Are they listening? Assessing authentic membership of two groups and its influence on employee attention to diverse internal communication channels

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to understand the relationship between an individual's perception of how authentic their group membership is, measured by corporate authenticity (CA) and work role authenticity (WRA) and one's openness to channels of internal communication namely email, face-to-face, intranet and social media with particular reference to the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

A systematic literature review and structured interviews with 14 internal communication experts were undertaken to develop definitions and questionnaire items for CA and WRA and questionnaire items for IC channels. The final questionnaire was distributed, online, n=72. Respondent completions were restricted by the outbreak of COVID-19.

Phase one results indicated multi-faceted definitions for CA and WRA with three topic areas and several themes in each. The most represented themes for the 14 interviewees in phase one were, for CA sense of belonging and care and identifying with the brand and for WRA having pride and passion for the job, wanting to do a good job and wanting to improve. The measure of CA and four measures of openness to IC channels have been validated n=72. Phase two indicated significant positive relationships between CA, WRA and communication channels except for intranet communication. WRA showed trends for a stronger relationship with email and social media, but this was not significant.

This study concludes that CA and WRA conceptually locate within the SAFE model of state authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). Organisations can use this to develop individuals and manage careers. Authentic membership of a group impacts on openness to internal communication channels. IC Managers can use this information to better direct internal communication by choosing appropriate channels. Increasing the sample size will help to further develop these measures, increase their validity and increase generalisability by exploring their use in other cases.

1.0 Chapter one - introduction

1.1 Overview

The purpose of this thesis is to understand the relationship between one's perceived authenticity of group membership, measured by work role and corporate authenticity, and one's openness to diverse channels of internal communication in organisations. Budgets allocated to internal communications have been falling for over a decade (Melcrum Ltd, 2011; Miller, 2017), indeed Miller (2017) quotes a reduction of around 25% from 2013 to 2017. Given this need for IC teams to do more with less it is important for communication to gain attention quickly without a need to repeat messages. Audience segmentation allows one to understand each audience and better direct communication. This study helps to create and understand two audiences, work role authentic and corporately authentic (CA and WRA) which are based on an individual's perceived authenticity of group membership. The individual aspect to group membership helps to apply these groups across the organisation and adds another layer to the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) based on individual preference and attitude. The study has two phases: phase one takes an interpretivist and inductive approach to build a better theoretical picture of how perceptions of authentic membership of groups affects individual attention to diverse channels of internal communication and design questionnaires to measure them. Phase two takes a positivist deductive approach to testing the questionnaires in order to better understand relationships between them. The two main fields of research under scrutiny are authenticity and internal communication which will be considered separately in this discussion before examining the relationships between them.

In phase one, clearer definitions of work role and corporate authenticity were created utilising theoretical perspectives from authenticity (Bialystok, 2014; Guignon, 2008), identity and social identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989) and state authenticity (Lenton et al., 2013; Lenton, Slabu and Sedikides, 2016; Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). A workable definition of openness to internal communication was identified, applying communication theory (McQuail, 2000) and theories of attention (Graf and Aday, 2008; McQuail and Windahl, 1993), within the context of a stakeholder approach to internal

communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Other group-focused models of audience segmentation were considered and rejected, like stakeholder salience theory (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997) and situational theory of publics (Grunig, 2005). However, these models created groups based on organisational imperatives rather than, in this thesis, individual preferences. In addition, the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) allows for the inclusion of corporate communication which is closer to the focus of this thesis. These definitions were supported by discussions with internal communications specialists who provided insight, context and specificity.

In phase two the measures of corporate authenticity, openness to email, face-to-face communication, intranet and social media were found to be reliable measures of those concepts with respect to internal consistency. WRA provides a solid basis for further development and identifies some trends from which to further review the construct of WRA.

CA and WRA both have significant positive correlations with, in order of strength, face-to-face, email and social media and a non-significant negative correlation with intranet communication. Intranet communication has a negative correlation with all other variables.

CA is significantly better at predicting openness to email and face-to-face communication than WRA. Neither WRA nor CA have a significant impact on openness to intranet communication or social media, although WRA has a slight negative impact on openness to intranet.

1.2 Personal motivation

My name is Kevin Rodgers and I am a Chartered Occupational Psychologist. My interest in how people respond to corporate messages comes from many years working in factories, processing plants and as a consultant. Internal communication appears to connect with some employees more than others. Some relish corporate communication from the organisation and follow this up to find out more, whereas others focus on doing a good 'technical' job and are more inclined to engage with communication connected with their work role. They saw corporate

communication as a distraction to this and would ignore important messages that would benefit them and the team. At that time, I did not have the psychological or organisational knowledge to understand the impact this orientation could have on employees' behaviour or communication strategy.

When I first entered the workplace, communication was either written or face-to-face. Employees were less likely to openly reject a corporate message because, in most cases, it would be delivered by one's manager in a team meeting. Written communication gives much more scope for rejection, perhaps because the sender is geographically removed from the receiver, rather like email and social media. As email became widespread, one found it much easier to reject messages without fear of direct confrontation. This places the sender at a disadvantage, as clicking delete is much quicker and easier than providing feedback. Thus, the opportunity to 'fine tune' one's message, from direct feedback, is reduced.

The introduction of social media presents greater opportunity for a dialogue but much more complexity in exploring openness to messages cascaded using social media. Many forms of social media, proactively, prompt comment and the ensuing 'discussion' takes on more value than the original message posted. Some elements of social media are visual, with little if any text, which prompts questions around whether different aesthetics in social media support or compromise work role and corporate authenticity.

As highlighted above, by understanding these two types of employees and treating them as two differing audiences it gives internal communicators more opportunities to gain attention by choosing more appropriate channels of communication.

The two responses to internal communication noted above create a kernel that this research will develop into new concepts of work role and corporate authenticity. Each represents both an approach to internal communication and a group of employees, or stakeholder group, each with similar attitudes to internal communication. This can help organisations by segmenting audiences into stakeholder groups and, using Welch and Jackson's stakeholder approach (2007),

better directing internal communication to gain maximum attention and make efficient use of resources and budgets. CA and WRA can also be used to better understand individuals at work and impact on career management and performance management.

1.3 Scope

The scope of this research covers new theoretical models and practical application. As highlighted in the conclusion and later in this chapter, this research offers new concepts of work role and corporate authenticity to add to the theory. Also, this research offers a new layer to the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) based on individual preferences and attitudes consisting of CA and WRA. From a practical sense this layer can help to direct and measure internal communication more effectively (Melcrum Ltd, 2011). Further practical application includes the design of questionnaires to measure CA and WRA and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication.

1.4 Research aims

1.4.1 The research aim:

- To explore the extent to which CA and WRA influence openness to different channels of internal communication (IC) in organisations.

1.4.2 Research Objectives

- The extent to which CA and WRA are independent aspects of authenticity that co-exist within the self.
- To identify the extent to which CA and WRA comprise independent variables.
- To explore enhancements to existing stakeholder based internal communication frameworks to create opportunities to provide alternative approaches for communication strategy and improve internal communication practice.
- To explore the relationships between elements concerned with social values like building benefits for the organisational society or team relationships (CA) and those of self-fulfilment like pride and passion in wanting to do a good job and a desire to improve (WRA).

1.4.3 Research questions:

How can we define corporate and work role authenticity within the context of modern-day organisations?

How do we define openness to internal communication within the context of modern-day organisations?

To what extent are CA and WRA independent aspects of authenticity that co-exist within the self and comprise independent variables?

1. *Are the questionnaire items measuring corporate authenticity and work role authenticity measuring two discrete concepts?*

2. *Is corporate authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is work role authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

How can we measure the likelihood that employees will pay attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Is openness to face-to-face communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

2. *Is openness to email communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is openness to intranet communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

4. *Is openness to social media communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

How much influence does an individual's perceived authentic membership of groups like CA and WRA have on attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Does CA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

2. *Does WRA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

Authentic membership of which group (WRA or CA) has more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?

1. *Does CA have more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

2. *Does WRA have more influence on with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

1.5 Authenticity

This research will focus on the impact that authentic membership of work groups can have on one's openness to channels of internal communication. CA and WRA are novel concepts and this research seeks to define them within the context of ordinary, essential and existential definitions of authenticity (Guignon, 2008; Bialystok, 2014), social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) and state authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018).

Bialystok (2014) argues there are many philosophical lenses through which we can view authenticity, which makes identifying authenticity definitions difficult (Golomb, 1995). Bialystok (2014) emphasises the point that if the three ordinary descriptions of authenticity, historical, original and truthful, are applied to individuals then there are, potentially, three versions of self within one entity.

Bialystok (2014, p. 281) argues that the way to resolve this is to describe authenticity as a "convergence between a person's essence and her behaviour" (Stevenson and Waite, 2011) which provides for a start point (one's current behaviour) and an end point (one's essence).

Essentialist authenticity suggests the inner self is authentic and the outer self, influenced by society's expectations, is inauthentic (Bialystok, 2014). Guignon (2004) highlights, self-discovery is not about finding something that already exists, but it is found in the journey towards self-definition. Garnett (2013) argues that for self-rule in autonomy, the ruling aspect of self must be more authentic than the

non-ruling aspects. This is key to self being comprised of multiple aspects, like CA and WRA, each being more, or less, authentic than other aspects (Guignon, 2004; Yacobi., 2012; Bialystok, 2014; Varga and Guignon, 2016) and provides a basis for this research: that is whether CA and WRA are independent aspects of authenticity that co-exist within the self.

Social identity theory helps us to understand how one's authentic membership of a group, can refine one's identity, as well as contribute to the group (Lenton et al., 2013).

Group membership causes individuals to: self-assess as prototypical of the group (Hogg and Hardie, 1991), participate in group behaviours to ingratiate themselves (Ethier and Deaux, 1994), and have higher in-group identification and commitment - as well as giving individuals a more positive view of the group (Stets and Burke, 2000).

Ashforth and Mael (1989) propose social identity theory, within the workplace, can be driven by the organisation or can be function or team based. Thus, an employee could have many workplace identities, depending on their job and the teams they work within.

The concept of state authenticity appears to give a workable conceptualisation of multiple authenticities within the workplace. Individuals decide how authentic situations are, based on how congruent they are, with that individual's values of self (Fridhandler, 1986). Thus, within different workplace groups one can feel more or less authentic towards that group.

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) assert that, if social identity is an important source of information, about the fit between individuals and a context, then individuals who hold natural membership of these social groups will enjoy a more authentic experience.

CA and WRA encompass two social groups and it is how authentic one feels, as a member of these two groups, that comprises two independent variables in this research, and answers a call from Welch and Jackson (2007) for alternative

stakeholder groups. Dependant variables focus on openness to different channels of internal communication, which is discussed in the next section.

1.6 Internal communication

This research expands on the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007) by offering two stakeholder groups, based on individual preferences, which places an additional layer over the stakeholder model. A workable definition of openness to internal communication was identified, applying communication theory (McQuail, 2000) and theories of attention (Graf and Aday, 2008; McQuail and Windahl, 1993).

Grunig and Hunt (1984) acknowledge the need for segregating employees into different publics to make sure each group has the information they need. Scholes and Clutterbuck (1998) emphasise that a stakeholder approach is critical to practical communication success.

Several models of audience segmentation were considered (Kalla, 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021) like situational theory of publics (Grunig, 2005) and Entrepreneurial Communication Paradigm (ECP) which seeks to gather existing research under a model of entrepreneurship (Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012). However, these models were rejected because they create groups based solely on organisational imperatives rather than as in this thesis, individual preferences.

The stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007) creates a baseline of stakeholder groups also based on organisation hierarchy or imperatives but includes a corporate group (all employees) and call for suggested alternative groups. In presenting the stakeholder approach, Welch and Jackson (2007) identify two gaps in the literature. One, how alternative stakeholder groups might work within the model and two, how different types of media impact on the model. This research covers both alternative stakeholder groups, CA and WRA, and four popular channels of communication.

To explore the relationship between CA and WRA and channels of communication, this research employs communication theory, more specifically attention. Dennis McQuail (2000) proposes the **publicity, or display-attention model** of communication, where the focus is on gaining attention to communication as, without attention, there can be no knowledge transfer. This research locates itself within this model as, being open to communication channels precedes attention.

Many researchers advocate the use of multi-method approaches in communication campaigns (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992; McQuail and Windahl, 1993; McQuail, 2000; Scholes, 1997; Kalla, 2005; Araújo and Miranda, 2021) and especially in the evaluation of effectiveness of communication strategies (Scholes, 1997). This approach helps to refine strategies in line with the benefits of each model but McQuail (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992), emphasises several types of filter that hinder or facilitate the flow of messages. Even in multi-method approaches, McQuail emphasised that attention is the most important.

The final consideration, regarding internal communication, is selective attention which is a brain function that gives selected messages more prominence (Chelazzi et al., 2013). Thus we prefer information consistent with previously held beliefs and avoid information that is counter to those beliefs (Graf and Aday, 2008; Song, 2017; Chelazzi et al., 2013). Given this, WRA stakeholders will be more likely to attend to information about their job role and CA stakeholders will attend to information about the organisation. As a result, corporate messages may not be adequately received by WRA stakeholders and vice versa. This may lead internal communicators to review their IC strategy in light of this alternative layer of the stakeholder theory (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

A more detailed exploration of authenticity and internal communication theory can be found in chapters two and three respectively.

1.7 Contributions to theory
Whilst Guignon (2008) and Bialystok (2014) capture some of the complexities of identity and authenticity they pay less attention to the authenticity of group membership. State authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) goes some way to

explore how authenticity can vary, within the individual, depending on the situation using the SAFE (State Authenticity as a Fit to Environment) model. This research has added to the theory by making the link between the authenticity of group identity and membership of multiple social groups guided by social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) which allows for several social identities, towards which, one can be more or less authentic.

This research contributes to the theory with a positively focused scaled measure of authenticity. At any point on the scale, one is, to some extent, authentic and from a developmental perspective, able and encouraged to develop oneself, towards optimal group behaviour. This supports the view that people aspire to reach optimal behaviour to distinguish themselves from out-groups, ingratiate themselves with the in-group and build commitment (Ethier and Deaux, 1994; Stets and Burke, 2000). The conclusions are contrary to Yacobi (2012), who proposed authenticity as an absolute without partial values and with a lack of definable points.

Welch and Jackson (2007) make a call for alternative stakeholder groups, to add to their model, and this research adds to the theory by exploring the influence of two new stakeholder groups, namely CA and WRA, on four channels of internal communication. They provide another layer to the stakeholder approach by leveraging individual preferences rather than organisational structures.

The final contribution to theory, made by this research, is bringing varied internal communication channels into the stakeholder approach. Welch and Jackson (2007) identify a gap in the literature about types of communication media and whether they are suitable to meet the needs of different employee, or stakeholder, groups. They go on to propose that, with new types of employee roles appearing, to manage the changing face of the workplace, there is a need for further research into the extent to which employees have different internal communication preferences.

1.8 Research design

The research is split into two, cross sectional, phases employing a sequential mixed methods approach.

1.8.1 Phase one

Phase one takes an interpretivist philosophy, and utilises an inductive methodology based on a case study approach. The main activities include interviewing internal communication specialists and IC Managers to explore themes around authenticity and internal communication. The main outputs of phase one are, 1, descriptive themes used to define work role and corporate authenticity and 2, exploration of current practices for the strategy and operationalisation of internal communication, focusing on email, face-to-face, intranet and social media channels, and articulation of key themes. Analysis was conducted using grounded theory approach with Nvivo to support classification of data. Further details of these themes can be found in chapter five with ensuing discussion in chapter six. From these themes, questionnaire items were created that reflect these themes for operationalisation in phase two. The final questionnaire version can be found in appendix 1.

1.8.2 Phase two

Phase two takes a deductive philosophy using a survey strategy to test out these new theories with a cross section of individuals. The individuals work in various positions within the three organisations and will voluntarily complete the short questionnaire which is presented via an online link. The questionnaire has two sections, one focused on orientation towards work role and corporate authenticity and the other on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media channels of internal communication. Phase two will utilise SPSS to analyse questionnaire responses and answer the research questions presented above. The research questions focus on the validity of all six questionnaires, namely, WRA, CA and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication and explore how work role and corporate authenticity can influence openness to these four channels of internal communication. Results of phase two can be found in chapter seven with ensuing discussion in chapter eight.

1.9 Thesis outline

Table 1: Thesis Outline

Chapter one	Introduction	Motivation behind the research, impact of study and overview of research design.
Chapter two	Authenticity	Critical literature review and statement of position on authenticity.
Chapter three	Internal communication	Critical literature review and statement of position on internal communication.
Chapter four	Method	Philosophical approach and research strategy. Description of cases. Data collection and practical delivery of each phase. Overview of analytical approach. Ethical considerations.
Chapter five	Phase one results	Brief discussion and interviewee examples. Overall themes of authenticity, WRA themes, CA themes, IC themes.
Chapter six	Phase one discussion	In depth discussion of themes with more reference to the literature presented in chapters two and three. Presentation of visual model including main clusters (topics) associated with CA and WRA.
Chapter seven	Phase two results	Descriptive statistics, presentation of results ordered by research questions covering each scale and the relationships between them.

Chapter eight	Phase two discussion	Sample characteristics, discussion of research questions covering each scale and the relationships between them.
Chapter nine	Conclusion	Overview of main conclusions, contribution to theory, contribution to practice, research limitations and directions for future research.

1.10 Introduction to literature review

The following chapters review the literature applicable to authenticity and internal communication. In the last chapter, the initial conceptualisation of CA and WRA was highlighted. WRA individuals identify more with their job than the organisation and CA individuals identify more with the organisation than their job. Reviewing authenticity theory, and especially identity theory will help to give some theoretical underpinning to these concepts. Whilst the attitudes and traits in WRA or CA are determined by the individual, this research hopes to offer internal communicators' an opportunity to group these individuals with others who are similarly orientated and use their common attributes to better direct messages.

Social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989) helps us to understand how these attributes and attitudes in WRA or CA are reinforced within the group. State authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) will support the possibility of one adopting different identities depending on the situation which, in part, depends on the social relationships that are present.

Reviewing internal communications theory will help to understand the theoretical mechanisms of the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) and the basic theory behind communication and attention (McQuail and Windahl, 1993; McQuail, 2000). Whilst the stakeholder approach presents four stakeholder groups, all operationally based, Welch and Jackson (2007) call for future research to investigate alternative stakeholder groups. This research answers this gap in the theory by investigating several stakeholder type models of audience segmentation (Kalla, 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021) l, focusing more intently on two alternative stakeholder groups based on individual preferences namely, CA and WRA.

The next chapter begins to explore the literature relating to authenticity.

2.0 Chapter two - authenticity

2.1 Introduction

In the next chapter, we will explore the history, definition, and practical considerations of internal communication, including communication theory and especially, attention and the hypothesised impact of traits like authenticity on an individual's attention to different channels of communication.

This chapter will explore the wide-ranging views of authenticity from philosophical foundations, through authentic identity, driven by membership of social groups to the authentic feelings, individuals have, when in a specific situation, or state for example as a member of two, broad, organisational groups like CA and WRA.

Lionel Trilling, an American literary critic, suggests that the idea of authenticity is relatively new, as a concept, particularly in Western Civilisation (Guignon, 2008). From a historical perspective, Varga and Guignon (2016) describe the origins of authenticity dating back to the 17-18th century when, older concepts of labelling people by their social status or occupation gave way to a more individualistic focus, which is indicated by an increase in autobiographies, published diaries and portraits signposting a shift, in focus, from groups, formed by status or occupation, to an individual perspective.

Amid this social change, sincerity, being truthful in order to be honest during one's dealing with others, came to be replaced by authenticity, being true to oneself for one's own benefit which highlights the trend from group to individual. Being true to oneself became more of a 'final destination' rather than a stop on the journey to sincerity. At this time, authenticity was a critical concept, calling into question the reigning social order and public opinion (Varga and Guignon, 2016).

The interest in authenticity has increased over the past few decades, with the focus predominantly on the whole organisation (Steckler and Clark, 2019, pp. 277-290) or on the authenticity of the leaders of the organisation (Gardner et al., 2011). Authenticity is an important trait in many aspects of business, authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2011; Ford and Harding, 2011; Lawler and Ashman, 2012; Peterson, 2005), inclusion, diversity and engagement (CBI, 2019; Reis, Trullen and Story, 2016), business ethics and the morality of business decisions (Jackson, 2005),

Corporate Governance (Steckler and Clark, 2019) and well-being (Roberts et al., 2009). Authenticity also has a prominent position in popular consciousness, for example, Google searches for authenticity yield 152 million pages, authenticity and business, 144 million pages, authenticity and self-help, 154 million, authenticity and politics, 47 million and authenticity and leadership, 33 million pages, respectively. This study will review how authenticity acts, as a mediating factor, to gain attention to varied channels of internal communication. Given the interest in authenticity and how it impacts on organisations, it is an important and fascinating subject for this study.

2.2 Definition

Before we review more recent research into authenticity, it seems a sensible step to identify what we mean by authenticity. Lauren Bialystok (2014), Canadian social justice theorist, notes that, for many, the notion of authenticity is an intuitive one, with the emphasis on an authentic self, and a need to modify behaviour or lifestyle, to attain authenticity. She goes on to argue that there are many philosophical lenses we can use to view authenticity though reflecting Golomb (1995) who states that the high number of contexts, in which authenticity is placed, may make defining authenticity an impossible task.

One of the issues Bialystok (2014) notes, is our propensity for the continuous development of one's ideals and values, though life events and experiences, either personally experienced or experienced by others, close to us, as well as though new knowledge and information that changes our view of the world. What may have been synergistic, to our view of self-authenticity, may become ill-fitting or discordant as our experiences or new knowledge change our values and shift our sense of self to reflect our newly found values (Guignon, 2004). The question Bialystok (2014) poses, in light of the changes, 'is the second self now the authentic self' and does this new authentic self, negate the value of the first authentic self, making the original self, inauthentic or is the new version of self, inauthentic as it differs from an original version of self? Yacobi (2012), agrees with a flexible view of authenticity, describing authenticity as a dynamic, endless process, of defining one's self in the context of a changing world and society, where authenticity and

inauthenticity are mutually dependent, and remaining authentic, involves constantly re-evaluating principles and ideals, through self-examination, and social interaction.

Guignon, describes authenticity as falling into two main contexts; the first in the area of virtue ethics, where it is connected to self-expression and the second context is in the area of existential philosophy, where it is connected with the views of several philosophers, for example Heidegger who refers to traits like integrity, intensity, lucidity, coherence and honesty (2008). Golomb (1995) takes a slightly different approach, when reflecting on the writings of Sartre, arguing that authenticity is more often defined in its absence, i.e. when there is a lack of authenticity, and points out that the writings of other existentialists, also focus more on inauthentic societal values, rather than authentic living.

Authenticity is described as a human construct, (Yacobi., 2012) which has no reality outside of the human mind and Yacobi goes on to question the notion of the concept, arguing that, given authenticity is a dynamic process, then real authenticity is transient and impossible to maintain indefinitely. Yacobi (2012) goes on to explain that measuring authenticity also creates issues as, without fixed reference points, for authentic and inauthentic absolutes, measuring authenticity is difficult, if not impossible (2012). However, Rousseau, the romantic/essentialist philosopher, takes a different standpoint arguing that, every individual has "a distinctive potential for development built into his or her nature from birth, a 'calling' or 'fate' that he or she ought to realise" (Guignon, 2008, p. 278) which would be regarded, by many, as that elusive end point with which to measure progress towards.

Guignon (1984), counters the view of authenticity as an exclusively positive phenomenon, where human beings are judged to be, on the whole, good natured. He evidences the two world wars as highlighting the negative, cruel and barbaric behaviour of some humans towards their fellow humans. This creates some tension, when defining authenticity, as to accept some definitions of authenticity would suggest that this aggressive, violent and hostile side of people, should be allowed free reign to vent without the shackles of societal norms (Guignon, 2008).

