier zelf voor?

3. Hoe probeert u proactief bij te dragen aan P&O en de eerder genoemde diensten (i.e. ontwikkeling, implementatie, uitvoering → voorbeelden noemen)? En aan een goede samenwerking met leidinggevende en P&O adviseur? Zou u dit meer of vaker willen doen?

Persoonlijk leiderschap:

1. Waarop heeft volgens u de term ‘persoonlijk leiderschap’ betrekking? Wat is volgens u het doel en de achterliggende gedachte van dit initiatief? (evt. naderhand persoonlijk leiderschap uitleggen)
2. In welke mate vindt u dat u een persoonlijk leider bent?
3. In welke mate vindt u dat uw leidinggevende u stimuleert om een persoonlijk leider te zijn? In hoeverre…:
a. … geeft hij/zij u vertrouwen, verantwoordelijkheid, en vrijheid in het organiseren en uitvoeren van uw werk?
b. … wordt ondernemend en innovatief gedrag door uw werkgever, en meer specifiek door de leidinggevende, beloond?
c. … heeft u inspraak in de gang van zaken op uw afdeling?

4. Bent u bereid concessies te doen aan uw leidinggevende/P&O adviseur als zij iets van u vragen (i.e. tegemoetkomen)? En doen zij dit ook naar u toe?

5. Hoe tracht u proactief bij te dragen aan de doelstellingen van uw afdeling, of die van uw werkgever in het algemeen (bijv. het zoeken van creatieve en niet van tevoren vaststaande oplossingen)? Gaat u hierbij verder dan uw functieomschrijving?
   a. In hoeverre heeft u het gevoel dat u in uw werk echt een bijdrage levert aan uw organisatie? Gelooft u in uw eigen kunnen op dit gebied?
   b. In welke mate heeft u zelf een duidelijk doel voor ogen met betrekking tot uw bijdrage aan uw organisatie? Zo ja, wat houdt dit doel in en wat zijn de bewegredenen erachter?

6. In hoeverre vindt u dat uw werk blijvend goed aansluit bij u als persoon, en dat u uw kwaliteiten ten volle kunt ontplooien in uw werk?
   a. Indien u hierin een mismatch ervaart, probeert u hier dan zelf verandering in te brengen of zou u dit willen doen? En hoe?
   b. In hoeverre heeft u het gevoel dat u door uw werk een bijdrage levert aan uw eigen welzijn (i.e. beleving, tevredenheid etc.)? Haalt u voldoening en motivering uit uw werk? Hoe?

7. Heeft u intenties om te groeien bij uw werkgever? En op welk gebied (bijv. nieuwe functie, groei in huidige functie)? Hoe probeert u dit te realiseren?
   a. In hoeverre neemt u wel eens nieuwe taken op u, of probeert u bestaande taken te combineren?
   b. Hoe gaat u om met nieuwe ontwikkelingen op uw werk?

8. In welke mate vindt u dat u een voorbeeld bent voor uw collega’s, en dat u hen probeert te stimuleren?
   a. In hoeverre gaat u lastige onderwerpen op de werkvloer niet/wel uit de weg?
   b. Zoekt u graag de samenwerking met uw leidinggevende en/of uw collega’s? Waarom wel/niet?

Slot:
- Is er iets vergeten of zijn er nog zaken die besproken moeten worden?
9.4 Appendix D: Line Manager Interview Guide (Dutch)

Introductie/Algemeen:

- Kunt u iets vertellen over uzelf en uw werk? Wat is uw formele functieomschrijving en wat voor werk voert u uit van dag tot dag?
- Hoe zou u de algemene cultuur binnen uw organisatie, en meer specifiek binnen uw afdeling, beschrijven?

P&O Diensten:

1. Waarover gaat P&O in uw beleving? En waarmee houdt de afdeling zich bezig in uw ogen?
   a. Wat is volgens u het doel dat P&O nastreeft, en hoe tracht men dit te realiseren? Kunt u u zelf hierin vinden? Wat zou volgens u het doel van P&O moeten zijn?
   b. Hoe denkt u dat het P&O beleid ontwikkeld en uitgevoerd wordt?
   c. Vindt u dat P&O u beperkt in uw werk, of vindt u dat de afdeling juist zaken voor u mogelijk maakt? Waarom?
   d. Wat zou er in uw ogen moeten veranderen aan het P&O beleid en haar diensten in de toekomst? En wat is goed aan het huidige beleid?

2. Wat denkt u dat het nut van P&O is voor medewerkers, en meer specifiek het nut van de diensten gericht op individuele ontwikkeling, zoals training, beoordeling (d.w.z. met name het jaargesprek), en carrièreontwikkeling?
   a. Wat houden deze diensten volgens u in? Wat verwacht u van ze?
   b. Wanneer en waarom maken medewerkers gebruik van deze diensten (i.e. welke doelen willen zij ermee bereiken)?
   c. En hoe?
   d. Probeert u het gebruik van deze diensten door medewerkers te stimuleren? Zo ja, hoe?
   e. Probeert u medewerkers te helpen in het gebruik van deze diensten, of op het gebied van P&O in het algemeen? Zo ja, hoe?

3. Hebt u het gevoel dat P&O diensten (rondom individuele ontwikkeling) of P&O in het algemeen invloed hebben op het gedrag en het werk van medewerkers? Zo ja, hoe?

Samenwerking medewerkers en P&O adviser:

4. Hoe werkt u samen met uw medewerkers? En op het gebied van P&O gerelateerde zaken (e.v.t. nader uitleggen → werkrelatie e.d.)? Hoe werkt u samen met de P&O adviseur van uw afdeling?
   a. Voor welke doeleinden werkt u met hen samen? Hoe vertaalt u het P&O beleid naar uw medewerkers?
   b. In welke mate heeft u het gevoel dat P&O adviseurs en medewerkers er alles aan doen om u tevreden te stellen en u te helpen/assisteren tijdens uw werk? En op het gebied van P&O diensten specifiek? Hoe zou dit beter kunnen?
   c. In hoeverre heeft u het gevoel dat u met medewerkers en P&O adviseurs op één lijn zit?
   d. Welke (omgangs-)normen hanteert u op het gebied van deze samenwerking (e.v.t. voorbeelden noemen)? Zijn andere (d.w.z. alle relevante betrokkenen) het eens met deze normen?
   e. Wat is uw beeld bij de samenwerking tussen uw medewerkers en P&O adviseur onderling?
   f. Ontstaat er wel eens een conflict tussen u, uw medewerkers en/of de P&O adviseur? Indien ja, waarover gaat een dergelijk conflict dan en hoe uit zich dit?

5. Wat verwacht u van uw medewerkers en P&O adviseur (d.w.z. rechten en plichten)? En specifiek op het gebied van P&O? Maken zij deze verwachtingen waar?
   a. Welke rechten en plichten heeft u, of denkt u zelf te hebben op het gebied van P&O? En met betrekking tot de samenwerking met medewerkers en P&O adviseur?
   b. Wat heeft u nodig van uw medewerkers en P&O adviseur om uw werk goed uit te kunnen voeren?
   c. Waarover beschikt u zelf waardoor u uw werk goed kunt uitvoeren? Hoe probeert u dit zelf uit te breiden?
   d. Hoe gaat u om met de duurzame inzetbaarheid van medewerkers? En hoe denkt u dat P&O adviseurs dit doen? En medewerkers zelf?

6. Hoe probeert u proactief bij te dragen aan P&O en de eerder genoemde diensten (i.e. ontwikkeling, implementatie, uitvoering → voorbeelden noemen)? En aan een goede samenwerking met medewerkers en P&O adviseur? Zo u dit meer of vaker willen doen?