This myriad of definitions and positions, outlines some of the difficulty in identifying a single definition for use in this study. Several philosophers (Bialystok, 2014; Guignon, 2008; Yacobi., 2012) point to four main positions, relating to authenticity, each taking a different philosophical position, which are an ordinary definition, usually applied to inanimate objects, essentialist and existentialist definitions and a question of virtue ethics. The next sections will discuss each, in turn, to provide a theoretical backdrop to the position this study will take.

2.2.1 Orthodox definition

Ordinary definitions of authenticity focus on the concept of being close to the original (Bennis, 2013; Guignon, 2008) and are generally, targeted at inanimate objects or highlighting historical continuity for which Bialystok (2014) suggests that 'original' could be a better synonym.

2.2.1a Orthodox definition one – historical

Only with the passage of time, does the historical sense of authenticity become relevant (Bialystok, 2014), for example, a cottage built in the 1600s may have small windows, thatched roof and stone floors and although, a modern cottage could be built to look like a 1600s cottage, it belies the label of authenticity because it is not originally built in the 1600s. The label of authentic is generally not used when describing modern artefacts until they have a degree of age (Bialystok, 2014; Guignon, 2004), for example a house built in 2020 would not be described as an authentic 2020 house, even though it is. This concept of historical authenticity is difficult to apply to people, however, Bialystok (2014), suggests it could imply people would be behaving authentically, if their behaviour is consistent with their past or original behaviour, but this brings into question what we mean by original, i.e. the last authentic self or this current version, and how far back we need to go to demonstrate past behaviour. This also clashes with the notion that authenticity is a continuously developing dynamic process (Yacobi., 2012) as we are focusing on the past, rather than taking the focus forwards.

2.2.1b Orthodox definition two – close to the original

Warren Bennis, an American scholar and pioneer of the contemporary field of Leadership studies, describes authenticity as 'close to the source' (2013). He describes occasions where he has expended time and money, even queuing outside prestigious galleries, to view famous pieces of art and although he has books showing and describing the work in finite detail, he is prepared to queue and pay a fee to see the work because he was getting closer to the original, than if he viewed images and other's discourse about it (Bennis, 2013). This perspective of

authenticity mixes the concepts of originality described above with another dimension, one of realness as opposed to an object being fake.

Guignon (2008, p. 277), makes a similar point, describing authenticity as "original or faithful to an original". He goes on to maintain that authentic pieces of art are generally regarded as being superior to copies and counterfeits and hold significantly more commercial value. Bialystok (2014) takes a similar tack, emphasising that many objects fall into this vein of authenticity, like food, music and fashion accessories. Bialystok (2014), again, relates this back to individuals, saying that the prospect of having several fake versions of self and one authentic version is problematic, not only in the physical prospect of human clones, but in the existence of both inauthentic and authentic self, residing in one person. Guignon (2008), refers to our inauthentic self often being directed by societal norms and standards, which creates a reflection of what others wish to see, whereas the authentic self is directed by our own choices and motivations, however positive or negative that is. Bialystok (2014) takes a similar view, proposing the authentic self is not a separate being, but a combination of "preferences and behaviours that are supposedly, more characteristic" of our authentic self (2014, p. 277). This notion of more and less authentic parts of our identity, co-existing, in a single entity, is a critical concept in the design of this study, especially where the lines, between authentic and inauthentic positions, are blurred by context.

2.2.1c Orthodox definition three – honest and truthful

The last ordinary definition of authenticity closely resembles being honest or true to yourself, which implies that one is what they claim to be, i.e. not pretending to be something one is not (Bialystok, 2014). Yacobi (2012), argues that this can only be achieved with unbiased self-examination and accurate self-knowledge; reflective judgment; personal responsibility; humility; empathy for and understanding of others, as well as a willingness to listen to feedback. This is particularly important when we consider the wider view of the self, put forwards by Guignon (2013), which includes some aspects that individuals are likely to find less palatable, for example cruelty, aggression and hostility, which are more likely to be tolerated, without the benefit of accurate self-knowledge and reflective judgement. Bialystok

(2014), relates this to fundamental and unique truths about oneself and being unauthentic, concerns "missing the truth" (2014, p. 278), about oneself, which will be confounded by a lack of critical self-awareness as highlighted by Yacobi (2012).

Bialystok (2014) emphasises the point that if these three descriptions of authenticity are applied to individuals then there are, potentially, three versions of self within one entity, one focused on historical authenticity, one on closeness to the original and the final one expressing honesty. She goes on to argue that the only way to resolve this, in a definition of authenticity, is to describe authenticity as "a convergence between a person's essence and her behaviour" (2014, p. 281) and all non-essential properties are excluded. This gives some credence to the possibility of a single entity, object or person, being authentic from one aspect and inauthentic from another depending on the context in which we are analysing the entity, for example a painting done by an apprentice, of one of the great masters, could have historical authenticity and be an honest copy, i.e. no pretence is made that it is an original piece of artwork, however, where closeness to the original is concerned it would appear inauthentic. The notion of convergence, according to the Oxford dictionary, suggests that it is a scaled concept in that entities get closer and closer together until they meet, if we logically progress this to denote authenticity, the possibility for a moveable scale, where individuals can get closer to their essence or remain further away, is apparent (Stevenson and Waite, 2011). This chimes with the writings of Rousseau, recounted by Guignon (2008, p. 278), who argues, every individual has "a distinctive potential for development built into his or her nature from birth, a 'calling' or 'fate' that he or she ought to realise" and by extending this logically, by measuring one's behaviour, or progress, towards that goal, we can focus on the convergence, or lack of, at a particular point in time. This position is contrary to Yacobi (2012), who proposes authenticity is an absolute without partial values and the lack of definable points makes authenticity impossible to measure.

This study accepts the view that authenticity can be understood by analysing the degree of convergence between one's essence and one's behaviour but rejects the assertion that the self is without external influence. The next section, therefore,

explores the philosophical position of essentialism to help understand how essence, as a starting point, in measuring authenticity, can be viewed as being affected by external factors.

2.2.2 Essentialism

Bialystok (2014, p. 282) describes an essentialist view of authenticity, taken from the writings of Rousseau, as the "division between inner and outer" self and an implied opposition between nature, which is usually appropriated with authenticity, versus nurture, which is usually appropriated with inauthenticity. Thus, the inner self is the authentic element and the outer self, influenced by society, creates the inauthentic self, as we try to conform or live up to others' expectations.

Rousseau is also credited as proposing that conforming to the natural state, is the optimum state of being, and argued that most of our worry and angst comes from our interaction with society, describing it as a corrupting influence and hence the inauthentic element of the self (Guignon, 2013; Robinson, 2009). Rousseau also proposed a distinct separation between the inner and outer self and went on to argue that happiness can only be achieved when we are behaving as our inner self (Guignon, 2008; Rousseau and Gourevitch, 2018). One's inner self is unique, different from any other individual and it is this uniqueness, proposed by Rousseau, that holds great value (Bialystok, 2014). Guignon and Bialystok both agree that Rousseau was not making a case for a rounded and fully developed sense of self, presented at birth and preserved in the same state throughout our life, but for a constantly developing and refining sense of self, with value in just adhering to one's inner identity because it belongs to one (Guignon, 2008; Guignon, 2013; Bialystok, 2014).

Guignon explains, "On the conception of the self that we inherit from Rousseau, self-discovery is not a matter of finding an entity that has been there all along. It is a matter of making the self in the course of the search. What comes to light as authentic truth is the activity of self-fashioning or self-making itself. We just are what we make of ourselves in the course of our quest for self-definition. The important thing is the creative act itself" (2004, p. 69).

Bialystok (2014) points to the irony of similar views being expressed by essential and existential philosophers. For example, Rousseau, taking an essentialist view, and the view of the existentialist philosopher Nietzsche, as, both refer to the

creative and self-defined process, attached to our developing self or soul, and the efforts taken to differentiate ourselves from others. Both describe the authentic self as a work in progress, a life-long project, and not a, fixed from birth, and enduring identity.

Bialystok (2014) highlights the difficulty with this style of definition, as any definition should be able to adequately address the negative side of self, i.e. inauthenticity. If authenticity is developing self through a life-long process, then how do we describe inauthenticity from the example above and especially understand how to differentiate the two?

Rousseau is cited by Guignon (2013; Varga and Guignon, 2016), Bialystok (2014) and Yacobi (2012) as highlighting the 'inner voice' as a way to channel our true selves. Bialystok (2014) questions the mechanics of receiving the message, for example, how does the inner voice begin and maintain a two-way dialogue and how do we know this is our true selves speaking rather than a self that is corrupted by external influences? Guignon (2004) and Bialystok (2014) both point to the lack of significant and corroborating evidence that would support the view of the 'inner voice' as a true self, so this research rejects the notion of an inner voice, in this instance.

Guignon (2004, p. 72) comments, "the authentic self is the individual who can stand alone, shedding all status relations and social entanglements, in order to immerse him – or herself in "sheer life"". This gives us the impression that someone who is inauthentic would be at the beck and call of others in society and place great value on status being a reflection of whoever they are with, at any given time. Bialystok (2014) highlights the possibility of multiple parts, of oneself, some of which are more authentic than others, and points to philosophers of autonomy who argue that only the authentic parts are capable of self-rule. The next section explores autonomy in more detail.

Bialystok (2014) argues that the act of defining autonomy is equally as much about searching for the conditions, or context, of authenticity as it is autonomy. Honneth (1994, cited in Varga and Guignon, 2016) says that to act autonomously or

authentically it is necessary to reflect on one's behaviour, to ensure that internal guidelines are being followed and not being unfairly influenced by external forces. Ferrara (1993, p. 102) describes needing a balance between critical rational scrutiny and attending to fundamental motives, desires and commitments that make up our authentic self. Varga and Guignon (2016) link autonomy and authenticity, as a way to explain the individualistic nature of authenticity, and argue that autonomy helps to place an emphasis on one's ability to make independent decisions and life choices that are not moderated or influenced by cultural and social norms. They go on to explain that these goals, decisions and life choices, are self-determined and self-moderated, with critical self-analysis and without intervention from others. Taylor (1989, p. 510) reflects on the relationship between authenticity and autonomy, proposing that, one can live autonomously guided by one's own, "non-constrained reasons and motives" but to be authentic would require these motives and reasons to be reflective of one's self-identity.

"What matters for the majority of autonomy theorists is not the quality of the ruling part but rather its authenticity: what is necessary for self-rule is that one's ruling part be, in some sense, more oneself than one's other parts. This way of thinking relies on the idea that a person is not to be identified equally with all parts of her mind: the idea that, while some of her attitudes are deeply expressive of who she is, others are simply alien forces at work within her. Hence it is theoretically possible, on this view, to divide a person up into those parts, of himself, with which he is identified and those parts of himself from which he is alienated" (Garnett, 2013, p. 22).

This heralds the possibility of one self-analysing and assessing one's level of authenticity (Bialystok, 2014), to decide which aspects are more or less authentic (Garnett, 2013). Developing Bialystok's (2014) argument, that the act of defining autonomy is equally as much about searching for the conditions, or context, of authenticity, when deciding which elements of one's self are most authentic, various organisational contexts and roles are likely to be important, which is key to the definition of authenticity adopted by this study.

Varga and Guignon (2016) continue this account of autonomy by citing Harry Frankfurt, the American Philosopher and discuss authenticity as a function of wholeheartedness. Rather than claiming that one set of desires is more, or less authentic, Frankfurt argues, that one is wholehearted when one identifies with a set of "desires that is consistent at every level and repudiate those desires that fall outside the set. If I not only want x, but also what to want x ad infinitum and want to be governed by that desire, then I identify with my will. Wholeheartedness is a statement of who I am" (Bialystok, 2014, p. 285). Philosophers agree (Bialystok, 2014; Varga and Guignon, 2016; Guignon, 2004; Yacobi., 2012) that the binding concept of autonomy, wholeheartedness and essentialism, is the belief that there is an inner self, or parts thereof, that can be distinguished from less authentic versions. For Bailystok (2014), this brings her back to the same question highlighted at the beginning of the section on defining authenticity, in that, during transition, is the transformed self now the authentic self and does that make the original self, inauthentic? She goes on to question whether any justification exists, for assessing states of autonomy or wholeheartedness, as being more representative of the self than other states and questions how, given autonomy works at a basic essentialist level, that is assuming the self is shielded from all external influence, it can present a full picture of the self. Guignon (2008) warns of the danger of assuming the self is a positive and altruistic guide through our lives, commenting that our authentic selves can also contain a hard and unforgiving edge.

Although, Rousseau did not specifically define authenticity, his writings laid out the components and relationships that we now address as authenticity (Guignon, 2004). Rousseau's writings make a good account of what Lionel Trilling, the American literary critic, was meaning when he defined authenticity. Trilling described authenticity as involving a wider reference to the universe or cosmos and one's place in it and a less genial view of the circumstances brought by one's interactions with society (Trilling, 2009). When we think about this in relation to modern living, with constant electronic communication, including social media, significant social and work demands on our time, the notion of retreating into a quieter and less busy place to contemplate and get in touch with one's inner self is

a captivating prospect but from the overall aims of this research, it is an ideal that is unlikely to be achieved.

Before exploring the existentialist account of authenticity, it is worth understanding a simple definition of the difference between essentialist and existentialist philosophies about authenticity. Bialystok (2014) and Guignon (2004) both comment that the essentialist viewpoint creates a distance between the self and the impact of others, good and bad, on the self, and the indecision and confusion of a creative approach to developing self, whereas, existentialist philosophy, "defines authenticity in a way that encompasses all of human experience at the expense of individual identity" (2014, p. 286).

2.2.3 Existentialism

In the previous section, we explored essentialist and romantic views of authenticity and in this section, we will examine the existentialist view.

Clark (2011) and Guignon (2013) draw on Heidegger's work to define authenticity, from an existentialist perspective, as possibilities for self-definition, that we take from our individual cultural context, and then self-interpret to define our own individual identity. Thus, our self is constructed, by ourselves, from cultural norms and possibilities (Guignon, 2008) as opposed to the essentialist view of the self, which is, at least, partially genetically driven. This premise fits with the social and developmental psychology theories around whether key traits, in an individual, exist because of hereditary biology (nature) or are created because of exposure to specific cultures and society (nurture), known as the nature/nurture debate (Yacobi., 2012).

Heidegger discusses authenticity in the context of Dasein, which is broadly translated as the way of being, of human beings (Bialystok, 2014). Clark (2011) goes on to explain that Dasein is colloquial German for existence or simply being there. Heidegger (Clark, 2011), does not pass all the responsibility, for the self, to cultural and societal influence and although he does reject the idea of "determinate universal properties, common to all humans" (Guignon, 2008, p. 282), Heidegger, supports the existence of a skeletal structure onto which one can create or form our identity, with society offering opportunities for self-discovery, that we may, or may not, utilize. This corresponds with the comments in the previous section from Varga and Guignon (2016) and Bialystok (2014) highlighting the similarities between Rousseau and Nietzsche, in that, both refer to the creative and self-defined process, attached to our developing self or soul, and the efforts taken to differentiate ourselves from others.

Guignon (2008) describes some elements of this skeletal structure:

Human beings care about the concept of being and, different to other entities, our being is at issue, in that we are willing to take a stand for what we define ourselves as and defend it.

We exist as a future directed being, in that whatever role or task we undertake, it is helping us to develop towards being recognised as someone who undertakes such tasks. Guignon (2008) goes on to describe his writing as a form of personal positioning, as he chooses to write philosophical works which help to cement his identity, in the role of philosopher, and moves him toward the possibility of having the identity of philosopher. In the same way, a technical specialist will undertake technical tasks and someone who considers themselves an authentic employee will choose tasks that, not only grow their knowledge and closeness to their organisation, but also deepen their identity as an authentic employee. This concept is discussed further when we explore social identity and state authenticity.

The way we position ourselves, defines the range of possibilities open to us, which narrows our opportunities to those that more closely match our identity, unless we approach the world with an open mind and without a pre-conceived self (Clark, 2011). The danger of doing so, is to interact with possibilities that may not support our pre-conceived self and. In some cases, this may thrust us onto a path that we had not chosen and are not in control of (Guignon, 2008).

Heidegger, describes the transient nature of humans, when referring to Dasein, as coming from somewhere, in that we have motives and experience that give us a frame of reference, and we are always going somewhere, which is described as being engaged in projects and tasks that help us to accomplish what we wish to accomplish (Clark, 2011). Guignon (2008) refers to 'the movedness' of life, a term used by Heidegger, to describe the circular relationship between these two concepts, for example, "On the one hand, my possible projects and goals are made possible by what has come to matter to me in my dealings with life's affairs. On the other hand, the eventualities that arise constantly compel me to reassess and revise my sense of what my life is all about. To be human is to live in the tension between thrownness and projection" (Guignon, 2008, p. 283).

What is interesting, for this research, is the reference to a range of projects and goals that combine to encompass our own identity. This gives some substance to multiple, competing or non-competing elements of individual identity, which will be

covered in following sections, which focus on social group identity and state authenticity.

Heidegger argues that clearings emerge which create space for one to disclose or reveal ourselves, together with other likeminded individuals, to contribute to the collective work and to show ourselves as part of the group (Guignon, 2008). Heidegger uses the term clearing to describe a temporal space in which to show ourselves, like a clearing in a forest, he also uses the term lighting, which has the same root meaning as clearing, in the German language (Clark, 2011).

Guignon (2008) identifies two basic forms of living, proposed by Heidegger. "A person can simply drift with the crowd, doing what one does, while avoiding any responsibility for his or her own contribution to the emergence of a clearing. In that case, the person's life is inauthentic or unowned" (2008, p. 283). Conversely, the individual can consciously act as a clearing, to connect with others in a way that is "vivid, focused, steady and intense" (2008, p. 283) which takes responsibility or owns the act and is therefore considered authentic.

Bialystok (2014) and Guignon (2008) argue that Heidegger acknowledges the presence of a true self, or underlying origin, but does not go on to describe the attributes and exact content, describing it as left vacant (Bialystok, 2014) or having "no substantive content" which "we must attain in order to be true to our origin" (Guignon, 2008, p. 285). Guignon argues that this is a key distinction between the romantic views of Rousseau, with a collection of desires and feelings, and positions authenticity as a 'matter of achieving and expressing the openness that is the defining potential of Dasein' (2008, p. 285) and in more simplistic terms, the desire to be human, identifying with the need to connect and create clearings, whatever the specifics of one's identity, that is, a matter of 'how we live rather than what we do' (Guignon, 2008, p. 286).

Philosophers generally agree (Guignon, 2008; Guignon, 2004; Clark, 2011; Varga and Guignon, 2016; Bialystok, 2014) that Heidegger rejects the idea of an inner and outer identity and individual versus social dualisms that are associated with Western ideals. Bialystok (2014) disagrees with Heidegger's vision of authenticity,

she writes, "Heidegger's existential orientation thus produces a peculiar version of authenticity, one that subverts the deep nagging questions about selfhood that I have argued are endemic to authenticity. To a certain extent, he is essentialist about human being as such, but locating authenticity in the relationship between a person and her ontological identity does little to explain what authenticity means for her as a unique individual" (2014, p. 288).

Guignon (2008) continues to argue that Heidegger proposes, the inner is reflective of the configuration of possibilities, taken from the outside world, and given form by virtue of their standing in the outside world. He further argues, one's identity is always bound up with the outside world and authenticity will involve social responsibility and co-operation rather than conflict.

Jean Paul Sartre, the French Philosopher, drew inspiration from Heidegger and ended up with a more radical view of authenticity (Bialystok, 2014). Sartre refers to human beings as 'being-for-itself' in that we are a continual work in progress, unhindered by our past and free to project into our future but perennially distanced from ourselves by a void that keeps us incomplete (Yacobi., 2012). Sartre argues that 'existence comes before essence', in other words, we are born without an essence or self, and throughout our lives, our responsibility is to build and define ourselves by interacting with the outside world (Bialystok, 2014).

Sartre writes, in Anti-Semite and Jew (1965, cited in Golomb, 1995), "Authenticity consists in having a true and lucid consciousness of the situation, in assuming the responsibilities and risks that it involves, in accepting it in pride or humiliation, sometimes in horror and hate". Sartre is commenting that for us to be truly authentic we must give ourselves fully, to the situation, take full responsibility for our choices and actions and accept the consequences, whether they are good or bad, in the understanding that, even hateful outcomes, contribute to who we are (Yacobi., 2012). The more we are willing to accept this order of complete freedom to choose our paths, the more authentic Sartre said we become and "the common tendency to deny the reality of the human situation is what Sartre calls 'bad faith" or 'inauthenticity'' (Bialystok, 2014, p. 288). The angst or anxiety we feel is down to

our 'inescapable freedom' to make our decisions and choose our path. (Yacobi., 2012)

Bialystok (2014) notes the logical dependence that Sartre's account of authenticity has, as does Heidegger's, on individual identity, in order to disprove individual identity. Taking Sartre's description of human reality as "being which is what it is not and which is not what it is' (1957, cited in Golomb, 1995), Bialystok questions, 'In order for me to not be what I am (and to be what I am not), there must yet be some fact about what (or who) I am – otherwise, why differentiate at all between what I am and what I am not?" (Bialystok, 2014, p. 289). Golomb (1995) argues that authenticity is easiest to articulate in a negative sense where authenticity is missing or as Sartre describes it, in times of bad faith.

Bialystok (2014) points out that both Heidegger and Sartre are referring to authenticity in similar ways to ordinary and essential definitions, for example, as a reflection of one's true being, being distinct from conforming, non-superficial and not deceiving the self, having a fulfilling and original way of living. She goes on to argue that Heidegger and Sartre's account suffers from a "logical dependence on individual identity while trying to supersede any need for it. In order for me to not be what I am (and to be what I am not), there must yet be some fact about what (or who) I am – otherwise, why differentiate at all between what I am and what I am not" (Bialystok, 2014, p. 289).

2.2.3 Virtue conception

The final philosophical position, to be reviewed, is that of virtue ethics. This discussion around whether authenticity is a thing of virtue or can be viewed unethically, is important when we discuss group or social identity and state authenticity in the next sections as, these concepts, generally view authenticity as a social virtue.

Bialystok (2014) describes the virtue conception in relatively simple terms, she says, being authentic is a good thing, not because one's authentic self is automatically good but because "being authentic is synonymous with being good in some self-transcending way" (2014, p. 293). We have already heard from Guignon (2013), describing some aspects of self that are less palatable, for example cruelty, aggression and hostility, but Bialystok describes the virtue hypothesis as insisting that people are not authentically evil.

Guignon (2008) describes virtue conception as seeing authenticity as a good aspect of one's character, knowing where one stands, forthright and open and consistent in one's expression of one's values. Bialystok (2014) highlights two schools of thought in virtue ethics, when applied to authenticity, which are those that focus more on autonomy and the inescapable link with authenticity, and those that focus on a virtuous value, as described by Guignon (2008) above. Charles Taylor (1991) argues that current threats to authenticity come from individualism that "prioritises personal whimsy over ethical obligations to others" (Bialystok, 2014, p. 291) and gives an example of people prioritising their career over relationships or children (Taylor, 1991). Bialystok disagrees with this impression of authenticity, "what being human is for me has been supplanted by the putative value of pursuing my own ends at any cost" (2014, p. 291) arguing that such a definition dilutes the value of authenticity. She goes on to write that when authenticity becomes too tolerant, it can be used to justify selfish and unethical behaviour.

Guignon (2008) agrees with a disconnect, that can occasionally be present, between authenticity and morality, which does not present authenticity as a moral virtue. He gives a rather extreme example, of a sexual predator, authentically

knowing what they want and expressing what is within them or Heidegger's relationship with the Nazis, which suggests that one might be internally authentic but engage in horrendous behaviour.

Guignon (2008) argues that virtues are not free standing qualities and have a complicated interdependence, which is also true of authenticity. He gives examples of authentic individuals also needing other virtues like, "honesty (with oneself, certainly), courage, constancy and a capacity for self-knowledge" (2008, p. 287). Heidegger also asserts that authenticity requires a coherent opinion, clear-sightedness, resoluteness, steadfastness and loyalty (Clark, 2011). Guignon (2008) also points out that authenticity is required by other virtues like integrity, as when one presents as having integrity, one would also need to demonstrate authenticity.

The question of whether authenticity is an individual or social virtue is one that warrants discussion (Taylor, 1991; Guignon, 2008; Bialystok, 2014). Guignon (2008) explains that some virtues are considered personal, in that they provide well-being for the person practising them, whereas others are social virtues and provide benefits to the society, as a whole, even if they provide no benefit for the individual, for example, frugality and rationality apply to the individual whereas reliability and cooperativeness are social virtues as they have an impact beyond the individual.

To balance the individual and social approaches, Taylor (1991) proposes "horizons of significance" which are projects or values that go beyond the self to deliver for society but also retain some value for self-fulfilment and actualisation. He proposes that they can be different for every individual but must always have this connection between "individual fulfilment and something of significance in the world" (Bialystok, 2014, p. 291). It is important to note that the focus of this research includes elements connected with self-fulfilment, like pride and passion in wanting to do a good job and a desire to improve, and those concerned with social values like building organisation-wide or team relationships, however, in this research, we view the wider organisation as a society.

Bialystok (2014), argues that taking a view of authenticity as a social virtue, effectively, nullifies the status of the individual, for example, if authenticity exists, in a setting of shared values, then it is difficult to identify individuals from the throng of people pulling towards that value. Thus, any attempt to identify individual identities, or the self, is thwarted by the constraints of the virtue conception.

This study acknowledges the deep divisions between the philosophical standpoints on authenticity and the difficulty of arriving at a 'one size fits all' definition. Indeed, the context in which we view authenticity appears to be a particular stumbling block (Guignon, 2004; Varga and Guignon, 2016; Bialystok, 2014).

This study argues that the notion of one authentic self, for life, is unattainable and that our experience and knowledge, in different contexts, play a part in whether we feel authentic or not. Rather like Bialystok (2014), highlighting the awkwardness created in being authentic, between our former and latter identities, when changing our values, this study will propose that changing our context also brings into question how authentic our self-perception is, especially in an organisational setting. However, this study supports the notion of having some parts of self that are assessed as more or less authentic than others (Garnett, 2013; Bialystok, 2014) and differing levels of perceived authenticity, when exploring our different identities, especially, in different work contexts, roles or groups. The next section will explore identity theory, with the premise that individuals identify with a social or work group like WRA or CA and those associations help to reinforce self-identity (Lenton et al., 2013; Stets and Burke, 2000), which is important for the work groups this study is investigating. The following section will build on this and introduce state authenticity which helps to explain the authentic membership of a social group or in a specific social context.

2.2.4 Social identity theory

Social identity theory operates around the premise that individuals define their own identities, with respect to social groups, and that by identifying with those social groups they protect and enhance their self-identity (Lenton et al., 2013). This is an important factor in this research as social identity theory forms the basis of belonging, to the organisation or to 'technical' specialisms, and the creation of meaningful relationships with others, that form the basis of perceived authenticity with respect to membership of those groups.

Stets and Burke (2000) describe the self as reflexive, in that it can take itself as an entity and apply a category or name itself, on the basis of other social categories or classifications. They go on to say, in identity theory this process is known as identification and in social identity theory it is known as self-categorisation, but whichever theory is the underlying catalyst the outcome is the formation of an identity. Burke and Stets (2009, p. 3), describe identity as "the set of meanings that define who one is, when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person". Social identity serves two functions (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000), it orders the social environment, helping one to define others and assign them a social group, "a person is assigned the prototypical characteristics of the category to which he or she is assigned" (1989, p. 21). This assignation of characteristics needs to be guarded, as stereotypes, whatever the motivation, can impact on the accuracy of such assignations (Hilton and von Hippel, 1996). In some groups, this assignation of characteristics will be more obvious and possibly formal, for example working in a group of nurses or within a research group and sometimes less obvious, for example where the group is based on personal traits like being considered in a group of introverts. The second function of social identity, according to Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Stets and Burke (2000), is to use social classification to define the individual within the social environment they are placed. Social identity theory takes a view that one's self is comprised of a personal identity and a social identity, encompassing salient group classifications,

or belongingness with one or several different groups (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Burke and Stets, 2009) which could include WRA or CA.

The perception of uniform characteristics, in group-based identities, is present in many forms (Hogg and Abrams, 1988; Oakes, Haslam and Turner, 1994; Stets and Burke, 2000). We can categorise these perceptions into three main styles, cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural (Stets and Burke, 2000).

Stereotyping is the main focus of categories with a cognitive bias, with perceptions of in and out-group members being enhanced and individuals having greater identification with the in-group (Stets and Burke, 2000). Group identification also influences one's view, of the self, as prototypical of the group (Hogg and Hardie, 1991).

With an attitudinal perception, the emphasis is on group evaluation (Stets and Burke, 2000), where people will make positive evaluations of any group of which they are a member, even when their evaluation and attachment to other individuals in the group are much lower (Hogg and Hardie, 1991). Commitment to the group is higher, when one has higher in-group identification, leading to less desire to leave the group (Stets and Burke, 2000). Hence, employees perceiving themselves as WRA or CA will positively value their approach to internal communication and, perhaps be reluctant to change that approach.

Finally, from a behavioural perspective, people behave in line with the group norm, even when the group is a low-status minority group, for example, individuals who associate themselves with the group will participate in group behaviour to distinguish themselves from out-groups and to ingratiate themselves with the in-group (Ethier and Deaux, 1994). Additionally, group think or high congruence in decision making, is apparent under conditions of high social identification (Turner et al., 1992), which could prompt positive or negative outcomes depending on how much critical analysis is commonplace within the group.

The prospect of congruent group behaviour is important to this study in predicting which channels of communication are likely to prompt higher levels of attention across the group. If this congruence is not present, the inconsistency of behaviour

across the group would call into question any relationship between communication channels and attention. From a practical viewpoint, it would reduce the opportunities for IC professionals to leverage group IC preferences.

Congruous group identity can be reduced if people are taking on a specific role identity, within a group, for example leading a project. The attributes needed to perform this specific role may contrast with group behaviour. For example, leading a team of social workers towards commercial targets. In role based identities, as the leader above, some form of interaction or negotiation is necessary to allow one to perform a role (McCall and Simmons, 1978). Different perspectives are involved amongst individuals in the group, due to their negotiation with other group members, for resources or to agree responsibilities and interconnections, which may result in smaller sub-groups, or social structures (Stets and Burke, 2000). They go on to describe how interconnected uniqueness replaces the uniformity of perceptions and behaviours, expected in a group-based identity, and the emphasis shifts to interrelations with others in counter roles, within the group.

Stets and Burke (2000) state that social identity researchers conceptualise a group as a collective of similar people all of whom see each other in similar ways, hold similar views and demonstrate similar behaviours and, more importantly, these will be in contrast to an out-group, i.e. groups of different people. Identity researchers view a group as an interrelated set of individuals, with unique skills and perspectives, but contributing to the goals of the group by negotiating interactions and adding their efforts to integrated efforts (Stets and Burke, 2000).

This distinction between different role identities within a group and individuals within a single role who form a group is an important one given the emphasis of this study on the attention and openness to communication channels of specific organisational groups. The impact of different role identities within a group falls outside of the remit of this research.

Ashforth and Mael (1989) discuss the conception of social identity theory in the workplace, arguing that organisational identification is a specific subset of social identity, which is seen to embody or even make concrete a set of characteristics,

thought to be typical of employees in the organisation. This may also develop the same characteristics in the individual, or attract people with similar characteristics with the outcome of enhancing self-esteem (Capozza and Brown, 2000) and it is argued that both positive and negative comparisons only help to enhance belonging and so, self-esteem (Ashforth and Mael, 1989).

An individual's identity can be derived, not only from the organisation, but from small work groups, departments, age group cohorts, lunch groups or fast track groups. In fact, any group of individuals bound by a comparable characteristic (Ashforth and Mael, 1989) like corporate and work role authenticity employee groups.

Ashforth and Mael (1989) make the distinction between the development of identity in ideographic organisations compared with holographic organisations. Ideographic organisations curate subunit-specific characteristics, that inform the identities of those working within them, and are unlikely to prompt a whole organisation identity, tending to create separate identities for each subunit. They describe holographic organisations as ones in which the design of the organisation facilitates, self-organised, individual units that mirror each other and the whole organisation, where individuals, across different units, share a common identity. Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that Theory Z, of organisational management, will produce a holographic organisation, with blended management styles that are 'diffused' throughout the organisation. Following on from this, Barney (2004) describes Theory Z as a natural progression from Theories X and Y, in that it shifts the focus from the individual, to the system in which the individual operates. Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that this system where each member shares a common set of values and beliefs is rare and problematic in complex, international organisations. The reality, according to Ashforth and Mael (1989), is more of a mix of identities, some garnered from the individual subunit and some from the wider organisation. They highlight the probability of individuals having multiple identities which allows for comparative analysis, of those identities and self-perceived authenticity towards those identities, within the organisational structure which facilitates the aims of this study, to explore the relationship between authentic

membership of two such, independent, identities and their relationship to openness to a range of internal communication channels.

2.2.5 State authenticity

Bialystok (2014) questions, when her values change, whether it infers that her original self was not authentic, given that her new self, with amended values, is now perceived as authentic. The notion of multiple self-identities (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018), within the workplace, gives rise to questioning which, if any, are authentic representations. The concept of state authenticity appears to give a workable conceptualisation, of multiple authenticities within the workplace, with the value of authenticity determined, by the individual, based on how congruent, the current situation or episode is, with that individual's values of self (Fridhandler, 1986).

Most important, is to understand what a state refers to and how it differs from a trait. Lenton et al. (2013) describe the difference between trait and state characteristics of authenticity, in this case. They argue, "A trait is a person's base rate propensity toward (or away from) a set of cognitions, emotions or actions" whereas 'a state is the actual set of cognitions, emotions or actions in a particular situation' (2013, p. 276). Fridhandler (1986) goes on to explain that states have a shorter duration than traits in general, although he clarifies it is not a given truth and cannot be relied upon. States are more likely to have a uniform impact, for example, a state of happiness is more likely to last throughout an episode, whereas, a person with a happy trait is unlikely to be able to keep up the same level of happiness throughout the existence of that trait as they will have some days during which they are less happy. Lenton et al. (2013) put forwards that a trait can be determined from a series of episodes over time, but not from a single episode.

Fridhandler (1986) acknowledges that felt or experienced authenticity/inauthenticity is subjective, but argues that it is important to help people self-assess whether they are in a state that makes them feel authentic or inauthentic. He writes, "if a person is in a state he or she must be able to feel it" (Fridhandler, 1986, p. 170) which helps one facilitate self-awareness of coherence (Lenton et al., 2013) and understand if the current situation is aligned with one's values or not which, in turn, indicates a state of authenticity or inauthenticity.

Lenton et al. (2013) define state authenticity as a match between one's enduring characteristics like attitudes, values, beliefs and personality, and one's cognitions or actions in a specific situation or context. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) argue that "people strive to be themselves" (2018, p. 228) and gravitate towards situations, that they identify **with, and shy away from environments and situations they feel are alien to them. Schmader and** Sedikides (2018) argue that any threat to one's social identity also threatens one's person-environment fit, impacts negatively on the authenticity of that fit and reduces one's motivation to succeed, identify with or engage with that society. This reduction in engagement is very likely to reduce the effectiveness of any formal or informal communication, within the group (Ruck, 2017; Welch and Jackson, 2007).

Sedikides et al. (2017) offer examples of situations that have been rated as authentic, like successful or fun activities, being in familiar places or with familiar people. helping others or being successful, whereas situations rated as inauthentic, appear to be associated with difficult situations, failure, being evaluated, socially incompetent, feeling isolated and conforming to or failing social expectations. Thus positive, engaging situations where one feels competent are considered state authentic and negative, unpleasant situations, where one's salient standards are unlikely to be met.

When exploring the efficacy of state authenticity, Lenton et al. (2013), established that state authenticity varies three times more, within person, than between individuals. This highlights the individual nature of state authenticity, rather than a group effect, which supports the view that individuals, within a group, can feel more or less authentic. Sedikides et al. (2017) argue that strength of motivation to attain state authenticity and avoid state inauthenticity, is independent of the level of trait authenticity, i.e. one could identify as being congruent with one's self-identity but could feel inauthentic or authentic in a given situation or environment or with a specific social group like WRA or CA.

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) propose that this fit, between the situation or environment and one's self-identity creates a relationship built on authenticity, where the closer one's identity is to the group, the more authentic that relationship

is and forms the basis of their SAFE (State Authenticity as Fit to Environment) model of state authenticity.

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) propose their model as a replacement to Wood et al.'s (2008) conceptualisation of a measure of authenticity that is specifically constructed for use in the field of state authenticity. Wood's measure (Wood et al., 2008) included three elements, namely **self-alienation** - which measures incongruence between the true self and current feelings, **accepting external influence** – which measures the extent to which one is influenced by social pressures, and **authentic living** – which focuses on one's behaviour rather than internal narrative. Wood's measure (2008) was developed from a theoretical framework proposed by Barrett-Lennard (1998, p. 82) and compared with measures of well-being and personality. The study was an initial development of the scale and although the model is influential in authenticity measurement, the scale did not provide the best statistical and conceptual rigour (Lenton, Slabu and Sedikides, 2016) as greater variation occurs within individuals than between them. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) developed their own measure, based on three elements, "cognitive fluency, motivational fluency and interpersonal fluency" (2018, p. 230).

The SAFE model (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) focuses specifically on the 'fit' between elements of the environment, or situation, and corresponding core factors or characteristics of the self. They go on to propose that cues from the environment can prompt personal values, goals and social values to become more prominent in one's mind thus creating an authentic or inauthentic fit to that environment, or situation. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) assert that, if social identity is an important source of information, about the fit between individuals and a context, then individuals who hold natural membership, of this social group, will enjoy an authentic experience and those in a different group, may feel inauthentic.

Reviewing this model, of state authenticity, in more detail, is useful in understanding the elements, that are congruent with this study, and will support a bespoke measure of work role and corporate authenticity.
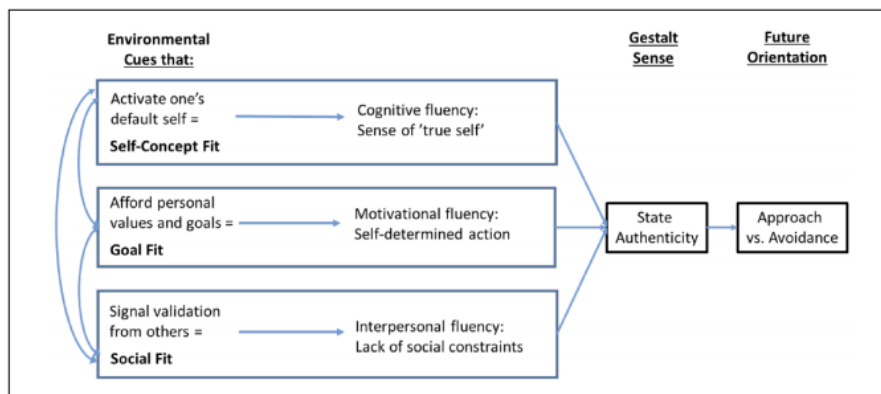
Figure 1: State Authenticity as Fit to Environment Model of State Authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018, p. 229)

2.2.5a Self-concept fit

Self-concept fit concerns the fit between one's self-values and the broad aspect of the situation, for example, a sports fan in a stadium or an art lover in an art gallery, the natural home of an individual, where they are most likely to feel they belong. Schmader and Sedikides (2018), go on to argue that this 'self-concept fit' happens when a specific environment activates the most default, or accessible aspects of the self. They propose that, even without motivation or goals, these environments feel so familiar, that individuals automatically feel authentic, due to "the perceptual fluency" one experiences when a context activates chronically accessible aspects of the self (including traits, preferences and memories) (2018, p. 231), something that people describe as "being home", in a metaphorical sense. In a given situation, cues activate a working self-concept, that is most relevant for that situation, which then becomes the default self-concept, whenever that situation arises (Markus and Wurf, 1987; Schmader, Croft and Whitehead, 2014).

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) argue that more frequent exposure to the same or similar situations will facilitate better, and faster, processing of information, about the self, and easier application of the default self-concept which, in turn, prompts people to see themselves as true, in that situation, and as a result, more authentic. By ensuring that internal communication is tailored to groups, by way of perceived authentic membership, we can ensure that the message is conveyed quicker and more effectively. When one is in a situation, where one feels inauthentic, cognitive processing of information is slowed or disrupted (Schmader, Croft and Whitehead,

2014; Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) and individuals, given a choice, will be more likely to avoid such a situation.

2.2.5b Goal fit

Self-concept fit assumes that just being located in an environment prompts an individual, to have authentic or inauthentic feelings towards that situation. However, within the workplace, one is usually engaging in some level of task which will have goals or targets (Karanika-Murray et al., 2015). Schmader and Sedikides, present goal fit as "the existence of institutional structures or norms in the environment that afford (rather than impede) one's internalized goals" (2018, p. 232), and they give examples of a competitive person working in a competitive company, an introverted student working on an individual project and a socially focused person working as a volunteer for a charity. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) go on to explain that the motivational impact of goal fit is to feel that one's own actions are self-directed and self-determined which prompts feelings of authenticity. This importance of self-determined goals precipitating authenticity, heralds from regulatory fit theory (Higgins, 2005), which supports the view that motivational engagement and interest are more pronounced in situations where one's preferences towards that task are matched by the way the task is structured. For example, if you are motivated by positive results and if the task is framed in terms of gains rather than losses, you will be more motivated to become engaged (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) and similarly, if communication, is framed in terms one is motivated to engage with, it is more likely to be successful (McQuail and Windahl, 1993).

When one explores goal congruity theory (Diekman et al., 2017), a similar effect is seen, in that individuals will be attracted to and engage, more fully, in organisations, occupations and situations that they think will fit better with their goals and values, e.g. someone with social justice values might be more attracted to an organisation that helps people or work in social care.

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) argue that this notion of motivational fluency, like cognitive fluency, previously mentioned, is generated by engaging with

organisations, occupations and situations supporting our own values and goals which gives one a sense of self-determination and autonomy, prompting feelings of authenticity (Bialystok, 2014; Varga and Guignon, 2016; Taylor, 1989). Conversely, "when one's motivational state does not fit the structure of the situation, the resulting sense of misfit cues disengagement and situational avoidance" (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018, p. 232) and a reduced sense of authenticity. This reduction in engagement with the situation can be equated to a lack of engagement with internal communications and other aspects of organisational life.

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) describe this notion, of goal fit, as independent, of other types of fit, i.e. it is possible to have a variation between the three different types of fit in this model.

2.2.5c Social fit

The final part of the SAFE model is social fit, which is defined as the "degree to which other people in the current environment accept and validate a person's sense of who they are" (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018, p. 232) as a result of real or perceived acceptance. This part of the SAFE model very much reflects the, previously highlighted, models of social identity theory in the workplace, that assert individual identity is garnered, in part, from social interaction with similar identities who help to refine the identity of the group and the individual (Stets and Burke, 2000; Ashforth and Mael, 1989).

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) give some examples of where this effect could be viewed, people recollecting past times, an interviewer appreciating the abilities of their candidate or a team validating the skills of a team member. They go on to say that the social nature, of this element, gives people the confidence and space to express themselves, without the need to navigate the usual social norms and expectations, which allows individuals to be themselves with others (Bialystok, 2014). People are generally good at detecting where they are receiving the cues for acceptance or rejection from a group which, in the case of rejection, decreases belonging together with reducing self-esteem (Gonsalkorale and Williams, 2007). This lack of belonging and reduced self-esteem give rise to poor social fit and

indicate an inauthentic relationship with the situation and the group (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018; Lenton et al., 2013; Sedikides et al., 2019).

Social fit is not just experienced with face-to-face interactions or group interfaces (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). In the next chapter, we will look at the adoption of technology in communicating in groups. The first decade of the millenium, heralded changes in technology that have revolutionised how we communicate (Ruck, 2015; Zetterquist, 2017; Grossman, 2019; Holtz, 2016) both inside and outside of the organisation. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) highlight that social fit exists in situations where just validating relationships or identities is present which suggests that even when the social group is a virtual one, which has become the norm during COVID-19, these same effects are likely to present themselves.

2.3 Summary of position on authenticity

This research utilises authentic membership of two groups which are, those who see their authentic identity as a 'corporate' employee and those who see their authentic identity as an individual who carries out a prescribed 'work role'. These represent two stakeholder groups, as used in the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Presently, the stakeholder approach uses operational and hierarchical groups like line management communication or peer project communication. Welch and Jackson (2007) call for research to utilise alternative stakeholder groups. This research looks at the extent to which people authentically identify as WRA or CA and how this affects their openess to different communication channels.

The definition of authenticity as a, fixed from birth, concept (O'Hagan and Binghamton, 1996) is untenable, in both of these conditions, as one is likely to either change careers throughout their life, a career, chosen from birth, may not exist for one's full working life or may change beyond recognition, from that original concept (Bolles, 2011). Both, Rousseau and Nietzsche, refer to a journey, where our identity is constantly refined and shaped, as a result of external forces and our interaction with those forces (Varga and Guignon, 2016; Bialystok, 2014) which is a closer representation of the above conditions but does not fully address the impact of group relationships and their effect on our authentic identity at work. Heidegger, refers to our self-definition, or identity, being derived partly from individual perceptions and interpretations of our cultural context (Clark, 2011; Guignon, 2013) which are then appended to a skeletal structure that is common to all humans (Guignon, 2008). A similar argument, to that of personality formation, between that which is present at birth, a biological creation from nature, and the influence of our context, culture, education and socialisation, our nurture, exists when we review the philosophical foundation of authenticity (Bialystok, 2014), although, she highlights that Rousseau believed inauthentic traits are garnered from external sources (nurture). Many psychologists are willing to accept the existence of both nature and nurture, within the one identity, to help explain the

complexity of the human condition (Slater and Bremner, 2011) and this research accepts the same.

Garnett (2013) uses autonomy theory to present the idea of more than one identity in individuals, hence, "some of her attitudes are deeply expressive of who she is, others are simply alien forces at work within her. Hence it is theoretically possible, on this view, to divide a person up into those parts, of himself, with which he is identified and those parts of himself from which he is alienated" (2013, p. 22). This suggest the possibility of one self-analysing and assessing one's level of authenticity (Bialystok, 2014), to decide which aspects are more or less authentic (Garnett, 2013) and especially in differing contexts and situations.

The question of whether authenticity is an individual or social virtue is one that warrants discussion (Taylor, 1991; Guignon, 2008; Bialystok, 2014). Taylor (1991) proposes "horizons of significance" which are projects or values that go beyond the self to deliver for society but also retain some value for self-fulfilment and actualisation. The two groups identified in this research provide opportunities for one to satisfy individual goals whilst contributing to the team, for example, one might focus on developing individual skills as a chef and then share new techniques with the team, to develop collective skills.

Identity, according to Burke and Stets, is "the set of meanings that define who one is, when one is an occupant of a particular role in society, a member of a particular group, or claims particular characteristics that identify him or her as a unique person" (2009, p. 3) and social identity theorists see salient group classifications, or belongingness with one or several different groups as indicative of authentic identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Burke and Stets, 2009). This notion of belongingness is important to, partially, explain authentic membership, in this case, to the corporate employee and work role groups. Stets and Burke (2000) state that social identity researchers conceptualise a group as a collective of similar people all of whom see each other in similar ways, whereas, identity researchers view a group as an interrelated set of individuals, with unique skills and perspectives, but contributing to the goals of the group and these two groups fall into the latter category.