Persoonlijk leiderschap:

9. Waarop heeft volgens u de term ‘persoonlijk leiderschap’ betrekking? Wat is volgens u het doel en de achterliggende gedachte van dit initiatief? (evt. naderhand persoonlijk leiderschap uitleggen)

10. In welke mate vindt u dat medewerkers persoonlijk leider zijn? Hoezeer verschilt dit per medewerker?

11. In welke mate vindt u dat u uw medewerkers stimuleert om een persoonlijk leider te zijn? In welke mate…:
   a. … geeft u hen vertrouwen, verantwoordelijkheid, en vrijheid in het organiseren en uitvoeren van hun werk?
   b. … belooft u ondermendem en innovatief gedrag?
   c. … geeft u medewerkers inspraak in de gang van zaken op uw afdeling?
d. ... stimuleert u medewerkers om nieuwe taken op zich te nemen of bestaande taken te combineren?

e. ... probeert u medewerkers in aanraking te brengen met nieuwe ontwikkelingen op het werk?

12. Bent u bereid concessies te doen aan uw medewerkers/P&O adviseur als zij iets van u vragen (i.e. tegemoetkomen)? En doen zij dit ook naar u toe?

13. Hoe tracht u medewerkers te ondersteunen om bij te dragen aan de doelstellingen van uw afdeling, of die van uw werkgever in het algemeen? En zodat zij zich prettig en tevreden voelen op het werk?
   a. Hoe probeert u op een flexibele wijze samen te werken met medewerkers? Gaat u de dialoog met hen aan?
   b. In welke mate ziet u zichzelf als een talentmanager van medewerkers?
   c. In hoeverre zoekt u samen met medewerkers naar creatieve en niet van tevoren vaststaande oplossingen?
   d. Probeer u medewerkers dusdanig te ondersteunen dat hun werk blijvend goed aansluit bij hun persoon, kwaliteiten, kennis en vaardigheden (i.e. lifetime employability)? Wat doet u als hierin een mismatch blijkt te zijn?

14. In welke mate vindt u dat u een voorbeeld bent voor uw medewerkers en dat u hen probeert te stimuleren?
   a. In hoeverre gaat u lastige onderwerpen op de werkvloer niet/wel uit de weg?
   b. Zoekt u graag de samenwerking met uw P&O adviseur en/of uw medewerkers? Waarom wel/niet?
9.5 Appendix E: HR Specialist Interview Guide (Dutch)

Introductie/Algemeen:

- Kunt u iets vertellen over uzelf en uw werk? Wat is uw formele functieomschrijving en wat voor werk voert u uit van dag tot dag?
- Hoe zou u de algemene cultuur binnen uw organisatie beschrijven?

P&O Diensten:

4. Waarover gaat P&O in uw beleving? En waarmee houdt de afdeling zich bezig in uw ogen?
   a. Wat is volgens u het doel dat P&O nastreeft, en hoe tracht men dit te realiseren? Kunt u uzelf hierin vinden? Wat zou volgens u het doel van P&O moeten zijn?
   b. Hoe wordt het P&O beleid ontwikkeld en uitgevoerd?
   c. Vindt u dat P&O anderen beperkt in hun werk, of vindt u dat de afdeling juist zaken voor anderen mogelijk maakt? Waarom?
   d. Wat zou er in uw ogen moeten veranderen aan het P&O beleid en haar diensten in de toekomst? En wat is goed aan het huidige beleid?

5. Wat denkt u dat het nut van P&O is voor medewerkers, en meer specifiek het nut van de diensten gericht op individuele ontwikkeling, zoals training, beoordeling (d.w.z. met name het jaargesprek), en carrièreontwikkeling?
   a. Wat houden deze diensten volgens u in? Wat verwacht u van ze?
   b. Wanneer en waarom maken medewerkers gebruik van deze diensten (i.e. welke doelen willen zij ermee bereiken)? En hoe?
   c. Probeer u het gebruik van deze diensten door medewerkers te stimuleren? Zo ja, hoe?
   d. Probeer u medewerkers te helpen in het gebruik van deze diensten, of op het gebied van P&O in het algemeen? Zo ja, hoe?

6. Hebt u het gevoel dat P&O diensten (rondom individuele ontwikkeling) of P&O in het algemeen invloed hebben op het gedrag en het werk van medewerkers? Zo ja, hoe?