The notion of multiple self-identities, within the workplace, gives rise to questioning which, if any, are authentic representations (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). State authenticity provides a workable model to underpin the authenticity of multiple identities, in the workplace, including the authentic membership of corporate employee and work role groups, as well as authentic feelings that can differ depending on the context. The SAFE model of state authenticity contains many of the elements, hypothesised, to be important in measuring authentic membership of corporate employee and work role groups. For example: feeling that one's fit to the corporation or job role is more authentic, feeling that one's internal values and goals are congruous with the situation or workplace, how much perceptual fluency improves cognitive processing of the self in different situations, and how much one feels they authentically belong to a specific group of people – in this case, corporate employees and work role groups like chefs or accountants (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018; Schmader, Croft and Whitehead, 2014; Markus and Wurf, 1987). All of which, will drive greater engagement and autonomy, (Bialystok, 2014; Varga and Guignon, 2016; Taylor, 1989) and prompt feelings of acceptance and validation within the corporate employee and work role groups (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018).

Authentic membership of groups like corporate employee and work role has already been linked with increasing engagement and belonging (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). The next chapter will explore internal communication in organisations which, this research hypothesises, will be affected by authenticity, particularly, one's openness to, or intention to attend to internal communication channels.

2.4 Authenticity final definition:

Authenticity is defined, in this study, as the extent to which an individual perceives themselves to naturally possess the same attributes, goals and preferences as the group they are a member of. For CA this would be characterised by the descriptors in figure 7 and for WRA this would be characterised by the descriptors in figure 8.

3.1 Chapter three – internal communication

The main purpose of this chapter is to provide an analysis of the relevant literature pertaining to internal communication in organisations. This chapter will identify key challenges relating to internal communication and address potential resolutions to them. Addressing how audience segmentation can be crucial to improving the effectiveness of internal communication is of particular interest.

This section will now consider IC definition, the history of internal communication, the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007), communication theory and attention.

3.2 History and definition of internal communication

This section will provide an analysis of a range of definitions, present in the literature, and the modern history of internal communication. Some of the positive impacts internal communication has on organisational performance and employee engagement will also be discussed.

3.3 Definition

There are varied definitions of internal communication which are moulded by the historical context, from the employee written newsletters of the late 19thC, through a more professional, journalist-led, propaganda-based publication, to a more inclusive and technology driven approach. The historical context impacts on the definition of internal communication, whether it is defined as the giving of instructions and propaganda or a genuine attempt to involve employees in the running and strategy of the business.

Welch and Jackson (2007) highlight the myriad of titles that are used interchangeably when referring to internal communication, for example internal relations, employee communication, internal communications, employee relations, internal public relations and staff communication. The historical perspective of internal communications coming from employees, to professional journalists, public relations and then on to specialist internal communicators does little to provide stability in the concept or definition of internal communications.

Haynes (1922, cited in Ruck, 2015, p. 4) describes internal communication as a way of satisfying the need to create some level of personal contact between the

employer and employee and defined internal communication as "a means of communication between the members of an organisation". In the newsletters of the late 19thC and early 20thC, which were mainly written by employees for employees, this definition appears to capture the intent of internal communication at that time.

As the specialism of internal communications was handed over to professional journalists, taking on the guise of a more propaganda based process, it seems appropriate that the definition would change. Daft and Weick (1984), defined internal communication as an iterative and complex process through which organisations coordinate essential day to day tasks, which places management at the heart of the process. Dolphin (2005, p. 172) expands on this definition, presenting internal communication as "transactions between individuals and groups" at different levels and in different departments, which helps to address some of the complexity and breadth of the process, and this definition is generally supported through successive research (Watson Wyatt Worldwide, 2009; Ruck and Welch, 2012; Welch and Jackson, 2007; Tourish, 1997). Welch and Jackson (2007) present a refined definition of internal communication as the strategic management of interactions and relationships between several sets of stakeholders including internal line managers, internal team peers, internal project peers and internal corporate communication.

Scholes (1997) contends that there is still a contingent of communication specialists who subscribe to the view that, internal communication is a media based support network to facilitate the cascading down of messages and instructions from senior managers. She refutes this simplistic view of internal communication, believing a better definition utilises professional management of interactions between all those with a stake in an organisation. She goes on to stress that professional management is about rigor and performance related approaches, that will require accurate metrics on which to draw, setting internal communication within financial and business contexts and, by including all stakeholders, accounting for the facilitation of two-way communication at all levels of the organisation in both downwards and upwards directions. This view is supported by Quate (1986) who

champions feedback as a way to improve two-way understanding and Tkalac Verčič, Verčič and Sriramesh (2012) who look to redefine the breadth of the word internal, given the global and multi-cultural environment that many organisations work within, but still support adopting internal communication as a broad title.

Some positive consequences of good internal communication are emerging that need to be represented in any rounded definition. Goodman (2006) highlights the impact of internal communication on the strategy of an organisation. This supports trust, efficiency, accountability, positive reputation of the senior management and the corporate body, transparency and ultimately making money. Mishra et al. (2014) describe not only the basic function of conveying a message but also the opportunity to build trust and engagement between colleagues and in turn, increase self-sufficiency.

Drawing these titles and definitions together it seems that none of them focus on the notion of specific stakeholders to aim communication at, a point which is highlighted by Welch and Jackson (2007) in their review of definitions of internal communication. This lack of focus on a stakeholder approach is a research gap and a key element of this research which will be discussed later.

3.4 History

This section explores the history of internal communication. It begins with employee written newsletters and covers developments up until the early decades of this century and the rise of technology as a communication tool. This history describes how employee involvement, in internal communication, has fallen in and out of favour over the decades. With the rise of research and practice, championing employee voice (Ruck, 2017), organisations that involve all stakeholders are more likely to have successful internal communication strategies. This historical view gives background context to the definitions addressed above, especially where communication is top-down or, in more recent times, focuses on involving employees.

Many early examples of internal communication, from as far back as the late 1800s, featured employee newspapers which were key in disseminating information amongst employees and were the product of employee efforts with varying degrees of corporate interference (Ruck, 2015). The first appears to have eminated in Germany (Nessman, 2008, cited in Ruck, 2015) within German newspapers but the first recorded example comes from the USA, written edited and published by female process operatives in cotton mills, owned by the philanthropist Francis Cabot Lowell (Mercer, 1948, cited in Ruck, 2015). Black (2007) argues this philanthropic tradition was carried on in the UK at Lever Brothers who introduced Progress Magazine, a publication written by the employees but edited by the company. Black (2007) went on to observe that many of these early publications, although including employee material in the way of stories and observations, were edited by the company and pushed the corporate message, more so than encouraging two-way communication between employees or between employees and the company.

This one-way, top-down communication style is an important consideration, when looking at openess to different internal communication channels. Until the introduction and uptake of social media as a key communication channel, the voice of the employee was in short supply (Hallam, 2013). This may have reduced employee engagement in communications.

By the mid 1940s, the number of copies of, paper-based, internal publications had exceeded 40 million copies in America alone (Mercer, 1948, cited in Ruck, 2015). In the UK, paper rationing had reduced the amount of publications but the introduction of the British Association of Industrial Editors, in 1949, rekindled the production of employee publications (Wilson, 1974, cited in Ruck, 2015) and added a air of professionalism as journalists became more and more responsible for editing the available content. However the move also turned the production of internal publications into a separate entity, firmly positioned in the Public Relations arena and exclusively under management control (Ruck, 2015). The status quo of internal communication was assured in a similar format until the 1980s and 1990s, when technology revolutionised the way in which organisations did business and the focus and deployment of internal communication (Ruck, 2015).

These changes reflected an earlier call, for a more considered and involving publication, which was made from as early as 1942, with Alexander Heron (1942, cited in Hay, 1974) proposing that the internal employee communication publication should be focused on a genuine sharing of information rather than being used to persuade or as a means to promote propaganda. Heron went on to write, that employee communication is "a two-way sharing of information: it is not a persuasion or propaganda campaign: it requires the freedom and opportunity to ask questions, get answers and exchange ideas" (1942, cited in Hay, 1974). This sentiment was echoed by the industrialist Lord Stokes (Ruck, 2015) who urged editors to produce something that, "is credible, attractive to its readers, and not just a management propaganda sheet".

This notion of appopriateness, credibility and focus of internal communication is a subject that carries forwards to current times without a clear resolution. Roger D'Aprix (2017), a practitioner and thought leader on organisational communication and Marc Do Amaral (2017), a communication strategist from Holland, both comment on the need to involve staff in two-way communications with a clear focus on organisational objectives, which is essential to promote staff engagement and involvement in corporate matters. This resonates with the overall focus of this study, to investigate ways to differentiate staff into stakeholder groups and

increase the likelihood of them being more open to a range of communication channels. Also, the extent to which communication is credible and involving is an important consideration when investigating the stakeholder approach.

The advent of mass technology in the 1980s and 1990s, not only brought change in the way organisations conducted business, but also the focus of and the way, in which, organisations communicated with their employees (Ruck, 2015). Ruck went on to describe the beginning of the 1980s as introducing Thatcherism, political change, industrial unrest and an emphasis on share value to measure the effectiveness of an organisation's performance.

Edwards and Sisson (1989) propose that, during the 1980s a fundamental change in the relationship between employers and employees happened that had an impact on the collective nature of employee relations and prompted a more individual approach. This more individual approach reduced the influence that unions had in brokering any agreement relating to industrial relations. Parsloe (1980, cited in Ruck, 2015) gives a similar view but with a less positive cause, reflecting on the CBI (Confederation of British Industry) who highlighted "that it is management's job to communicate to all employees and it was 'dangerous' to rely on the unions to communicate management's message" (Ruck, 2015, p. 7).

The resulting impact on internal communications has prompted organisations to reflect on a more inclusive approach, even if this has not prompted wholesale organisational strategy changes. Edwards and Sisson (1989) describe the approach to industrial relations in the 1970s as taking a more collectivist view. Wage and conditions negotiations were agreed through trade unions which acted as an intermediary between the organisation and the employee. In the 1980s, they describe a shift towards a more individual approach where efforts were made to involve individuals in the operations of the business and processes like recruitment involved individual selection tests, individual staff were appraised and a more individual approach was taken to staff pay rather than taking the "long established practice of the rate for the job" (Edwards and Sisson, 1989, p. 21). Team briefings were instrumental in increasing direct employer to employee communication and both The Industrial Society and Workplace Industrial Relations Study data indicate

an increase in two-way communication, between employers and employees, during the first half of the 1980s (Edwards and Sisson, 1989). Although linked to the advent of Human Resource Management, the above changes indicate the promotion of a genuine dialogue between employers and staff even though that did not always translate into practical action.

To bolster the notion of the value of a more consultative approach, Quate (1986) reports that in the USA employees' expectations of their employer are increasing and employees expected their employer to work to solve the problems of their staff. All levels of employees complained that they desired, and considered necessary, more information than their company provided. Quate (1986) looked at the amount feedback was considered, with the notion that, if feedback was requested, acknowledged and used to improve the financial and operational performance of the organisation and the employees then internal communication could play a significant role in achieving this. Further analysis of the feedback received fom employees indicated that employees were interested in four main areas; (1) company resources, viewing company resurces as a shared concern (organisation and employee) that they can help the organisation to use wisely, (2) safe working environment and one free of inequities, demonstrating that the employer/employee relationship is more than just a financial transaction, (3) personal employee needs, that impact on the wellness of staff, like staff restaurants, day care, parking and support for further education, which points to an increase in employee expectations, and (4) knowing about and understanding company processes and procedures that affect them, indicating a need for internal communications to help inform employees (Quate, 1986).

Guest (1987), is more sceptical about the impact, of this increase in open dialogue and argues that evidence of an integrated approach to internal communication as part of HRM was opportunistic and had little in the way of a well thought out strategy. In a similar vein, Ruck (2015) felt that Grunig and Hunt (1984) were premature in their assessment of a new period for open internal communication. Ruck (2015) points out that Grunig and Hunt (1984) themselves report a higher

emphasis on new techniques leading to a high spend on practices that promoted journalistic slick but did not necessarily lead to high engagement for employees.

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s the house journal still dominated the practice of internal communication, due to considerable attitude against new communication channels (Ruck, 2015). At the same time, it became clear that, for whatever gains, the notion of top-down propaganda, when communicating internally, was unfit for purpose and a new, more consultative approach was needed for the future (Grunig and Hunt, 1984).

The new order, for some, was a move towards treating employees in a similar way to an external public. Tkalac Verčič, Verčič and Sriramesh (2012) describe internal communications as an important specialism in the field of public relations, which clearly focuses internal communications as a component in the public relations arena. Some differences exist between an external public and an internal public according to Grunig and Hunt (1984). Organisational leaders tend to distribute employees into different sub groups or 'publics' so they can communicate appropriate information to each group. In a similar way, each group will have a view on the information they think they need. To combine these views in a transparent two-way dialogue, Grunig and Hunt (1984) suggest a two-way internal communications process, with the emphasis on employees, using more innovative communication techniques, rather than a printed newsletter, that could emphasise more dialogue between management and employees. Ruck (2015) postulates that the practical implications of working with different internal 'publics' is under-explored and it is part of this gap in the literature, i.e. how to categorise these internal 'publics' and which communication channels they will be most open to, that is a key focus of this research.

Planned internal communication became more established towards the end of the 1980s and Ruck (2015) presents a survey by the Institute of Directors that shows a 30% increase in the number of companies, with over 1000 employees, having a strategy for internal communication. However, this increase in planned internal communication was not necessarily in line with the movement towards developing more dialogue between stakeholders. Wright (1995) argues that although the

1990s were a time when downsizing and outsourcing were rife and the focus of most employees was on job security, the practice of internal communication was dominated by slick journalistic skills instead of moving to a process that encouraged building relationships between management and employees. Brobyn (1995, cited in Ruck, 2015) argued the case for the value of an in-house journal as a way to enhance the standing of any company which negated the growth of electronic communication methods like email, video and CD-ROM. Donnelly (1995, cited in Ruck, 2015) disagreed arguing that traditional approaches were not enough to inform, consult and involve employees, especially given the downbeat backdrop painted by Wright (1995).

Smythe (1997) acknowledges the fast pace of change within internal communications at that time, and points to an aim of reducing 'communication pollution' so that individual employee understanding is increased. He points to growing frustrations in the 1990s as employees feel that they are not involved in change or the consequences of change which is further exacerbated when the communication from management focuses on openess and involvement. Smythe (1997) echoes the sentiments of Edwards and Sisson (1989) in pointing out that treating the relationship, between management and employees, as a simple financial transaction does not add value for either employees or management and does little to mobilise the motivation of employees to invest their energies in the vision of management. Smythe (1997) suggests instead a new internal communication role, which works to broker value in the supply of information and marry the communication needs of the audience with the needs of the supplier. This highlights the need to find a way to identify different audiences, within an organisation, and tailor communication commensurate with their needs (Ruck, 2015; Grunig and Hunt, 1984; Welch and Jackson, 2007). Ruck (2015) indicates that towards the end of the 1990s, changes in internal communication practice were emerging that started to place value on involving employees more comprehensively in the way organisations work. This more inclusive nature of internal communications and the desire to involve multiple groups of employees, fits with

the main tenet of this study, which is how to categorise internal audiences and identify which communication channels they will be most open to.

During the 1990s, Clutterbuck and James (1997) claimed that internal communication was one of the fastest growing management disciplines in the UK. They speculate that two-thirds of internal communications departments were formed between 1992 and 1997 but also observe a disconnect between internal communications and a successful business strategy that suggests the practice is not regarded as critical to the viability of the business. Clutterbuck and James (1997) highlight two reasons why internal communications was not regarded as an integral part of business life. Firstly, the link to journalism and public relations produces slick one-way missives. Secondly, internal communications specialists lack the skills to effectively motivate and feedback to employees, something highlighted as important by Quate (1986) a decade earlier. Clutterbuck and James (1997) add that the specialism of internal communication focuses more on inputs and less on quantifiable outputs. Measurable outputs would be useful as they could be analysed in relation to business goals. Annual communication surveys could question how communication helped employees understand business goals, improved general business knowledge or achieved specific communication goals. Clutterbuck and James (1997) argue that more focus on business goals would help internal communication to be seen as integral to the business.

The first two decades of the millenium heralded changes in technology that have revolutionised how we communicate (Ruck, 2015; Zetterquist, 2017; Grossman, 2019; Holtz, 2016) both inside and outside of the organisation. The opportunity for greater employee input and enhanced employee engagement is arguably never better placed (Welch, 2011; Ruck and Welch, 2012) especially with the significant increases both in the frequency used and in the breadth of devices and software dedicated to two-way communication. Ofcom (2018) found a 61% increase of people who have their smartphone always on compared to 2008.

All of this sends a signal to internal communicators about how to manage their strategy, especially with respect to the tools they are using, in order to make the best of their efforts. From a practitioner view, Brad Whitworth (2017), Business and

Executive Communication Manager at Hewlett Packard, argues that internal communicators are in danger of alienating staff if they fail to embrace the types of technology they use in everyday life. He described situations where staff could not send emails because a low inbox limit had been reached, web browsers restricting access to certain websites, large files, like power point presentations could not be sent to other internal staff and some companies stopped staff taking photographs, with their own smart phone, at events when they wanted to share the event with co-workers. If this discrepancy, between access to technology solutions, inside and outside the organisation, is widespread staff could be less willing to engage with IT based communication solutions.

Whitworth (2017) argues that user generated content is more credible than professionally produced material. For example, many people have more experience in producing credible photographs and videos than most corporate communication professionals and Whitworth suggests, "the internal communication community found itself outmanned and outgunned in the communication technology battle" (2017, p. 79).

Whitworth (2017) identifies three key challenges for communication professionals which are:

Strengthening non-formal networks – Many senior leaders fail to adequately engage with the internal, non-formal, grapevine that cascades information down and out to lower levels as they think they are unmanageable and uncontrollable.

Business before tactics – Future strategy will need to focus more on business goals rather than which tools to use as which echoes Clutterbuck and James (1997). The strategy of using a single approach to communication relying on mass media is no longer tenable (McQuail and Windahl, 1993). Whitworth (2017) proposes that future strategy must become more receiver centric where staff can choose what information they need in order to do their jobs most efficiently.

Quicker dissemination of information - Whitworth (2017, p. 81), describes the pace of internal communications as "glacial, at best". Whitworth argues, Millennials expect instantaneous news and communication, even if it is a little less polished,

which suggests moving to a much more fluid and slightly less refined approach to communication in the future.

3.4.1 Summary

Throughout the history of internal communication there have been three constants, employees, the organisation and management and, towards the latter part, internal communication specialists. From employee-driven newsletters of the late 19[th]C, through the professionally written propaganda-driven publications, to more inclusive approach, through recent technological advances, the aim of internal communication is to create a dialogue between employer and employee (Ruck, 2015). To make internal communication effective, it is argued that it is necessary to split the employees into groups to address their differing needs (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). This will help to reference internal communication goals with business goals (Clutterbuck and James, 1997). A suggested way to split groups is the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) which has four stakeholder groups. However, these groups are operationally based and do not account for individual preferences. Welch and Jackson (2007) present these four groups as a starting point and call for future research to investigate alternative stakeholder groups. This research answers this gap in the theory by investigating two alternative stakeholder groups based on individual preferences. Namely, CA and WRA. The next section looks in more detail at the stakeholder approach.

3.5 Communication strategy

Symmetrical communication is described in Grunig's Excellence Theory (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). It is the process of ensuring that decisions made by organisations are mutually beneficial between the organisation itself and its audiences. One can use strategic communication to negotiate with one's audience, resolve conflicts, and promote mutual understandings all backed by thorough research.

This thesis acknowledges the criticality of strategic communication planning, especially the need to analyse and understand one's audience and choose an appropriate communication channel. Reviewing one example of a practical

communication strategy and one strategy slanting towards a more academic approach, reinforces the need for knowing one's stakeholder in detail and understanding which channels improve the efficacy of communication.

In this section, these two strategies are explored in more detail and a range of ways to split one's audience into different groups are also reviewed. The act of splitting one's audience into groups is referred to as audience segmentation (McQuail and Windahl, 1993) and this thesis makes the case that basing groups on organisational hierarchy or operational imperatives, rather than individual preferences, creates a gap in the literature which this thesis helps to fill.

3.5.1 The RACE Approach to PR

The RACE approach to PR is a practitioner model that acts as an aide memoir when practitioners are developing a PR strategy. The four broad areas are **Research, Action and planning, Communication and relationship building and Evaluation.**

Research is critical in scoping and identifying the problem or opportunity utilising the perspectives of both internal and external stakeholders. Campaign Creators (2020) suggest this should answer the 'who', 'what?' and 'why'?, perhaps leveraging what other organisations have done. Data should be gathered methodically and, "in this phase you should search for any possible assumptions and consequences the public might make" (Creators, 2020, p. 1).

Taking **Action** involves planning a strategy based on the research above and possibly using SMART objectives (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time bound).

Communication and relationship building - Campaign Creators (2020) argue that maintaining focus on social responsibility should be a high priority in creating positive relationships. Understanding one's target audience is critical to PR success for example, demographics, where one's audience sources their information, how they like to digest it and which channels they use. The relationship between publics and preferred channels is a key area of interest for this thesis.

The final step in the **RACE** model is **Evaluating** campaign results against intended goals. This concerns the measurement of campaign results compared with the primary objectives. Not only does this stage give commercial justification to any claims of a successful campaign but it can also point to changes in the campaign to increase its effectiveness. Various methods can be used to collect data from which to evaluate effectiveness for example, secondary data – (PRSA, IPR, etc.), case studies, press clippings, advertising value equivalent, media content analysis, audience and reader surveys and focus groups and interviews.

3.5.2 C-MACIE approach to PR
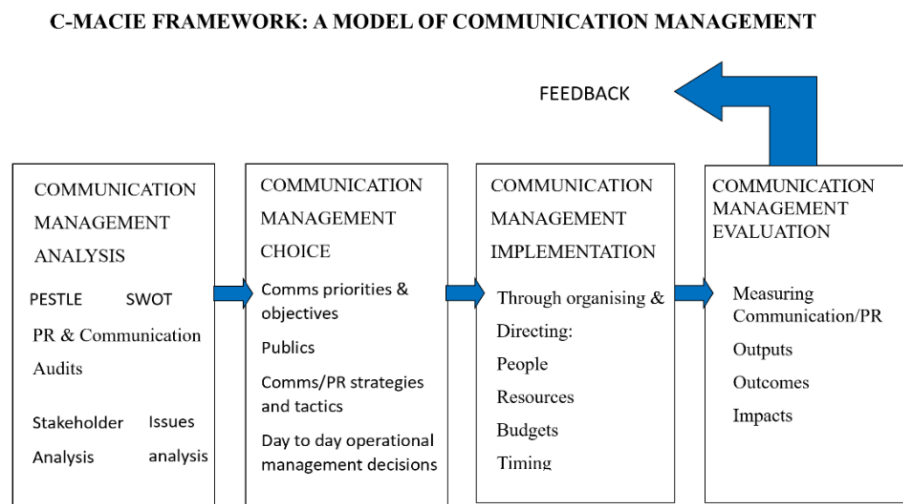
Figure 2: Communication management process (DeSanto and Moss, 2011)

A more rigorously researched strategic PR Plan that helps to accomplish this is the C-MACIE approach to PR which has four steps which are Communication Management Analysis, Choice, Implementation and Evaluation (DeSanto and Moss, 2011).

This process helps to highlight the necessity of accurately identifying stakeholders, analysing their needs, choosing how to communicate with them, which channels to use and how to evaluate the effectiveness of any communication - all of which connect to the main premises of this thesis.

Step one – Analysis concerns the need to understand who stakeholders are, what the issue is and how each relates to the other. DeSanto and Moss (2011) approach analysis from two perspectives, firstly strategic and secondly day to day. They

describe strategic analysis as "continually scanning, analysing and interpreting data from the organisation's external and internal environments" (2011, p. 42). The purpose of this scanning is to understand and anticipate the elements that make up current and future challenges, especially relationships with stakeholder groups. Day to day analysis is focused on immediate operational challenges like utilising resources and available budgets and deploying human resources.

DeSanto and Moss (2011) emphasise the need for communicators to identify the most relevant and important stakeholders and understand their opinions, attitudes and behaviours. This is essential to garner support for organisational goals or to address opposition to proposed action. This thesis supports the notion of analysing stakeholders especially focusing on their attitudes and behaviours. Many of the stakeholder or group-based approaches, discussed in the following sections, use organisational hierarchy or operational position to identify which groups individuals belong to.

Several techniques can be used during this analysis phase like PESTLE (Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Legal and Environmental) and SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats). Other techniques can also be used which relate to this thesis more for example, stakeholder mapping which creates a visual representation of stakeholders and communication audits which reviews the current effectiveness of communication activities and possibly different channels (DeSanto and Moss, 2011).

Step two - Choice builds on the communication analysis to focus on day-to-day operations including the "appraisal and selection of alternative targets/objectives and strategy options or courses of action that should be undertaken" (DeSanto and Moss, 2011, p. 44). Communication managers should focus on which issues to engage with, what outcomes are possible, which stakeholders to target, what communication strategies are used and which specific methods and channels are used. In this thesis, the focus is on which stakeholder groups to engage and which IC DeSanto and Moss channel is most effective.

DeSanto and Moss (2011) make the point that communications managers are more likely to be advisors to strategic teams rather than playing an active part in the decision making.

Step three - Implementation covers the deployment of communication policies and strategies and the way communication managers utilise the people and resources under their control.

DeSanto and Moss (2011) separate the management of people from the management of financial and material resources. They correctly identify people management as one of the most unpredictable elements of managing a campaign, especially where cross function relationships need to be accounted for. In a similar vein, Grunig (1992) highlights the benefits of two-way symmetrical communication built on honest and transparent conversations to build trust and solid relationships with internal and external stakeholders.

Implementation also includes financial and material resources. Campaign Creators (2020) highlight that calculating ROI (return on investment) is only possible when a campaign has been fully evaluated. They suggest, "monitoring any press generated from your campaign, give a rough estimate for the value of that press, and compare it to any expenses affiliated with producing that PR" (p. 2). DeSanto and Moss (2011) argue that determining the exact budget for communications in an organisation is a difficult task. Too rigid a budget will not allow communication managers the flexibility to take advantage of opportunities when they arise.

This thesis contends that knowing the preferred communication channel for specific stakeholder groups helps to make the best use of resources and increases the efficacy of campaigns.

Step four – Evaluation of the outcomes of the communication campaign. This thesis contends is easier to objectively evaluate the impact with clearly defined stakeholder groups and preferred IC channels.

DeSanto and Moss (2011) argue that two conditions need to be explored, firstly the extent to which short and long term communication objectives have been met and secondly the significance of external and internal factors that may affect the outcome of the campaign.

Financially motivated indicators and objectives may be impacted by other environmental, social and even political factors. What is clear is the need to employ both quantitative and qualitative evaluation performance methods to adequately address the varied expectations of stakeholders (DeSanto and Moss, 2011). Defining and evaluating appropriate measures of efficacy creates challenges for communication specialists with DeSanto and Moss (2011) describing it as an Achilles heel for communication functions.

In a practical sense, the RACE model (see above) outlines several techniques to evaluate the effectiveness of communication, however DeSanto and Moss (2011) argue that cost and convenience are the two obstacles that contribute most to a lack of evaluation. They argue that the industry's response to demands for better evaluation has been to produce more complicated media evaluation forms covering areas like "message placement, tonality, favourability of coverage" (2011, p. 53) rather than more effective and sophisticated processes to measure the impact of communication.

This thesis argues that measuring impact is easier where you have a clear view and definition of what constitutes a stakeholder group and understand their preferred communication channel.

3.6 Audience segmentation using stakeholder groups

Lester (2016) highlights that one of the foundations of the RACE model is the identification of publics so that communication can be tailored to them, which prompts better engagement. The identification of publics and stakeholders is critical to successful communication within organisations and has been extensively explored in the literature (Kalla, 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021).

The next section reviews some of the stakeholder theories however most are based on proximity or interest in an organisational issue or hierarchical position. This thesis contends that a more effective way to identify stakeholders is using individual characteristics, in this case level of work role and corporate authenticity and assess how open these groups are to different communication channels.

3.6.1 Situational theory of publics

The situational theory of publics "states that communication behaviours of publics can be best understood by measuring how members of publics perceive situations in which they are affected by such organisational consequences" (Grunig and Hunt, 1984, p. 184).

The situational theory is based on the explanation why people communicate and when they are most likely to communicate. It uses concepts of active and passive communication behaviour to segment the general population into publics. These are likely to communicate about one or more problems related to the consequences of organisational behaviour. The theory is situational because it relates to organisational problems which are transient, they appear and disappear depending on how the context impacts on them and the publics (Grunig, 2005).

The theory is based on three independent variables and two dependant variables. These are problem recognition, constraint recognition and level of involvement (Lester, 2016). By understanding how an individual associates with each variable it

is possible to assign one of the four publics, and associated approaches, identified by Grunig (1984).

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┌─────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────┐
│     Problem     │   │   Constraint    │   │    Level of     │
│   recognition   │   │   Recognition   │   │   involvement   │
└─────────────────┘   └─────────────────┘   └─────────────────┘
┌─────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────┐
│   Information   │   │   Information   │
│     seeking     │   │   processing    │
└─────────────────┘   └─────────────────┘
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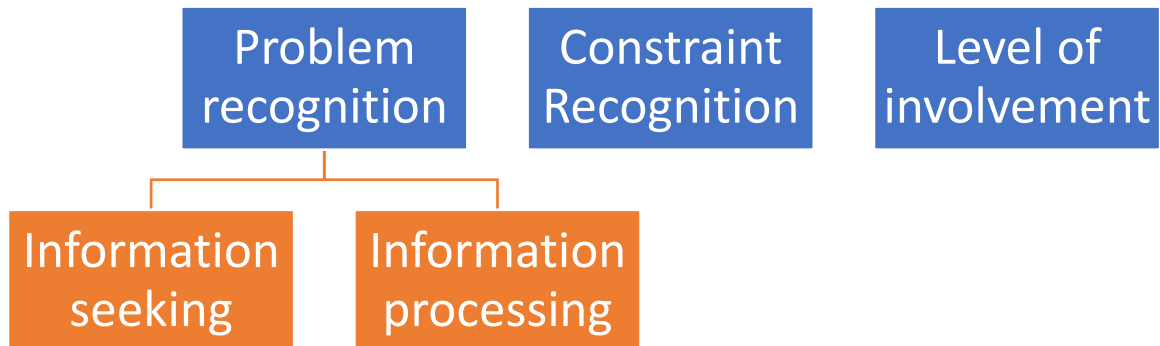
Figure 3: Independent and Dependent Variables in Situational Theory of Publics (Grunig and Hunt, 1984)

3.6.1a Problem recognition – Publics arise when an organisation does something that has an impact on people. These publics become active when they recognise the consequences and organise to try to eliminate them (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). Lester (2016) argues that one cannot be part of a public unless one has identified a situation or a problem. Grunig (1984) explains that it is within this section most communication takes place as people seek information to understand both the situation and the consequences. Lester (2016) describes communication behaviour in this section as active or passive. These directly relate to Grunig's (1984) dependent variables namely, information seeking (active) and information processing (passive).

3.6.1b Information seeking – These members of publics 'actively' look for information about the problem and seek to understand it which makes them more likely to become what Grunig (1984) describes as an 'aware' public. The messages these people receive are regarded by Grunig (1984) as being more efficacious in helping them to plan their behaviour and future activities.

3.6.1c Information processing – Grunig defines information processing as "passive communication behaviour" (1984, p. 149). They tend to process information that comes to them ad-hoc and without any effort on their part. For example, processing adverts sandwiched into a television programme we want to watch.

Grunig (1984) argues that members of a public expend more energy understanding information when they actively seek it out rather than just process it. Such publics become an aware public but rarely become active.

3.6.1d Constraint recognition - Lester (2016) explains that this occurs when people believe there is a barrier that restricts change. As recognising a problem increases the likelihood of people seeking and processing information so, high levels of constraint recognition reduce people's inclination to actively find out more as they believe they cannot effect positive change (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). For example, if people believe they cannot solve the problem of air pollution they are unlikely to communicate about it. Constraint recognition can be the difference between people being in an aware public or a latent public (Lester, 2016).

3.6.1e Level of involvement – This variable dictates the extent to which an individual is invested in a problem or organisation (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). Lester (2016) highlights that higher levels of involvement will lead to people demonstrating more active communication behaviours and connecting more strongly with the situation (Grunig, 2005). The more strongly a person feels involved in a problem, the more likely they are to actively search out information. Grunig (1984) argues that high involvement leads to problem recognition and decreases constraint recognition because involved people are more likely to band together to remove constraints. This highlights them as an active public.

The situational theory of publics, developed by Grunig (1984, p. 147), proposes that publics develop as a consequence of a problem differ, "in the extent to which they are aware of the problem and the extent to which they do something about the problem".

Four publics are proposed which are:

3.6.1f Public one - Press agent/publicity

In this model, communication professionals adopt a highly influential, one-way mode of communication to shape the thoughts and opinions of key audiences.

Accuracy is not paramount, and organisations place little, if any, value in seeking feedback or conducting audience analysis research.

3.6.1g Public two – Public information

This model moves away from the manipulation used in the model above and presents more accurate information. It is still firmly one-way communication with no audience analysis before or after to guide the approach. Company newsletters fall into this category.

3.6.1h Public three – Two-way asymmetrical

This is a more scientifically persuasive approach with research to identify audience attitudes and behaviours which help to engage the audience and inform message creation and delivery strategy. Persuasive communication is still used to benefit the organisation rather than the audience and therefore it is considered asymmetrical or imbalanced.

3.6.1j Public four – Two-way symmetrical

With this model, Grunig (1984) argues that practitioners should act as a liaison between the organisation and key publics, involving all parties rather than trying to persuade on behalf of the organisation. The term 'symmetrical' is used to highlight the shared importance and mutual benefit of the organisation and key publics. Fawkes (2007) argues that this is the most ethical model and one that practitioners should aspire to use in day to day tactics and strategies.

Grunig (1992) makes a distinction between stakeholders and publics. He presents his theory "that publics arise when organisations make decisions that have consequences on people inside and outside the organisation who were not involved in making their decision. In addition, publics often want consequences from organisational decisions that organisations might be reluctant to provide – such as lower prices, stable employment, or less pollution" (Grunig, 2005, p. 778). In contrast, Grunig (2005, p. 778)describes stakeholders as "categories of people who are affected by the actual or potential consequences of strategic, or important

organisational decisions. Stakeholders are people who have something at risk when the organisation makes decisions. Stakeholder categories generally are the focus of public relations programs, such as employee relations". However, Lester (2016) disagrees with Grunig (1992), arguing that practitioners view publics and stakeholders as interchangeable. This aligns with Welch and Jackson (2007) who present their stakeholder framework as a basis for developing theory, generating new research and producing practical solutions.

This thesis recognises the usefulness of the situational theory of publics in helping to define publics in a structured manner but rejects it as a basis for this research. The reason for this is that this thesis adopts a different approach to identifying publics based on the attitudes and behaviour required to create authenticity of group membership and then identifying the communication channels that these individuals are most open to. The focus is on improving corporate communication as defined in the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007). To this end there is no discrete problem to engage publics or stakeholders, save the problem of communicating corporate messages to different groups with different needs. If one considers work role and corporate authenticity as two potential groups to communicate to and identifies the communication channel(s) they are most open to information seeking behaviour is likely to be enhanced. Thus, the relationship between authenticity of group membership and communication channel can help to inform the situational theory of publics. Further exploration of the relationship between authenticity of group membership and communication channel can be found later in this chapter, in 3.7, rationale for researching internal communication.

The next sections explore alternative ways to segment an audience. The first, stakeholder salience is based on the principle of who or what really counts and is proposed by Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997).

3.7 Theory of stakeholder identification and salience

Freeman (1994) concludes that current definitions of what constitutes a stakeholder lack agreement. He goes on to argue the principle of who or what really counts, that is, who are the stakeholders and to whom or what do managers

attend to, needs clarification. Morphy (2008, p. 1) cites Mitchell's (1997) call for a normative theory to account for "who counts" and "what counts". He says this requires a descriptive theory of stakeholder salience explaining the conditions when managers do consider certain people or entities as stakeholders.

Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) developed an alternative approach to stakeholder identification and management based on power, legitimacy and urgency.

3.7.1 Power is defined as the stakeholder's power to influence the organisation or the extent to which a party has or can gain access to coercive (physical means), utilitarian (material means) or normative (prestige, esteem and social) means to impose their will.

3.7.2 Legitimacy refers to how legitimate the stake-holders relationship is with the organisation. Legitimacy is a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions.

3.7.3 Urgency is defined as the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate attention. The 'degree' depends not just on time-sensitivity, but also on how 'critical' the relationship is with the stakeholder or the importance of their claim.

From this model Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) develop a theory of stakeholder salience. They define 'salience' as "the degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims" (Mitchell et al., 1997, p.854). The more attributes – power, legitimacy, and urgency – the stakeholder is perceived to have the higher their salience. In other words the greatest priority will be given to stakeholders who have power, legitimacy and urgency (Morphy, 2008). The three attributes are interrelated to create eight different classes of stakeholder which are presented in the venn diagram below.
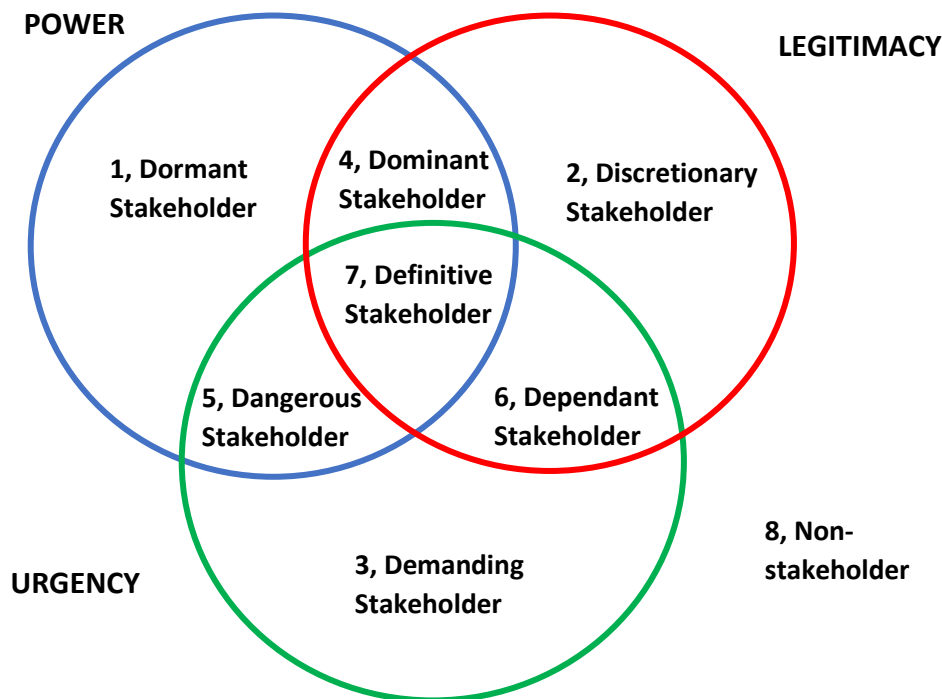
Figure 4: Stakeholder Typology (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997, p. 874)

Those stakeholder groups who satisfy one of the three attributes are referred to as latent stakeholders, two out of the three attributes are known as expectant and those with all three are known as high salience (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). If a group display none of the three attributes they are regarded as non-stakeholders.

3.7.4 Latent stakeholders – are not likely to give any attention or acknowledgement to the organisation. They have low salience and managers may do nothing with them indeed, they may not even recognise them as stakeholders (Morphy, 2008). There are three categories of latent stakeholders.

    1, Dormant stakeholder – the relevant attribute of the dormant stakeholder is power to impose their will on an organisation. Without a legitimate relationship or a claim to urgency their power remains unused (Morphy, 2008). Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997, p. 875) gives several examples of dormant stakeholders namely, "those who have a loaded gun (coercive), those who can spend a lot of money (utilitarian), or those who command the attention of the news media (symbolic)". The possibility of this public

acquiring another attribute is such that managers should remain cognisant of their latent power.

2, Discretionary stakeholder – this group flex the attribute of legitimacy, but they have no power to influence or claims of urgency (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). This group are likely to be beneficiaries of charity or philanthropy. As such there is no pressure on managers to engage with this group although they may choose to do so (Morphy, 2008). Potential points of engagement are via social corporate responsibility activities.

3, Demanding stakeholder – demanding stakeholders are typified by the urgent attribute which prompts constant communication of needs and causes. They become irritants for managers and can include people with unjustified grudges, serial complainers and low return customers. Largely, managers can dismiss them as insignificant (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997).

3.7.5 Expectant stakeholders – have moderate salience. They are active rather than passive and managers view them as expecting something which prompts a higher level of engagement (Morphy, 2008). Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) describe an active communication position with much more responsiveness from managers and the organisation.

4, Dominant stakeholder – these stakeholders have legitimate claims and the power to mobilise and influence organisational policy. Morphy (2008) argues that many theories of internal and public relations position them as the only group for consideration as publics. They have a formal mechanism in place that acknowledges their relationship with the organisation or project. He gives examples including Boards of Directors, HR and public relations.

5, Dangerous stakeholder - Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) highlight that a stakeholder with urgency and power that lacks legitimacy is more likely to engage in coercion, illegal activities and may become violent which creates a literal danger to the organisation. Although Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997)

identify them as a separate group they do not require managers to engage with them as this lends a degree of legitimacy.

6, Dependent stakeholder – these stakeholders relay on others like more powerful stakeholders or organisational managers to carry out their bidding as they lack the power to enforce their viewpoint (Morphy, 2008). Power, in this relationship is not reciprocal but is governed through "the advocacy or guardianship of other stakeholders, or through the guidance of internal management values" (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997, p. 877).

3.7.6 Definitive stakeholders – have high salience and managers give them immediate priority where communication is concerned (Morphy, 2008).

7, Definitive stakeholder – with existing power and legitimacy attributes, definitive stakeholders are already part of the 'dominant coalition'. When they argue their claim is urgent, it sends a clear message to managers to attend to and give priority to their claim (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). Definitive stakeholders usually consist of expectant groups who have gained an extra attribute. For example, dominant stakeholders whose cause becomes urgent or dependent groups with powerful legal support (Morphy, 2008). Care should be taken as dangerous stakeholders could gain legitimacy, perhaps by garnering support from the political elite.

The salience model is dynamic as each of the attributes can change, they are not objective but based on human perception and stakeholders may, or not, be aware they possess an attribute and may or may not choose to use it (Morphy, 2008).

Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) make it clear that their work is based purely on the literature and not on any empirical research. Nonetheless, it does provide another perspective on stakeholder behaviour. This research recognises the usefulness of stakeholder salience as a useful tool to explore stakeholders or publics in an organisational context and identify what and how stakeholder behaviour can be managed to facilitate organisational communication. However, stakeholder salience

is based on group attributes rather than individual preferences and, as such, it is rejected as a basis for this thesis. Stakeholder salience does not account for individual preferences predicting group membership, individuals feeling themselves to be authentic members of groups or openness to communication channels all of which are critical elements of this study.

3.8 Stakeholder approach

This next section will explore the how communicators can make the best of their resources by segmenting their audience and planning their approach to different stakeholders, so their message gets to the right people, in the right way, using the most appropriate channel. It is essential that efforts to communicate are directed to make the best of the limited resources available, especially where budgets are constricting. Indeed, Melcrum (2011) highlights that lack of resources is one of the major factors limiting the effectiveness of internal communication. This points to an obvious challenge for any internal communicator; to ensure that the recipient receives and understands the message.

This research has already cited Grunig and Hunt (1984), acknowledging the propensity for organisational leaders to distribute employees into different sub groups or 'publics'. Each has differing needs, in terms of the information they need and in terms of the differing information the organisation wishes them to have. Scholes and Clutterbuck (1998) emphasise that it is no longer a case of whether to communicate using a stakeholder approach but how to achieve this in the most effective manner. Welch and Jackson (2007) agree that the stakeholders need to be clearly identified and communication appropriately adapted to them and place some of the blame, for a lack of adoption of the stakeholder concept, on internal communication researchers, who tend to treat the internal public as one group, whereas, in a practical sense, communication managers are trying to deal with multiple stakeholder groups, each with growing power and increasingly complex relationships between them with variable rates of success (Scholes and Clutterbuck, 1998).

The term stakeholder comes from a concept proposed by Edward Freeman (Freeman and Reed, 1983) which sought to expand the notion of shareholders by including those groups, whose support was critical to the success of the organisation, which allowed the focus to widen and include the local community and suppliers prompting the inclusion of ethical considerations (Freeman, 2010). The main driver for this change was to modify the way managers thought about the business and specifically to introduce notions of ethics into the management

vocabulary (Weitzner and Deutsch, 2019). Stakeholders could consist of employees, suppliers, financiers, customers, shareholders or the community (Scholes and Clutterbuck, 1998) although Freeman and Reed (1983) stipulate that anyone who has an impact on the organisation, or is impacted by the organisation, can be considered as a stakeholder. Indeed Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) point to literature reviews, where a few broader definitions consider that almost anyone, with a connection to the organisation, can be termed a stakeholder. They call for better theoretical constructs to differentiate stakeholders from non-stakeholders, which, in part, has been taken up by Welch and Jackson (2007) with a clear focus on internal communication. Phase one of this research will address this by developing two alternative stakeholder groups based on authentic group membership.

Welch and Jackson (2007) propose a range of different groupings of stakeholders including segmentation by demographics or occupational classification systems. They point to organisations in different industries having different sets of stakeholders, for example in education stakeholder groupings could include "manual and ancillary, academic support, administrative, academic and research" (2007, p. 184). Another way to differentiate stakeholders, is to use structural levels like strategic management, day-to-day management, team and project management however this appears to lack whole organisation thinking as non-managerial levels are not included. Welch and Jackson (2007) account for this by proposing groupings applicable to internal communication and covering the whole organisation:

- All employees
- Strategic management: the dominant coalition, top management or strategic IC Managers (CEOs, senior management teams)
- Day-to-day management: supervisors, middle managers or line managers (directors, heads of departments, team leaders, division leaders, the CEO as line manager)
- Work teams (departments, divisions)
- Project teams (internal communication review group, company-wide email implementation group)

They developed these groupings into four key dimensions of internal communication namely, internal line managers, internal team peers, internal project peers and internal corporate communication, applying internal communications processes to them to give a fuller picture. The four dimensions are explained below adapted from Welch and Jackson (2007, p. 186):

Dimension one – internal line management communication - Line management communication is present at every level where people are managed. It focuses on communication about employee roles and the impact of employee's communication style and uses methods like setting targets and appraising performance.

Dimension two – internal team peer communication - Team peer communication involves communicating team tasks, or facilitating discussions about them, with members of the team who may be employees or managers.

Dimension three – internal project peer communication - Project peer communication involves a range of colleagues working on a specific common project and communication is generally two-way and focuses on project issues.

Dimension four – internal corporate communication - Internal corporate communication is aimed at all employees and is critical in developing effective engagement.

The fourth dimension, concerning internal corporate communication, is said to be important as it focuses attention on all employees and addresses a vacuum left by other research into the area (Welch and Jackson, 2007). By using clear and consistent messages, Welch and Jackson (2007) argue it helps to generate and maintain employee engagement, and makes a contributing link between internal communication managers and developing engaged employees.

When we look at this fourth dimension in more detail Welch and Jackson (2007, p. 186) define it as:

"communication between an organisation's strategic IC Managers and its internal stakeholders, designed to promote commitment to the organisation, a sense of

belonging to it, awareness of its changing environment and understanding of its evolving aims".