Samenwerking met medewerkers en leidinggevenden:

7. Hoe werkt u samen met directe leidinggevenden? Hoe werkt u samen met medewerkers?
   a. Voor welke doeleinden werkt u met hen samen?
   b. In welke mate heeft u het gevoel dat directe leidinggevenden er alles aan doen om u tevreden te stellen en u te helpen/assisteren tijdens uw werk? En op het gebied van P&O diensten specifiek? Hoe vertalen zij het P&O beleid naar de medewerkers? Hoe zou dit beter kunnen?
   c. In hoeverre heeft u het gevoel dat u met medewerkers en directe leidinggevenden op één lijn zit?
   d. Welke (omgangs-)normen hanteert u op het gebied van deze samenwerking (e.v.t. voorbeelden noemen)? Zijn anderen (d.w.z. alle relevante betrokkenen) het eens met deze normen?
   e. Wat is uw beeld bij de samenwerking tussen leidinggevenden en medewerkers onderling?
   f. Ontstaat er wel eens een conflict tussen u, leidinggevenden en/of medewerkers? Indien ja, waarover gaat een dergelijk conflict dan en hoe uit zich dit?

8. Wat verwacht u van uw directe leidinggevenden en medewerkers (d.w.z. rechten en plichten)? En specifiek op het gebied van P&O? Maken zij deze verwachtingen waar?
   a. Welke (omgangs-)normen heeft u, of denkt u zelf te hebben op het gebied van P&O? En met betrekking tot de samenwerking met leidinggevenden en medewerkers?
   b. Wat heeft u nodig van directe leidinggevenden en medewerkers om uw werk goed uit te kunnen voeren?
   c. Waarover beschikt u zelf waardoor u uw werk goed kunt uitvoeren? Hoe probeert u dit zelf uit te breiden?
   d. Hoe gaat u om met de duurzame inzetbaarheid van medewerkers? En hoe denkt u dat leidinggevenden dit doen? En medewerkers zelf?

9. Proberen leidinggevenden en/of medewerkers proactief bij te dragen aan P&O en de eerder genoemde diensten (i.e. ontwikkeling, implementatie, uitvoering voorbeelden noemen)? En hoe draagt u zelf bij aan een goede samenwerking met medewerkers en leidinggevenden? Zou u dit meer of vaker willen doen?

Persoonlijk leiderschap:

15. Waarop heeft volgens u de term ‘persoonlijk leiderschap’ betrekking? Wat is volgens u het doel en de achterliggende gedachte van dit initiatief?
16. In welke mate vindt u dat medewerkers persoonlijk leider zijn? Hoezeer verschilt dit per medewerker?
17. In welke mate vindt u dat medewerkers stimuleert om een persoonlijk leider te zijn? Hoe doet u dit?
   a. In welke mate heeft u het gevoel dat leidinggevenden dit doen (bijv. door het geven van verantwoordelijkheid en vrijheid in organiseren, of door het stimuleren van creatief en innovatief gedrag)?
18. Bent u bereid **concessies** te doen aan leidinggevenden/medewerkers als zij iets van u vragen (i.e. tegemoetkomen)? En doen zij dit ook naar u toe?

19. Hoe tracht u medewerkers te **ondersteunen om bij te dragen** aan de doelstellingen van hun afdeling, of die van uw werkgever in het algemeen? En zodat zij zich prettig en tevreden voelen op het werk?
   a. Hoe probeert u op een flexibele wijze samen te werken met medewerkers? Gaat u de dialoog met hen aan?
   b. In hoeverre zoekt u samen met medewerkers naar creatieve en niet van tevoren vaststaande oplossingen?
   c. Probeer u medewerkers dusdanig te ondersteunen dat hun werk blijvend goed aansluit bij hun persoon, kwaliteiten, kennis en vaardigheden (i.e. **lifetime employability**)? Wat doet u als hierin een mismatch blijkt te zijn?

20. In welke mate vindt u dat u een **voorbeeld** bent voor uw medewerkers en leidinggevenden, en dat u hen probeert te stimuleren?
   a. In hoeverre gaat u **lastige onderwerpen** op de werkvloer niet/wel uit de weg?
   b. Zoekt u graag de samenwerking met leidinggevenden en/of medewerkers? Waarom wel/niet?