They present their theory in a diagrammatic form and explain that the four grey arrows represent corporate messages coming from strategic IC Managers with corporate goals written on the arrowhead. These corporate goals will be discussed later.
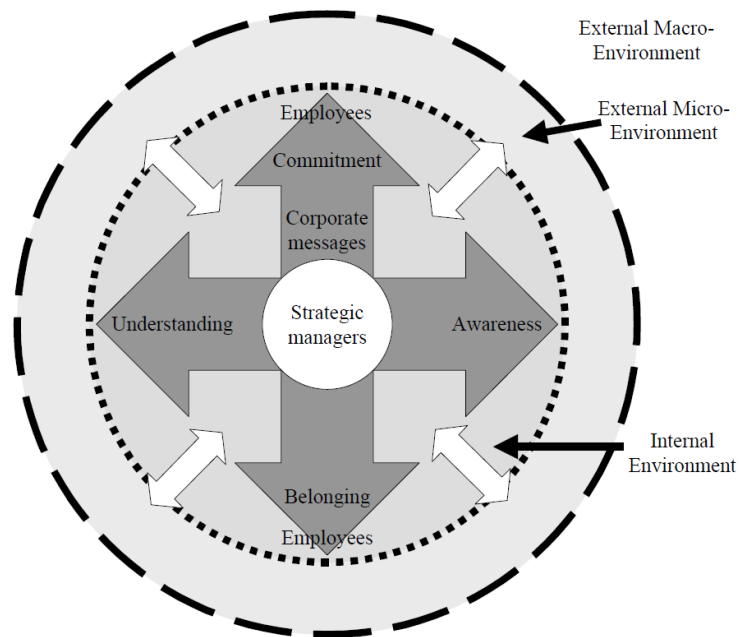
Figure 5: Internal Corporate Communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007)

Communication, along the four grey arrows, is a one-way message from strategic IC Managers to employees with no feedback loop or opportunity, for employees to contribute to, or comment on, the strategy (Welch and Jackson, 2007). They make the point that it is unrealistic for communication to be a two-way process, except for in very small organisations, and describe the difficulty in achieving this as similar to having face-to-face discussions with every employee about setting the strategy (2007). Welch and Jackson contend where consistency is paramount then one-way communication internally, using for example: a newsletter, is appropriate (2007). Senior managers could utilise dimension two and dimension three, team and project peer communication respectively, to facilitate feedback. By cultivating upwards critical communication senior managers will gain insight into areas that

concern employees. This is indicated by the four, dual direction, white arrows in Figure 2 above.

Perhaps, by introducing more social media it would be possible to increase two-way communication and engage employees in the strategic direction of the organisation. Indeed, St. Onge (2017), Employee Communications manager for Global Air Canada, discusses the explosion of different media that are available through the increased use of technology. She says that traditional communication channels like town halls, email and intranet have given way to a myriad of social media options including Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and Snapchat. With increased social media use communication is more likely to cross socio-economic and generational groups and two-way communication has increased with staff turning to social media to vent their satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their employer both when in work and out of work.

This less structured approach to feedback, proposed by Welch and Jackson (2007), is contrary to many other researchers who contest that corporate communication is most effective, when it creates a specific two-way dialogue between employees and strategic IC Managers (Quate, 1986; Smythe, 1997; Edwards and Sisson, 1989; Grunig, 1992; Ruck, 2015). Grunig (1992) highlights the need for two-way, preferably symmetrical communication, as part of the excellence theory in public relations, in order to increase the value of internal communications and to improve the quality of relationships with stakeholders. According to Grunig (1992), if stakeholder needs are not acknowledged, and integrated within the strategy, stakeholders will either pressure the organisation to change or add cost and risk to policies and decisions by actively or inertly opposing the strategy or goal. Grunig (1992), goes on to explain the ethical aspects of the stakeholder theory, in that organisations should actively scan their stakeholders, internal and external, to identify groups which will be affected by any proposed changes in strategy and make attempts to communicate symmetrically and take the interests of both into account.

From a practitioner's perspective, Do Amaral (2017) cites several benefits from taking this approach. He describes a shift from a top-down, authoritarian, approach

to one with much more engagement, positive input and shared responsibility for outcomes which prompts a more motivated workforce. Aside from increased involvement and motivation, Do Amaral (2017) also identifies that with a better distribution of power, communication ideas are spread more easily and rapidly which, in turn, improves the quality of decision making and helps to accelerate innovation.

Do Amaral (2017) suggests that to practically develop this approach within an organisation requires four main areas of consideration:

1. Encouraging staff to speak freely, communicate any issues or problems, contribute to solutions and support other members of staff.
2. Building a communication 'infrastructure' that helps staff to exchange ideas and gain feedback on solutions. This would include a range of different methods of communication (email, face-to-face, social media, etc.) and other processes to support them.
3. Developing staff to gain the best from communication channels which could include, handling conflict, listening skills and giving and receiving feedback.
4. Pulling together strategic events to gather feedback and solicit ideas for innovation. These events can also help to reduce silos and encourage whole organisation communication and knowledge sharing.

In summarising his thoughts, Do Amaral (2017, p. 29) suggests that traditional top-down communication is no longer useful in organisations, the value that communication professionals bring is not in editing and writing but in facilitating authentic communication and the key focus, in the future, is about "communication climate, communication infrastructure, dialogue skill development and strategic dialogue".

3.8.1 Internal corporate communication goals

When identifying outcomes from internal corporate communication, Welch and Jackson (2007) describe four goals resulting from the stakeholder approach, which

are represented as grey arrows in their diagram (2007, p. 188). These goals are further explained below:

3.8.1a Goal one: contributing to internal relationships characterised by employee commitment

Welch and Jackson (2007) cite Meyer and Allen (1997) who identify three types of organisational commitment; (1) affective, where employees have an emotional link to the organisation and remain with the organisation because they want to be there, (2) continuance, where employees remain because the cost of leaving is too high, i.e. they need to be there and (3) normative commitment, where employees feel a sense of obligation to the organisation. Welch and Jackson (2007), summarise this as a "type or degree" (p. 189) of loyalty to the organisation and argue that well formulated internal communication can help to enhance these characteristics.

3.8.1b Goal two: promoting a positive sense of belonging in employees

A sense of being part of a group or a motivation for belongingness (Cornelissen, 2017) typifies definitions of wanting to belong. Social identity theory argues that people self-identify with groups that bring them higher self-esteem and enhance their self-view (Capozza and Brown, 2000) by comparing their own group with other groups. There are potential dangers to social identity theory as inter-group competition can break out which can create a distraction from agreed organisational goals and employees could feel they belong more with a group of their peers than with the organisation. Welch and Jackson (2007) point out that identification is a way organisations can influence stakeholder groups by emphasising shared values and beliefs. They go on to point out that using a top-down approach to influencing, using shared values, is open to manipulation. This is similar to the concerns of other researchers when investigating the historical use of internal communication via printed publications (Scholes and Clutterbuck, 1998; Ruck, 2015; Hay, 1974) but Welch and Jackson (2007) give credit to the ethical intention of internal communication.

3.8.1c Goal three: developing their awareness of environmental change

3.8.1d Goal four: developing their understanding of the need for the organisation to evolve its aims in response to, or in anticipation of, environmental change

These two goals have been considered together as awareness of the changing environment and understanding of the need for the organisation to react, to that change, are closely related.

Leaders of organisations need to clearly communicate not only the strategic vision but also the context and environment in which that vision is realised (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Palmer and Hartley (2002, cited in Welch and Jackson, 2007) say that this context is dynamic and can be analysed at three levels macro, micro and internal. Internal changes required to meet shifts in context at each of these three levels must be adequately communicated to employees. To ensure they have a full picture of the reasoning behind these changes, it is necessary to communicate these changes in context (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

From a practitioner perspective, D'Aprix (2017), an American thought leader on organisational communication, highlights the need for clarity about the turbulent nature of organisations and their marketplace, as a context in which they operate, in order to present meaningful messages to their staff. By failing to provide clarity, staff will collectively assume the facts to fill in the missing pieces in order to find someone, or something to blame for the perceived inconvenience or discomfort. He goes on to describe people retreating away from the complexities of rapid and widespread change, to find a simpler way of life away from the organisation. Both of these possible scenarios create issues for the organisation and for internal communication specialists.

D'Aprix (2017) suggests that finding solutions is a complex matter and in part relies on the individual motivators of staff including health and other lifestyle contexts. These provides a basis for understanding how any change impacts on individuals. The solution proposed is a full and continuous commentary on the benefits and risks of the organisational context which includes the marketplace and associated threats and opportunities.

In short, D'Aprix states that organisational leaders should turn their, and their employees' focus to the marketplace so that everyone understands the "threats, opportunities and forces" (2017, p. 21), that shape strategic decisions and actions, which will give them a much better appreciation of the context in which the organisation operates. For D'Aprix, the main challenge is "getting the organisation's leadership and staff on the same page" (2017, p. 22), and ensuring that departmental biases and silo mentalities are put aside to facilitate a common message to the leadership. In turn, leaders must not become defensive when presented with the information but should engage in honest, open and consensual communication directed towards agreed solutions. Hallam (2013, p. 122) concurs with the need for communicating the context surrounding changes, to reduce fear in employees, raise awareness and ultimately, increase loyalty, commitment and understanding.

3.8.2 External and internal focus of the four dimensions

The next section looks at the external and internal contexts within which the four dimensions of internal communication exist and the internal context, with a focus on culture, is relevant to the aims and objectives of this research. Internal corporate communication, according to Welch and Jackson (2007), falls into a stakeholder theory approach and therefore operates, as the other four dimensions, within both external and internal contexts. The external context comprises of macro forces like political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental, which have an impact on any organisation in any sector, and micro forces like customers, competitors and suppliers, which tend to be much closer to individual organisations (Silbiger, 2005). The internal context includes organisational processes, culture, leadership style, employee relations and internal communication (Schein, 1984, cited in Welch and Jackson, 2007). The internal environment creates a climate within which internal communication is carried out and influences like "culture, attitude to conflict management and communication systems" affect the nature and quality of communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007, p. 191). They go on to argue that different climates exist within organisations and these represent the four dimensions of internal communication presented in the stakeholder model.

Although, Welch and Jackson's (2007) stakeholder approach to internal communication identifies different audiences, all employees will have membership of more than one group, through the notion of the internal corporate communication group, which creates the entity of a single public, an entity Welch and Jackson (2007) were keen to move away from. Regarding the stakeholder approach, there appears to be a gap in the literature, to investigate stakeholder groups formed from individual traits rather than organisational imperatives. This method of apportioning employees into groups could be a more effective way to improve motivation and attention to communication.

Welch and Jackson (2007) identify a gap in the literature about the types of communication media and whether different types of media are suitable for meeting differing needs of different employee, or stakeholder, groups. They go on to propose that, with new types of employee roles appearing, to manage the changing face of the workplace, there is a need for further research into the extent to which employees have different internal communication preferences, for example in content, amount, and delivery method, compared with other groups of employees. More research is needed to identify what channels of communication are more effective for each group. This research will explore whether using work role and corporate authenticity, is a more effective way to segment audiences and whether these groupings predict which communication channel will prompt more openness or motivation to attend to the message.

3.9 Other group-based approaches to internal communication

Whilst Welch and Jackson's stakeholder approach (2007) broadly forms the basis of this thesis, there are other models of internal communication that could be used to segment audiences. This section provides an outline of key models, closest to this study, with critical analysis of the extent to which they provide a solid basis for this research.

3.9.1 Purposes of internal communication

Kalla (2005, p. 305) highlight four different types or purposes of communication, "business communication addresses the communication skills of all employees,

management communication focuses on the development of the managers' communication skills and capabilities, corporate communication focuses on the formal corporate communication function, and organisational communication addresses more philosophically and theoretically oriented issues". Kalla (2005) argues that all must be working effectively as weaknesses in the efficacy of one impact on the others. These different approaches often create differing perspectives about which publics or stakeholder groups take priority and how best to engage with them. Where Kalla (2005) focuses on four broad areas of communication, including employee and management communication skills, this thesis is rooted in the mechanics of creating more effective corporate communication.

Kalla (2005) highlights that internal communications is both multi-level and multi-disciplinary. This supports the concept of stakeholder groups built around personal attributes rather than operational imperatives as employees are more likely to feel part of the group (Burke and Stets, 2009) and the issue of different messages at different levels does not arise. Indeed, Kalla (2005, p. 310) highlights that organisations, "need to view internal communications as strategic rather than as skill-oriented". She goes on to propose knowledge sharing as a key function of internal communication in a way that has not previously been considered (Kalla, 2005). Stets and Burke (2000) describe social identity groups as individuals but committed to the goals and behaviours of the group. Thus, if knowledge sharing is a recognised group behaviour or goal, either prompted or naturally occurring then social identity predicts that the group will challenge members to deliver it. However, Kalla (2005) focuses on the purpose of communication rather than the people being communicated to, which is less of a fit with the group-focused approach used in this thesis.

3.9.2 Communication satisfaction

Carriere and Bourque (2009) take a similar information-focused view to Kalla (2005) in their research reviewing internal communication in an ambulance service. They found, "managers will not be able to foster job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment through internal communication practices unless they

recognize and appreciate what information is valued by employees (2009, p. 29)".
This notion of collating staff under information streams could be equated to
creating publics concerned with a problem which leads one back to situational
theory of publics (Grunig and Hunt, 1984) which is less applicable to this thesis.
Carriere and Bourque (2009) also highlight the need for managers to understand
the quantity and quality of communication desired by employees if they are to
design internal communication systems that fit the needs of their employees. The
need to tailor communication to an audience is something that has been covered
previously in this chapter and key to ensuring efficacy is good audience
segmentation (Whitworth, 2017; Holtz, 2016; McQuail, 2000; St.Onge, 2017). This
thesis hypothesises audience segmentation could be better addressed by using
personal preferences to make up audience segments or stakeholder groups like
work role and corporate authenticity.

Carriere and Bourque (2009) use a measure of communication satisfaction to
provide an employee's affective appraisal of the organisation's communication
practices. Communication satisfaction is a multidimensional construct although the
exact number of dimensions tends to vary depending on the research model used.

Seven are routinely identified although none specifically focus on audience
segmentation:

(1) communication climate
(2) communication with supervisors
(3) organisational integration
(4) media quality
(5) horizontal and informal communication
(6) organisational perspective
(7) communication with subordinates

The measure of communication satisfaction used by Carriere and Bourque (2009)
was first developed by Downs and Hazen (1977) who factor analysed data collected

from Managerial and Professional levels at four organisations. The area most equivalent to this thesis is dimension 3, organisational integration. This accounts for 7.6% of the original variance and concerns the extent to which individuals are satisfied with the information they receive about the organisation and their immediate work environment. "Items which load onto this factor are getting information about departmental policies and plans, and the requirements of one's job and personnel news" (Downs and Hazen, 1977, p. 67). However, given the age of this research it would be impossible to account for social media which creates a gap between Carriere and Bourque (2009) and the subject of this thesis, especially openness to social media communication.

Downs and Hazen (1977) refer to satisfaction between different hierarchical groups like managers/subordinates which ties up with Welch and Jackson's (2007) stakeholder theory that also presents communication between hierarchical groups. The focus of Downs and Hazen (1977) being on hierarchical relationships is counter to this thesis which focuses on individual characteristics like authentic membership of work role and corporate groups which could overlay hierarchical structures. Developing the work of Downs and Hazen (1977), Carriere and Bourque (2009) focus on communication practice prompting communication satisfaction which is a gateway to maintaining and improving other organisational metrics like job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. This thesis focuses on the interaction between stakeholder groups and openness to channels of communication which may be considered a communication practice that is likely to impact on communication satisfaction and dependent variables like job satisfaction. Whilst this impact is not a specific element in this thesis it could be considered a subject of future research.

Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti (2012) build on previous internal communication research by proposing that efficacy in internal communication relies on both managerial planning and interactions between employees. They ascertain that, "while advocating its strategic role, communication scholars have not provided a unifying frame of the strategic contribution of internal communication to the

organisation" (2012, p. 150). They point to internal communications still striving to become a recognised area of academic research which is counter to Welch and Jackson (2007) who proposed a baseline model, including strategic elements, from which researchers could develop theory.

3.9.3 Entrepreneurial Communication Paradigm (ECP)

Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti (2012) point to the diverse and splintered themes that cascade from research and argue that the Entrepreneurial Communication Paradigm (ECP), a framework used to interpret the strategic role of communication in light of the Entrepreneurial Organization Theories (EOT), could be used to build a more complete outlook of the strategic contribution of internal communication. This would support organizational management processes and drive organizational success.

Strategic communication, within the ECP, has four main dimensions which are:

3.9.3a Aligning – This dimension requires continuous monitoring to ensure that the, "on-going dynamics in the company's social context" and "the most relevant expectations of stakeholders" are met (Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012, p. 152) including engaging with the most important stakeholders and developing long lasting and symmetric relations with them. Entrepreneurship is said to need social interaction to shape and develop new ideas and build support (Sadler-Smith et al., 2003 cited in Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012).

3.9.3b Energizing – This dimension focuses on communication that encourages an innovative orientation and creates collaborative networks through which to drive innovation using existing resources, developing capability and the dissemination of knowledge (Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012). Echols and Neck (1998) stress how orientation towards innovation is critical to the innovative use of resources, capability and competencies. Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti (2012) argue that

strategic communication helps engagement with key stakeholder groups which prompts them to display responsibility for driving innovation.

3.9.3c Visioning – Another dimension is about the "definition and diffusion of corporate mission, strategies and guiding values in order to envision and share a common vision of the future, as well as to deliver coherent messages" (Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012, p. 152). This dimension involves communicating strategic company decisions to help gather and direct stakeholders in line with those decisions. The decisions should be based on company values and align with the company's mission. Communicating a single, clear strategy helps to focus stakeholders and develop long term reputations (Cornelissen, 2017).

3.9.3d Constituting activities – The final dimension involves helping stakeholders to make more sense of entrepreneurial activities by refining strategic communication (Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012). Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti (2012) and go on to argue, "The role of communication in sense-making processes consists of pin-pointing the communicative aspects of decisions, the strategic options the organization has at its disposal, and specific strategic objectives in advance" (2012, p. 153). This helps key stakeholders become more confident in their understanding and more likely to influence through analysis and interpretation of the marketplace and organisational context.

Each of the four stages of the ECP, involves strategic communication to key stakeholders. This chapter has already identified a need for audience segmentation through situational publics (Grunig and Hunt, 1984), stakeholder salience (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997) and the stakeholder model (Welch and Jackson, 2007) to increase the efficacy of internal communication. Strategic communication around the ECP also benefits from clear identification of key stakeholders and understanding of the relationship between authentic membership of stakeholder groups and openness to different channels of communication.

Whilst the above fundamentally agree that stakeholders are critical to excellent internal communication the focus is on specific situations/problems or organisational hierarchies. Whilst this thesis acknowledges the excellent contribution Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti (2012) make, the lack of individual communication preferences, that apply whatever the situation or organisational position, make this theory of internal communication inappropriate for this research.

Karanges et al. (2014) presents an internal communication process that provides and shares information to create a sense of community and trust amongst employees. They go on to describe the purpose of the research is to, "investigate whether social factors, namely perceived support and identification, play a mediating role in the relationship between internal communication and engagement" (2014, p. 239). They argue that the link between internal communication and engagement, mediated by social identity is a gap in the literature. This thesis utilises a similar hypothesised relationship between social identity, authenticity and openness to internal communication channels.

Karanges et al. (2014) argue that organisations and managers should focus their efforts on building greater perceptions of support and stronger identification to build enhanced engagement.

Karanges et al., (2015) explore two classifications of identification, identifying with the organisation and identifying with the supervisor.

3.9.4 Identifying with the organisation

Identifying with the organisation is achieved when employees feel they belong in an organisation and identify with other employees as a social group (Karanges, 2014). Members of this group will view organisational challenges and plaudits as their own (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). As discussed previously in this chapter, identification has both affective (emotional) and cognitive (intellectual) components (Welch and Jackson, 2007) however Karanges et al. (2014) highlight that the affective element is likely to be more important in creating positive social identity and citizenship

behaviour, employee satisfaction, decreased turnover and enhanced commitment and performance. This research focuses on how authentic individuals feel as a member of this and other groups.

3.9.5 Identifying with supervisors

Karanges et al. (2014) propose that good supervisor identification enhances interpersonal relationships between group members, creates supportive behaviours and is more likely to lead to alignment with the overall goals and objectives of the organisation. This reflects the 'in group' behaviour that characterises social group theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989) discussed in the previous chapter. Becker et al. (1996) found that employees distinguish between their identification to the organisation and identity towards their supervisor. Karanges et al. (2014) highlight that research into supervisor identity has been neglected. In this research, identification with one's supervisor has not been considered as the focus is firmly on authentic membership of groups.

3.9.6 Comparing identifying with the organisation and supervisors

In a study, utilising self-administered online questionnaires with 200 non-executive employees, Karanges et al. (2014) found that internal communication directly influences engagement and social support and identification provide a moderating effect. Social support and resources, when viewed favourably by employees, were found to have a positive impact on employee engagement.

Identification was found to have a mediating effect on the relationship between internal communication and employee engagement. Efficacious organisational communication influences employees' ability to identify with their organisation which, in turn, influences employee engagement. Organisational identity has higher variance than organisational support. For supervisor identification, the reverse was true in that supervisor support has an enhanced variance compared to supervisor identification.

This disparity between the influence of organisational identity and supervisor identity highlights the varied impact on engagement of identifying with different groups. In this thesis, CA and WRA provide those different groups as an independent variable and the dependent variable is openness to different communication channels, that is, how open employees are to engage with those channels.

3.9.7 Supply chain integration and social capital theory

Jacobs et al. (2016) use a relational focus in their research exploring the relationship between internal communication, employee satisfaction and supply chain integration. It carries significance for this research as internal communication is shown to create cohesive groups and enhance performance as a result. Araujo et al. (2021, p. 109) describe the focus of Jacobs et al. (2016) as, "the exchange of information and ideas among employees or members of an organisation (social actors) to build trusting and open relationships and to create understanding".

Jacobs, Yu and Chavez (2016) use social capital theory to explain how these trusting and open relationships are developed in supply chain integration via the creation of social structures which help to create collectively owned social assets which, in turn, help to create trust and openness in relationships.

There are three dimensions of social capital which are trustworthiness, information sharing and relational norms and sanctions (Coleman, 1988). Nahapiet and Goshal (1998 cited in Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016) also identify three social capital dimensions which are: cognitive capital (behavioural norms and congruent goals), structural social capital (connections among and patterns of relating between parties) and relational capital (trust, respect and friendship).

All these dimensions also play a part in social identity theory and help to create a link between group membership and internal communication. For example, where goals are explicit and well defined, individuals are more likely to be able to assess how authentic they feel as a member of that group. Jacobs et al. (2016) argue that social capital creates value, in that social actors who invest in social structures, like

the groups classified by social identity theory, obtain benefits from those social structures and assets.

Internal communication supports the transfer of information between social actors (employees) and contributes to positive social relationships (Welch, 2012). It includes a range of formal and informal communication mechanisms between individual employees, project groups, teams and between managers and reports (Welch and Jackson, 2007). When good internal communication is combined with feedback and listening and facilitating involvement in strategic decision making, opportunities to build and maintain trusting relationships within these groups are optimised (Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016).

Where high levels of internal communication prevails groups tend to be more productive problem solvers and more likely to attain goals and create employee satisfaction amongst members (Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016). Earlier in chapter one commonalities in group characteristics were discussed (Hogg and Abrams, 1988; Oakes, Haslam and Turner, 1994; Stets and Burke, 2000) and it is these commonalities that are thought to support internal communication as group think encourages the sharing of information and allows individuals to self-assess how authentic they feel as a member of the group.

Jacobs et al. (2016) report several pertinent findings from their research into internal communication into the supply chain of a manufacturing company. They establish that the impact of internal communication and employee satisfaction transgresses beyond the boundaries of the organisation to generate internal and external integration with customers and suppliers. They report that employee satisfaction provides a mediator between internal communication and external integration (2016).

Zhao et al. (2011 cited in Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016, p. 67) make the argument that, "To survive in today's highly dynamic environment, companies must forge and maintain collaborative relationships with trading partners; relationships which are developed based upon the implementation of internal business practices". Jacobs et al. (2016) propose that part of this is the result of appropriate internal

communication enhancing employee satisfaction which impacts on their willingness to forge those collaborative relationships.

Araújo and Miranda (2021) highlight the need for multidisciplinary strategies in internal communications. They highlight four disciplines that are linked to communication theory namely organisational communication, public relations, corporate communication and marketing but note that some are regarded as co-dependent or even the same but presented under a different name (Araújo and Miranda, 2021).

At the heart of this is internal communication and this research identifies a clear gap in the literature as groups identified above are based on operational imperatives like project teams, departmental teams and hierarchical relationships which negates groups based on individual characteristics or preferences for example CA and WRA.

3.10 Communication theory

Welch and Jackson (2007) provide us with the stakeholder model of internal communication that identifies four dimensions of communication that help to split our internal public and make communication more efficient and effective. They go on to argue that theoretical models of communication struggle to capture the complexity of real-life communication and call for academics to develop theories that have practical implications.

This next section will explore the theoretical process of communicating the message to the audience, how the communication is received and how engagement is impacted by a range of factors.

Early communication models relied on a sender and a receiver with decisions about the channel choice and content being wholly levied with the sender (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992). This resonates with the top-down communication which was often used as a result of professional journalists becoming involved in internal communication (Ruck, 2015). This linear approach to communication theory, i.e., sender – medium - content – receiver, has several flaws (McQuail and Windahl, 1993) including the lack of a feedback loop, in order to refine communication and improve efficiency, and the lack of attention to the context of the relationship. Quate (1986), as referenced earlier, identified that feedback was essential to improve the financial and operational performance of the organisation and to build a sense of belonging in employees through getting them engaged in corporate messages. Wilbur Schramm (1964, cited in McQuail and Windahl, 1993), amongst others, proposed that a linear theory of communication fails to reference that the receiver would put their own spin on the message and that all communication is impacted, not only by the content and channel used, but also by the relationships between each of the parties. Windahl, Signitzer and Olson (1992) propose that the linear approach to communication theory has given way to a processing strategy model characterised by Grunig and Hunt's (1984) two-way symmetrical approach based on a mutual understanding, of all parties. Scholes (1997) agrees, saying that traditional models place their emphasis on the creation and transmission of effective messages but more recent thinking concentrates on the behaviour of the

communicating parties. This change in emphasis suggests that the stakeholder model, proposed by Welch and Jackson (2007), could be enhanced by emphasising stakeholder groups based on behavioural and attitudinal traits as well as the organisational groups proposed.

When defining communication, Richard Varey (1993, cited in Scholes, 1997) makes the distinction between communication and information and goes on to argue that many of the issues associated with communication are linked to a lack of understanding of the distinction. Scholes describes information as "facts, intentions, feelings, attitudes and ideas" (Scholes, 1997, p. 220) and communication as the culmination of the processes that surround the exchange, transmission and receipt, of information. In effect, the message could be well presented, well-structured and aesthetically pleasing but if it has not been transmitted appropriately or interpreted, as it was intentioned, then the message is unlikely to be adequately attended to (Scholes, 1997).

To explore the main aspects of communication theory further Denis McQuail (2000) presents four models of mass communication, from which it is possible to draw some parallels with internal communication, and which help to place the focus of this research.

3.10.1 The transmission model is a less mechanistic version of the linear models, described above. The assumption is the sender, uses a one-way communication style, to impart a fixed message. The difference with mass communication is that it is mass communicators who select the available messages, could be a different person than the sender. Selection is based on what the audience may find interesting, and the message is something the audience may find interesting or useful (rather than being designed to persuade, educate or inform) (McQuail, 2000). For internal communicators, statutory or regulatory messages like health and safety may have to take priority over other communication.

The transmission model is self-regulating, in that, feedback is given which directs levels of interest in the content and the only performance measure is the satisfaction of the audience (McQuail, 2000).

From a practitioner's viewpoint, Shel Holtz (2016), wrote an article for the International Association of Business Communicators, in which he describes Chatbots, a computer programme that simulates human conversations, being used with artificial intelligence so the bots can learn during the 'conversation'. The opportunity for internal communicators is to use this technology to extend a range of subjects to employees and to give them the option of what they want to explore further. The Chatbot can then learn what subjects are of interest and present those more prominently. Holtz (2016) describes bots being the active programme behind voice activated appliances like Amazon's Alexa, Apple's Siri, Google Now and Microsoft's Cortana, and the same technology can be used with relatively simple interfaces like text messaging, which highlights the possibility of a more user-centric communications strategy, without unnecessary input from corporate communicators, as the bots would automatically channel relevant content and channels based on them learning what messages and what modes staff are more receptive to.

3.10.2 The ritual or expressive model views communication as a ritual involving sharing and participation with a common goal or remit and is not about imparting a position but representing shared beliefs. In mass communication, for example television or film, the emphasis is equally on the expressive element as this model includes reference to shared understanding and emotions, requiring some level of performance for communication to be realised. The message meaning is ambiguous and depends on the symbols and relationships which, in turn, impact on the interpretation of the meaning, thus the medium and message are hard to separate (McQuail, 2000).

We can see the sharing and participation elements clearly demonstrated in practice, indeed Whitworth (2017) extoles the virtue of user generated content and suggests, this is so much more likely to be seen as credible and authentic, by peers, that internal communications strategy should include tools that allow for staff to post their own reviews or experiences and pictures. He argues that many staff will have access to the same or better editing tools than their internal communication colleagues and be better placed to use them, which makes it an imperative for

internal communication strategy to find tools that allow peer-to-peer communication. Peer-to-peer communication forms part of the non-formal networks that Whitworth (2017) says leaders tend to dismiss and he illustrates that non-formal networks have been shown to be much more effective than formal networks in disseminating information.

The push is towards receiver-centric tools and the technological applications listed above are more likely to fit this goal, whether fully served by chatbots and artificial intelligence, or not. Papageorgiou (2017) reiterates the messages from Welch and Jackson (2007) to align tools, especially technology tools, with the characteristics and preferences of the audience, which will assist in bringing a more receiver-centric culture.

3.10.3 Publicity, or display-attention, model

McQuail (2000) highlights that the primary aim of mass media is to catch and hold the attention of the receiver: "the fact of attention often matters more than the quality of attention". (McQuail, 2000, p. 55). This leads to the third model of mass communication proposed by McQuail (2000) and, for this study, the most influential model the **Publicity, or Display-Attention, Model**. McQuail (2000) goes on to argue that there is only one key goal, in commercial communication, which is to gain audience attention, as attention drives consumption and therefore revenue. He argues, "a good deal of effort in media production is devoted to devices for gaining and keeping attention by catching the eye, arousing emotion, stimulating interest" (McQuail, 2000, p. 55). McQuail (2000) proposes that the relationship between the sender and receiver, according to the display-attention model, is not necessarily passive or uninvolved but is morally neutral and does not itself, imply a transfer or creation of meaning.

The display-attention model has features that do not apply to transmission or ritual models (McQuail, 2000, pp. 55-56):

1, Attention gaining is an end in itself. There is no focus on meaning transfer as the concern is whether people attend or not. McQuail (2000, p. 57) articulates it as "form and technique take precedence over message content".

2, The display attention model only acts in the present. There is no past, except in the meaning of repeated messages and the future is only a product of the amplification of the current message. The lack of focus on meaning transfer leads us to conclude that cause and effect, relating to the receiver's behaviour, does not happen.

3, Available audience attention time is finite. The time spent attending to one media cannot be given to another. Ritual models have no quantifiable limit to the amount of meaning, that can be transferred, which is counter to attention mode where meaning transfer is not a critical factor.

McQuail's (2000) position, arguing that gaining attention is an end in itself, resonates with this research in that openness, or attention, to a particular channel takes precedence over the meaning transferred. This study aims to build on this position and identify if specific traits, like work role and corporate authenticity, influence individuals' attention to specific channels of communication.

In a practical sense, the challenge for internal communicators, according to St.Onge (2017) is to use "the right medium to disseminate the message, with the content, tone (and length) tailored to maximise the distinct advantages of each" (St.Onge, 2017, p. 89).

One challenge, associated with the use of a range of media, is keeping the attention of staff when competing against many mediums whose sole purpose is to entertain as much as inform. In a similar vein, language shortcuts, like text speak, have changed the way we communicate to a mass market, as well as one to one, internal communicators need to evolve and follow suit by identifying short and succinct ways to communicate their message in a way that is universally understood. The key is to have a range of communication styles, adapted to a range of media and aimed at the individual level (St.Onge, 2017).

 St. Onge (2017) gives an example to illustrate, of communicating a global social awareness campaign which could involve multiple messages across many different media. An email containing an executive message might introduce the campaign, a

follow-up on social media might encourage others to participate with a follow-up story in an internal magazine, physical or virtual to reinforce the message. The language and content used in each of these communications will need to be suited to the required outputs and audience for them to be truly effective. The introduction may be written with a full narrative whereas social media posts may be much more concise and use informal language and the magazine story may contain more graphics and images. What can be a difficult sell is convincing senior leaders that brevity, when using social media, is a benefit as they may seek to fully convey the narrative of their message. St. Onge (2017) suggests that employee surveys can be used to good effect in capturing staff's reaction to more concise messages.

The last model that McQuail (2000) proposes is the **Reception Model** which locates itself in the 'reception analysis' arena, which focuses on the meaning the receiver derives from the message. Stuart Hall (1980, cited in McQuail, 2000) developed reception theory which argues that any media is encoded, by the sender, and decoded, by the recipient. Different audience members will decode the meaning of the message in one of three different ways, namely dominant or preferred reading, oppositional reading or negotiated reading (Hunter, 2017). (1) Dominant reading is when the audience agrees with the sender's meaning, which is usually the result of a clear narrative and the audience having a similar cultural position as the sender. (2) Oppositional reading is when the audience rejects the preferred meaning and imparts their own meaning, possibly because the media contains themes the audience member disagrees with or the audience member has different cultural views than the sender. Hunter's (2017) final position (3) is negotiated reading which occurs when the audience accepts part of the narrative but rejects another part. Hunter (2017) quotes a range of factors than can influence the audience's decoding, for example age, beliefs, culture, gender, life experience and mood, at the time of viewing.

From a practical sense, one way to ensure a negotiated reading, in organisations, is to create a productive feedback route. Do Amaral (2017) suggests that face-to-face events are better to gather different staff members together and begin that

feedback dialogue. This dialogue, for internal communicators, may be key to convincing leaders of the value of their work in the business, making that vital link to the bottom line and achieving parity of understanding across the organisation. This is highlighted by Zetterquist (2017), who refers to internal communication specialists using their skills and knowledge to help leaders facilitate some of the important discussions with key stakeholders. Whitworth (2017) supports the notion of the value that non-formal networks could bring to leaders. He suggests that leaders, typically, do not adequately engage with them because they think these networks are difficult to manage and control and internal communicators could support leaders in engaging with these networks.

3.10.4 Multi-model approach

McQuail (2000) makes the point that each of the four models of mass communication he proposes have their limitations. The transmission model lends itself to instruction or information, the ritual model is better for shared experience, particularly art or entertainment based, the publicity model works for gaining attraction and the reception model leaves the interpretation in the hands of the audience (McQuail, 2000).

Many researchers advocate the use of multi-method approaches in communication campaigns (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992; McQuail and Windahl, 1993; McQuail, 2000; Scholes, 1997) and especially in the evaluation of effectiveness of communication strategies (Scholes, 1997). One of the most well used models, of communication campaigns, was developed by McQuail (1987, cited in Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992) and emphasises the breadth of most campaigns.

The campaign model (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992), assumes that messages will come from multiple sources and be communicated via several channels, which is essential to ensure that the message is transmitted to all areas of the audience. Windahl, Signitzer and Olson (1992) went on to propose that communication planners must account for some of the filters, that impact on any communication, if the campaign is to be successful.

McQuail's model (1987, cited in Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992) includes several general types of filter which are **attention, perception, group situation and motivation**. McQuail (2000) describes the function, of these filters is to hinder or facilitate the flow of messages. He argues that the most important is **attention** as without attending to the message there can be no effect. Attention will depend on the interest and relevance of the content of the messages to the receiver, their motives, their predispositions and channel related factors. This filter is the one that carries most importance, for this study, in exploring whether CA and WRA as individual traits predict attraction to a particular channel. **Perception** is equally important, as explained in Stuart Hall's reception model (Hunter, 2017; McQuail, 2000) where messages are open to interpretation varying from, an oppositional reading, where the receiver rejects the message, through a negotiated reading, in which the receiver accepts part of the narrative but rejects other parts and finally to dominant reading, where the receiver agrees with the sender's meaning. McQuail (2000) proposes that the success of any campaign lies in the concordance between the meaning projected by the sender and the interpretation of the receiver. Additional impact, on the success of a campaign, can be felt from what McQuail (2000) defines as **group situation**, which refers to the factors identified by Stuart Hall (1980, cited in Hunter, 2017) namely, age, beliefs, culture, gender, life experience etc., and also the propensity to go along with the group and accept or reject the message due to peer pressure. The final filter is the individual **motivation**, of the receiver, driven by their expected satisfaction, which drives or hinders any further learning or behaviour change (McQuail, 2000). These four filters, together with knowledge and experience of techniques to counter their effect, determine the extent to which the target population is reached and ultimately the success of the campaign (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992). The final part of the model addresses the effects or outcomes of the campaign. McQuail (2000) organises these into three main headings, cognitive, affective and behavioural and goes on to explain these relate to information, feelings and action, respectively. The effects or outcomes of a campaign can be intended or unintended but must meet the initial objectives of the campaign if the campaign is to be thought of as successful (Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992).

Some examples of how practitioners apply a multi-method approach follow to demonstrate the breadth and range of practical application.

Malouf (2017) describes setting communication strategy, in line with strategic business goals, and then measuring the ROI of the communication function to help leaders understand the value of an internal communications department. He says the best way to achieve this value is through several communication tools that help communication specialists understand which work best in a particular organisation. This multifaceted approach is supported by Zetterquist (2017), highlighting the need to synchronise face-to-face messages with online interaction, and St. Onge (2017) who champions brevity in some forms of communication to keep the attention of staff. One example, used previously, describes multiple tools being used and the same message being presented in different forms, a longer version in email but a concise version when adapted for social media and, presumably, a micro version for some social media platforms. So, it appears that using different tools is only one part of the story, communicators also must be willing to adapt their message to the specific tool in terms of length, content and tone. St. Onge (2017) believes this could present a stumbling block for some leaders who prefer their full message to be used at all times.

Some tools, according to practitioners and academics, are nearing the end of their intended life. Grossman (2019) challenges the usefulness of company intranets in their present form as the need for discussion and collaboration tools is much better served by the likes of Google+ and social media. He suggests that the company intranet is more useful as an online archive. This study is including the intranet as part of the research as two of the three organisations have an active intranet and use it comprehensively as part of their communications strategy.

Many practitioners (Williams, 2017; St.Onge, 2017; Grossman, 2019; Holtz, 2016) agree that the part played by social media, in internal communications, is increasing but almost all contend this must be done with reference to the communications strategy and be effectively monitored and measured. Specifically, Ruck and Welch (2012) warn of the need to make strategy and measurement of effectiveness the

key focus so that pandering to the latest social media fad, does not become the norm.

The multi-model approach focuses on using a range of communication methods and channels. By exploring how CA and WRA interact with different channels this research builds on the multi-model approach by investigating the relationship between an individual's perception of how authentic their group membership is and openness to different channels which aims to give practitioners better ways to select the most appropriate channel.

3.11 Rationale for researching internal communication

This next section will review this chapter and present the rationale for including internal communication in this research.

As work role and corporate authenticity are new concepts there is no theoretical base to link them to internal communication. There is relatively little other research to link authenticity to internal communication. This paper takes authentic membership of groups and links it to internal communication via the medium of organisationally structured groups (Grunig and Hunt, 1984; Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997) and social identity theory (Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Stets and Burke, 2000; Turner et al., 1992) which do have a research base.

Internal communication is a way for organisations to make a personal connection with their employees (Ruck, 2015) and conduct relations between individuals and groups at different levels and across different functions (Watson Wyatt Worldwide, 2009; Ruck and Welch, 2012; Welch and Jackson, 2007; Tourish, 1997). Internal communication makes an impact on several critical management measures including engagement, trust, self-sufficiency and financial results (Ruck and Welch, 2012; Welch, 2012; Watson Wyatt Worldwide, 2009).

Internal communication is most successful when the communication needs of different sub-groups or publics are accounted for (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). One method of accomplishing this is the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007). This champions four dimensions of communication, based on four different publics, internal line managers (strategic and day-to-day management), internal team peers (departments, divisions), internal project peers (specific project teams) and internal corporate communication (all employees). These stakeholder groups are based on organisational imperatives and do little to account for the traits of individual employees within these groups.

Throughout this chapter the focus has been on groups, publics or stakeholders. In many models those groups are part of a bigger internal communication process (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997; Grunig, 1992) or assigned by the organisation explicitly or by way of position or involvement in a project or problem (Jacobs, Yu

and Chavez, 2016; Karanges, 2014; Invernizzi, Biraghi and Romanti, 2012; Welch and Jackson, 2007). This exposes a gap in the literature as assigning stakeholder groups by way of individual characteristics has not been researched.

This issue with such assignation of groups is that one might occupy more than one group. For example, one can be both a manager and a sub-ordinate in the same organisational group. Kalla (2005) calls for a multi-level approach which would reduce this issue. This research uses groups driven by individual preferences or attributes and the extent to which one feels authentic as a member of these groups, namely CA and WRA.

CA and WRA employees self-select into these groups rather than being selected by cause of position, project or problem. This research accepts that this self-selection is not without contradictions, however deciding whether one's focus is directed towards the organisation or one's role is much more likely to be a personal decision.

Employees who identify as more authentic members of the group are more likely to be engaged. In the frame of reference of the situational theory of publics (Grunig, 2005) they are more likely to demonstrate the behaviour of an active public. This is because high authenticity of group membership predicts high congruence in group behaviour like engagement, satisfaction and openness to particular channels of internal communication. (Turner et al., 1992). The connection between high job and communication satisfaction and internal communication is made in several studies (Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Karanges, 2014)

The notion of congruent behaviour is an important one for this research. Stets and Burke (2000) describe a group, when viewed through the lens of social identity theory, as a collective of similar people all of whom see each other in similar ways, hold similar views and demonstrate similar behaviours. Therefore, if the group norm is to prefer for example social media, other members of the group are also much more likely to prefer social media.

They will contrast with an out group, a different group (Stets and Burke, 2000), which means distinct preferences and group norms for each group (Ashforth and

Mael, 1989). This gives some credibility to different groups being open to different IC channels.

This research proposes an additional overlay to the stakeholder approach, based on work role authenticity and corporate authenticity, which offers opportunities to better personalise communication but still operate within a stakeholder approach.

Welch and Jackson (2007) identify a gap in the literature about the types of communication media and whether different types of media are suitable for meeting differing needs of different employee, or stakeholder, groups. They go on to propose that, with new types of employee roles appearing, to manage the changing face of the workplace, there is a need for further research into the extent to which employees have different internal communication preferences, for example in content, amount and delivery method, compared with other groups of employees. This research will add to the theory by exploring which channels of communication are more effective, for the two groups, work role authentic and corporate authentic, proposed as part of this overlay.

Finally, the concept of attention, in communication theory, is covered by McQuail (2000) who describes attention as the most important part of communication, as without attention, there can be no information transfer or influence occurring. This research will examine openness to attending to different channels to establish if there is a significant preference, depending on an employee's personal traits like work role or corporate authenticity. The intention of researching openness rather than attention is that the psychological state of being open to attending is the first step in actually attending. This will add to the theory of attention by suggesting elements particular to the group rather than the individual and support practitioners in choosing appropriate channels of communication.

3.12 IC final definition: Openness to internal communication is defined as the stage that prompts attention to communication. It is the psychological state that leaves an individual open to be attracted to different communication channels namely, face to face, email, intranet and social media.

4.1 Chapter four - method

4.2 Introduction

This study focuses on the relationship between work role and corporate authenticity and different channels of internal communication. Work role and corporate authenticity are concepts that take theories of social group identity and assess how authentic an individual feels as a member of such a group. This provides two audiences with which individuals can associate and builds on Welch and Jackson (2007) to give an individually driven layer of stakeholders. Meyrick (2006), makes the point that for research to be credible the aims, objectives and methods, of carrying out that research, should be stated clearly and any sampling techniques used, need to have a clear rationale, so that the reader can judge if the methods, outcomes and conclusions are reasonable.

The research is split into two, cross sectional, phases employing mixed methods.

Phase one takes an interpretivist philosophy, an inductive approach utilising a case study strategy. The main activities include interviewing internal communication specialists and IC Managers to explore themes around authenticity and internal communication. The main outputs of phase one are, 1, descriptive themes used to define work role and corporate authenticity and 2, exploration of current practices for the strategy and operationalisation of internal communication, focusing on email, face-to-face, intranet and social media channels, and articulation of key themes. Questionnaire items are created that reflect these themes ready for operationalisation in phase two.

Phase two takes a positivist philosophy, a deductive approach using a survey strategy to validate CA and WRA and the questionnaires used to measure them. The individuals work in various positions within the three organisations and will voluntarily complete the short questionnaire. The questionnaire has two sections, one focused on orientation towards work role and corporate authenticity and the other on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media channels of internal communication. Phase two will analyse questionnaire responses to look for key relationships between themes and explore how work role and corporate authenticity can affect openness to these four channels of internal communication.

The question of having competing philosophies is one that Saunders (2007) answers describing the position of being forced to choose between one philosophical position or another as "unrealistic in practice". One option appears to be following a pragmatic philosophy. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 17) describe a pragmatic philosophy as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study". However, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) argue pragmatism is attractive to researchers because it allows them to avoid the discourse of philosophical approaches and focus on the research study and outcomes. Although pragmatism could be justified as an umbrella philosophy, this research will continue under the premise that the two phases adopt different approaches and thus should be described as such.

4.3 Phase one

Phase one of this study relies on an exploration of the concepts of authenticity and openness to communication, formation of theoretical models of their relationship and the development of clear and workable definitions. An interpretivist philosophy, inductive approach and case study strategy lend themselves to this phase.

4.3.1 Interpretivist philosophy

Blaikie (2000, p. 115) describes interpretivism as using an ontology based on a, "process used to generate social scientific accounts from social actor's accounts; for deriving technical concepts and theories from lay concepts and interpretations of social life". In a similar vein, Saunders et al. (2007, p. 107) describe the main action of an interpretivist approach as entering 'the social world of our research subjects and understanding the world from their point of view'. Blaikie (2000) adds to this by reinforcing that the researcher does not impose an outside view. Thus, in terms of epistemology the knowledge gained is socially constructed (Carson, 2001) utilising interviews to better understand the specific context in which WRA, CA and openness to varied IC channels exist.

In social sciences, the interpretivist philosophy is an established view.

Haslam (2003) describes several studies of social identity at work and each uses an interpretivist approach as a main or part philosophy in conducting that research. The concept of social actors is prevalent in the literature applying to interpretivism (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Blaikie, 2000; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991) which is congruent with the notion of themes of social identity and authenticity.

Interpretivists argue that statistical relationships, correlations and patterns, however statistically significant, are not understandable on their own (Blaikie, 1993; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). What is required, for a full understanding of concepts like authenticity and attention to internal communication channels, is the meanings or motives that the participants give to the actions that are defined by those statistical relationships. Saunders (2007) argues that the interaction between employees in organisations is complex. It is difficult to create definitive, cause and

effect theories as you may do in physical sciences, when trying to understand the differences between human actions, intentions and thought.

The situations that employees find themselves in and their interpretation of those situations is unique. They are combinations of the written and unwritten rules of the culture and specific interactions, the interpretation we, and others place on our roles, how we interpret others' behaviour in light of our own set of meanings and how we adjust or enhance our behaviour and meaning, in reaction to the behaviour and meaning of others (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

This uniqueness does give rise to questions of whether research with an interpretivist philosophy, particularly research based in an individual or low number of cases (organisations), can be fully generalisable. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) argue that in an ever changing landscape of business and particularly internal communication, what applies today may be redundant in the near future. They comment this makes generalisability less important and valuable than well designed and operationalised research. The impact of COVID-19 on business practices generally and in particular on this research, provides a good example of their position.

In anticipation, the decision to use multiple cases in this research has been made to compensate for this.

4.3.2 Inductive approach

An inductive approach to research takes output themes from data and creates a theory. This is without trying to fit the data into a pre-conceived model or coding frame that has been developed prior to data collection or analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Patton, 1990). Patton (1990) goes on to describe the focus, of the analyst, being on natural variations in the data, which make up patterns, and either presenting these patterns as categories "developed and articulated" (1990, p. 390) by the participants or as categories described by participants but identified and collated by the researcher and articulated as a theme.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) give an example of a need to explain high employee absenteeism in teaching. When taking an inductive approach, the

researcher would interview teachers about their experience of working at the school. By collecting that data, without a prior agenda, the researcher can identify key themes that explain high employee absenteeism in teaching. The researcher may discover that teachers are absent because of the high levels of administration required or the lack of development. Thus, by not asking questions around a pre-determined theme it gives an opportunity for themes, that had not previously been considered, to present. In a deductive approach, which will be discussed in detail for phase two, researchers would ask questions based on already hypothesised themes like tenure, or challenging student behaviour.

Blaikie (2000) goes on to describe some of the criticism that others have levelled at the foundation of the inductive approach. He argues that it is not possible to take completely objective observations without having some preconceptions or some ideas to guide those observations. These presuppositions and theoretical positions are important to be able to define what is collected and why.

Blaikie (2000, p. 103) describes four stages in an inductive strategy for research:

1. All facts are observed and recorded without selection or guesses as to their relative importance.
2. These facts are analysed, compared and classified, without using hypotheses.
3. From this analysis, generalizations are inductively drawn as to relations between the facts.
4. These generalisations are subject to further testing.

In this research, stage 1-3 will be completed in phase one, by interviewing internal communications staff and using the results to formulate a theory. Stage 4 will be tested in phase two where a questionnaire will be developed from the theory and will be tested on employees from the organisations involved.

Saunders (2007) argues that an inductive approach is most useful when the context and the event are equally important. He goes on to suggest that a small sample of subjects is more appropriate than the larger sample used in a deductive approach. Smaller sample sizes allow for more detailed analysis of qualitative data which can

best be achieved with a modest sample, especially if resources are finite. Easterby-Smith (2002) suggests that if researchers are interested in why something is happening then an inductive approach is the most appropriate approach. He also supports having good knowledge of research approaches so when constraints happen it is easier to adapt research approaches to cater for such changes.

This research will take an inductive approach in phase one. Whilst the theories supporting the concepts of work role and corporate authenticity exist, the definitions and nuances of these concepts do not. An inductive approach will support the development of such definitions, which will be operationalised within a case study strategy.

4.3.3 Case study strategy

This research adopts a case study strategy. In phase one semi-structured interviews are the data collection tool and in phase two a survey, or questionnaire, is used to collect data.

The case study methodology allows the researcher to investigate something within a context, usually an organisation, where the boundaries between the thing being explored and the context are not explicit. Eisenhardt (1989, p. 534) describes case studies as combining a number of data collection methods for example "archives, interviews, questionnaires, and observations". Blaikie (2000, p. 215) concurs adding, the case study is "an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus the enquiry around an instance". He goes to define a comparative case study model where the unit of measurement can be several entities across a range of different organisations which provides a sounder basis for this research.

Yin (2003) describes different 'case study strategies' depending on whether the researcher is studying one or more organisations and whether the organisation is being studied as a whole ('holistic') or a number of departments or levels using a range of different measures ('embedded'). This research will adopt the holistic, multiple case design outlined in the illustration below.
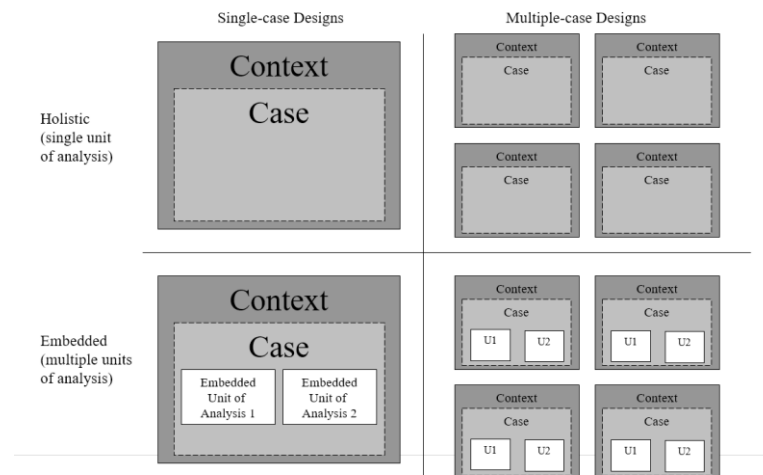
Figure 6: Case Study Approaches (Yin, 2003)

Hammersley (1992) narrows the definition of a case study and refers to a 'strategy' or a research design within which to assimilate any number of data collection methodologies. He suggests case studies take features of experiments, the possibility of a relatively small number of cases selected by the researcher, and surveys, looking at naturally occurring cases, and combine the two. Yin (2003) also defines case studies as a 'research strategy' and as such they can contain a variety of research evidence both qualitative and quantitative which supports the design of this research. Mitchell (1983) proposed that a case study needs analysis against a theoretical framework at the core and that any narrative description of an event or situation must be referenced and analysed against that framework.

In anticipation, criticism of the case study approach seems to fall into three categories:

1, Case studies emphasise the use of qualitative data which is regarded as less valid than quantitative data. The influence and potential bias of the researcher can direct

the results of the study especially when compared with quantitative data. (Blaikie, 2000) However Yin (2003), Saunders et al. (2007), Blaikie (2000) and Hammersley (1992) all point to the case study as a strategy or framework that can be populated by both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. This research adopts qualitative methods during phase one and quantitative methods, during phase two, to test the definitions developed in phase one.

2, The generalisability of the case study given the idiosyncratic nature of the case, if a single case is used, and the comparability between cases if several different cases are used. Yin (2003) and Blaikie (2000) go to some lengths to discuss the need for definitions to be comparable with previous research, as mentioned earlier, which helps to generalise to a theoretical model. The choice of cases is paramount to ensure that the findings of the research are generalizable to a population. In the following section the reasoning behind choosing the three cases used is explained which covers ensuring generalisable research.

3, Blaikie (2000) points to the assertion that case studies take too long to conduct and produce too much data which extends the time needed to realise specific findings. Yin (2003; Hammersley, 1992; Blaikie, 1993) argue that certain data collection methodologies can be time consuming, for example participant observations, but by treating the case study as a framework to be populated by different methodologies significant reductions in time taken can be made. By utilising semi-structured interviews with critical participants and testing the resultant model with quantitative methods the most efficient use of time was achieved.

In reviewing the range of strategies/traditions that are available it has become evident that the case study approach is the most appropriate for this study. The case study approach easily accommodates both qualitative and quantitative methodologies which is essential for defining theoretical models in phase 1 and testing those using quantitative methods in phase 2. The case study approach also accommodates more than one organisation, or case, which provides a wider range of contexts and therefore better generalisability.

4.3.4 Case identification and selection

There were four main criteria for choosing the three organisations (cases) featured in this research.

1, Sector – One of the organisations chosen was a public sector local council and the other two were private sector. The reason for having both sectors is to compare CA and WRA in these different types of organisation and compare the types of communication used. The initial thought was that public sector organisations would be less likely to adopt newer technologies.

2, Maturity – Two of the organisations chosen were mature having existed for over 100 years each. The chef agency has only been in existence since 1990. This affords an opportunity to compare responses to internal communication changes with an expectation that the less mature organisation will be less 'set in their ways' and so more responsive to change.

3, Employers vs. Agency – The internal communication within the chef agency is to temporary chefs rather than full time, permanent employees. This gives an opportunity to explore differences in CA and WRA between direct employees and temporary workers. The expectation is that chefs will have higher WRA due to the transient nature of their job.

4, Use of technology – The use of technology varies across all three organisations. The local council uses technology to promote public health issues only, the pharmaceutical company are starting to use some social media platforms but are restricted because of regulations in the industry and the agency have recently switched their primary mode of communication to social media.

Each organisation was either a direct client or a client of an associate. The differences between them, based on the initial design of this study, would have afforded a good opportunity to comparatively view their results. Organisation one is private, commercially driven but traditional in terms of communication style and channels, in that they use email and intranet as a primary source of internal communication. Organisation two is also private and commercially driven but they have made a strategic decision to use newer methodologies like Facebook,

Messenger and SMS to direct their internal communication. They also have an interesting aspect to their corporate organisation as they operate an agency and the chefs they employ, as agency staff, are regarded as 'employees'. Organisation three is public sector and adopts a traditional internal communication style that encounters little change or development. They were in the process of overhauling their internal communication processes, for example they had just started using YouTube to present corporate messages, and this represented a good time for them to take stock and review their communication channels and process.

It was important that some interviewees, for each organisation, could give a manager's perspective as well as an employee view. Participants occupied a range of hierarchical positions with at least one internal communication manager in each organisation. The imperative to have managers included in the sample, was introduced to gather a range of data about work role and corporate authenticity, from management and employee perspectives.

Throughout this research, the intention has been to use the same three organisations for phases one and two however, as explained, in the next section about phase two, organisational issues and the coronavirus pandemic made this impossible to accomplish.

4.3.4a Organisation one

Organisation one is a worldwide company working in the pharmaceutical industry. They have multiple entities working on one site which further complicates their internal communication strategy. Some of these entities are UK based companies, some have a European base, and some have a worldwide function. The internal communications team are predominantly responsible for communication within the UK entity however, some of their communication covers the whole of the site which necessarily includes employees from European and international entities.

The culture in the business is very traditional with a desire to become more relaxed and informal. Change initiatives are slow to materialise and must go through multiple levels of approval before any action can take place. Current UK and European regulations and legislation restrict the audience and content of their

communication, especially where social media is concerned. This is a key driver in shaping the overall strategy of communication and speed of change, both internal and external to the organisation. The culture of the business is similar to the local authority in that employees are less proactive in taking the initiative to instigate change. The effort and persistence required to instigate even simple changes discourages employees to make the effort and leads them to fall back on more traditional practices.

Worldwide, the company has over 100,000 employees. In the UK business there are around 650 employees but they share a site with other worldwide functions. The UK business has a research and development focus and specialises in running clinical trials to develop new treatments in the fields of oncology, immunology, infectious diseases, ophthalmology and neuroscience. In the UK company there are three main divisions. Division one supports R&D activities and works closely with academia and the scientific community. Division two supports the monitoring of products and conducting long term research. Division three is a commercial function that sells products to healthcare professionals and the NHS across the country and provides corporate functions like HR, communications, PR and finance.

The initial point of contact was the Comms Director who suggested that the Internal Communications Manager would be a more appropriate contact. The initial contact was facilitated by a senior manager with whom the researcher had a previous relationship. During several telephone discussions with the IC Manager she suggested that interviews were carried out with all the IC team and the team administrator.

The team consists of four people. One manager with overall responsibility for the team, one administrator, one person focusing on the internal communication of the senior leadership team and one with direct responsibility for communicating on behalf of the Corporate Social Responsibility department.

The team has undergone a radical change of personnel and strategy in the past year focusing more on an expert role rather than a more administrative function. Previously, the team would communicate on behalf of other functions whereas now

the focus is more on providing expert support to assist other functions in making the right internal communication choices. The responsibility for the content and message is clearly being devolved to individual functions including the administration of communication channels.

Communication channels, used by the organisation, and discussed during the interviews include email, email newsletter, Google+, physical apparatus (like televisions and light boards) and social media (mainly Instagram and Twitter).

4.3.4b Organisation two

Organisation two is a UK wide agency supplying chefs into a variety of restaurants and pubs and employing them on contracts ranging from one day to several months. They describe their group of chefs as a brigade, a term used in single organisations to describe their kitchen team, and their strategy is to develop relationships and gain buy-in with chefs to create a sense of belonging. As the communication is between an agency and a supplier, an argument could be made that this does not fall under the usual description of internal communication. However, it seems the organisation perceives the chefs as, for the purposes of communication, employees, and seeks to build a positive pseudo employer/employee relationship.

The culture of the business is innovative and action-oriented with a flat structure and an opportunity for employees to take a proactive approach to change. The employees are aware of the need to adopt a professional approach with clients but a less formal approach with chefs. Recent feedback has informed them that their social media output can appear too formal, so they have adopted a more relaxed approach with chefs. Sometimes changes are not fully thought through, for example changes in the communication strategy have not been followed by appropriate measurement mechanisms. The culture is also impacted by the age of employees and chefs. Employees in the communications team are mainly in the 18-35 age group whereas, interviewees report that chefs are much more likely to be over 35.

Within the head office there are around 20 employees who service 300 chefs. Half of the chefs are considered to be in the 'A Team' and are more likely to be given assignments. The company was established in 1990 and they match temporary chefs and permanent hospitality professionals to hotels, pubs, restaurants and contract catering companies all over the UK, with occasional assignments in Europe. The company are keen to raise standards in the industry both for clients and chefs. Chefs are offered pay for every hour they work (often in hospitality chefs are not paid for cleaning down for example), a healthy work-life balance, personalised inductions and opportunities for chefs to continually develop their skills, seeing chefs as an extension of their team. Their top chefs are awarded 'Ambassador' status where they can benefit from being invited to events and seminars, automatic entry into awards and giving advice to new chefs. To become an ambassador, chefs have to demonstrate the company's five core values: Integrity, Positivity, Team-orientation, Respect and Going the extra mile.

The initial point of contact was the Group CEO who introduced me to the Managing Director. The initial contact was facilitated by a mutual client of theirs and the researcher. The Managing Director suggested interviews were carried out with her plus the six staff who had most direct contact with chefs including the Head of Marketing.

Two years ago, the agency moved the majority of their communication with chefs to text, Messenger or Facebook. They received feedback that their online presence was too formal and used this as an opportunity to change the way they communicated with chefs. The Head of Marketing explained this was, in part, due to the geographical spread of chefs throughout the UK but also chefs appear to prefer these forms of communication due to their brevity and the possibility of providing a quick response. Informal feedback has been positive but no formal measurement has been made.

Internal communication channels used by the organisation include Facebook, Short Message Service Texts, Facebook, Messenger, Email and Linkedin.

4.3.4c Organisation three

Organisation three is a local council based in the north of the Greater Manchester area employing over 6000 staff including architects, social workers, grounds people, administrators, human resources specialists, business development, environmental engineers and civil engineers. There are five directorates:

- Core Services – Finance, HR, Legal, Communication
- Strategic Commissioning – Directors and Commissioning Leads
- Children and Young People – Education, Social Care, Safeguarding
- Operations – Parks, Architects, Civil Engineering, Planning
- Business, Growth and Infrastructure – Housing Growth and Development, Economic Regeneration

The council has undergone significant change over the past few years including a new CEO and a restructured communications function. Staff have been made redundant during a series of reorganisations designed to reduce a significant deficit over the next four years.

The culture of the organisation is very traditional and slow to react to change. Successive CEOs have tried to inject a more commercial and innovative culture, but these initiatives have had limited success. The Head of Talent described the culture, 'reduced funding and greater demand on services coupled with lower staff numbers has led to significant lowering of motivation amongst staff.'

The initial point of contact was the Head of Talent. The researcher has previously designed a behavioural framework for the whole council and had strong relationships with senior staff. An initial meeting was arranged with the Head of Talent and L&D Director. As the Internal Communications team was in a state of flux it was agreed to focus on these two plus the temporary IC Manager.

The local council was the biggest organisation to be involved in the study with the most variety of job roles. The communications team were in a state of flux and recruiting a new internal communication manager, the temporary IC Manager was keen to explore their communication channels.

Internal communication channels used by the organisation include face-to-face, email, intranet, newsletters and they were in the early stages of exploring social media to communicate.

4.4 Data collection

Data collection for phase one was achieved using semi-structured interviews.

4.4.1 Sampling

The sample population for each case was gained from the internal communications department or those responsible for internal communications. One slight exception to this was case three, the local council, where the Head of Talent and the L&D Director were also included, together with the IC Manager. In this case, the Internal Communications team was being reorganised and no decisions had been made about what the team would consist of.

Meetings were arranged with key contacts during which the research was discussed. Key contacts were informed of the types of interviewees needed. Selection of participants was through key contacts, who identified the individuals for interview and arranged times, dates and, where necessary, a physical space for the interview. The nature of the interviews, the prior discussions with the key contact about who to select and the voluntary nature of the interviewees, was thought to be sufficient in ensuring that interviewees were happy to volunteer. Two of the organisations were geographically close, and for them face-to-face interviews were carried out. However, for one organisation, using Google+ to conduct video conferencing interviews, was a more practical method to conduct the interviews. The research information sheet and permission form were emailed to each participant prior to arranging the interviews.

Prior contact was made with all the interviewees to discuss the project and gauge their level of interest and motivation to take part. All interviewees were keen to take part and broadly interested in the subject matter of the research. One interview, for the local council, was a joint interview involving two people, the Head of R&D and the IC Manager. This was not pre-arranged and the researcher was presented with the situation at the beginning of the interview. This required more time during the interview introduction to emphasise the need to get full responses from both participants and careful positioning during the interview to ensure that both contributed equally, for example, asking direct questions to one interviewee

and asking one interviewee to comment on the answer given by the first interviewee. Reviewing the transcripts, it would appear that one interviewee talked around 60% of the time and the other 40% of the time.

In all cases the number of interviewees represented the total population of internal communicators in the organisation.

The table below outlines the number of interviews for each organisation.

Table 2: Number of interviews conducted in phase one

Organisation	# of interviews	Approximate length	Location	# of Hierarchical grades
One	4	60 minutes	Online using Google+	1
Two	7	30 minutes	Agency corporate offices	2
Three	3	60 minutes	Main council offices	2*

* One interview with Head of Talent, the interview with Head of Training and Development and Internal Communication Manager was a joint interview.

4.4.2 Interview format

The format of the interviews was similar. The target time for each interview was one hour although some flexibility was applied, especially if the interviewee was volunteering good data. In two of the organisations this was met and generally exceeded. In one organisation, due to their workload, it was only possible to arrange 30 minute interviews. Whilst this is not ideal, in having time to explore concepts and generating comprehensive data, it was a practical compromise that allowed this organisation to engage with the research. The organisation in question increased the number of interviewees, which helped to mitigate the impact of shorter interviews.

For each interview a similar agenda was followed with an introductory discussion to introduce the lead researcher, explain the purpose of the research and highlight the voluntary nature of the interview. Following this, interviewees were given a pre-prepared information sheet (copy in appendix 2) with general information about the research, information about how the data from their interview will be used and provided contact details, if interviewees had any questions later in the research. They were given a short time to read the information sheet and asked if they had any questions. At this point, interviewees were informed that the interviews were being recorded, for ease of note taking, and advised that the recordings would be used for transcriptions and then destroyed. They were asked to sign the consent sheet (copy in appendix 3) and the interview moved into the semi-structured questions, which will be discussed in following sections.

4.4.3 Justification for semi-structured interviews

An interview is a powerful discussion to help gather reliable data that is relevant to research questions and objectives (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). An interview is the most appropriate approach to use when questions are complex and open ended and when the order of questions may need to be adapted to the individual and the situation (Mason, 1996). Whilst, interviews are the most suitable approach to collecting data, in this research, there are limitations that need to be considered. The most obvious is the influence of the interviewer, which can alter the course of the interview by using inappropriate leading questions or being less inert and pushing a viewpoint. This can be moderated by interviewers being trained to interview and adopting a more structured approach to the interview (Warech, 2002). Patton highlights that interview answers come with the potential for distorted responses dues to, "personal bias, anger, anxiety, politics and a simple lack of awareness" (Patton, 1990, p. 245). He goes on to suggest that temporary states, like the emotional state of the interviewer and interviewee, both contribute to error in the responses given and the interpretation of those responses. Final exponents of bias, according to Patton (1990), are if the interviewee is reluctant to speak or is determined to give responses that serve their personal position, rather than describing their actual views and actions. The number of interviews

undertaken can help to confirm themes and reduce the possibility of errors created during the interview (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006; Patton, 1990).

There are many versions and hybrids of interviews (Blaikie, 2000) but many (Richardson, 1996; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Berg, 2006) settle on three main types, structured, semi-structured and unstructured or in-depth interviews.

4.4.4 Structured interviews

Structured interviews have standardised and predetermined questions, often identical, sometimes referred as "interviewer administered questionnaires" (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007, p. 312). The questions are read out, answers noted on some type of form and scored against pre-determined criteria or answers. The key to this methodology is to provide a standardised process that is the same, or as close to the same, for each participant, hence the questions should be read out in the same tone of voice and only the prescribed probes, to explore themes further, should be used (Blaikie, 1993). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) make the case for structured interviews to be acknowledged as quantitative research interviews, as the emphasis is on quantifying the responses into objective scores.

4.4.5 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews are one of the most widely used and dominant methods of data collection within social sciences (Bradford and Cullen, 2012). They are useful, in that they allow researchers to explore subjective viewpoints and discuss in-depth accounts of participant's experiences (Evans, 2018). Researchers will have a list of themes and questions but the main difference, between these and structured interviews, is the opportunity to change, reword or omit questions in line with the specific organisational context or variability of the participant experience (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). Questions may be omitted, areas of particular interest can be focused on more vigorously by adding more questions or follow-up probes, and the order of questions can be changed to reflect the flow of the conversation and the specifics of the situation and the organisation. In many

ways, this type of interview, helps the researcher develop a more flowing conversation and build rapport more easily (Evans, 2018).

Mason (1996) describes semi-structured interviews as informal, having the appearance of a discussion rather than an inquisition, taking a thematic approach, where the researcher trades a structured list of questions, for a set of general themes or topics and deriving the data from either the interviwee or the interaction. Braun and Clarke (2013, pp. 77-101) concur, stating "semi-structured interviews can be used as much to consider experience, meanings and the 'reality' of participant's experiences" and "they can be used to explore how these experiences, 'realities' and meanings might be informed by discourse, assumptions or ideas which exist in wider society". The popularity of using semi-structured interviews is partly due to them not being tied down to a single theoretical framework or epistemological position (Evans, 2018).

4.4.6 Unstructured interviews

Unstructured interviews explore a general area in more depth, using a non-directive style, without a pre-determined list of questions and follow-up probes. The researcher must still have a clear picture of the aspect of work they wish to explore but give the interviewee space to speak freely about events, beliefs, behaviours and other personal traits that impact on the situation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

4.4.7 A case for semi-structured in this research

This research utilises semi-structured interviews to gather data in phase one. The purpose of phase one is to explore definitions of authenticity, corporate authenticity, work role authenticity and channels of internal communication by discussing the subjective opinions of internal communication specialists and people managers. Semi-structured interviews allow the exploration of subjective viewpoints, especially from the perspective of participants, in their workplace (Evans, 2018) which fits with the requirements of phase one. Additionally, Mason (1996) highlights the usefulness of semi-structured interviews to elucidate general themes or topics, especially when experienced within participants' workplaces

(Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Braun and Clarke, 2013) which again suits the requirements of phase one. Given the unnatural context, of the interviews, in addressing quite abstract concepts within the workplace, it was critical to adopt a flexible and relaxed style of interviewing so that participants would feel comfortable and engaged in this process (Braun and Clarke, 2013; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Evans, 2018).

4.4.8 Operationalisation of phase one interviews

The interview guide (copy in appendix 4) used for each of the interviews was designed to cover all the key concepts in this research and provide data to further understand the context the research questions occupy. The research questions provide a framework to guide the development of these interview questions and gather targeted data. The purpose of the guide is to keep the interview on track but still allow the flexibility to rearrange how questions are asked and the question order to make the most of the time available. The same interview guide was used for each case and interviewee.

4.4.9 Internal communication

Internal communication was the first section in the interview which included some initial 'warm up' questions to settle interviewees and build rapport following the introduction.

The first section of internal communication questions focused on broader strategy including, definition of internal communication, who is responsible for IC and IC strategy, how the IC strategy is developed and reviewed, how IC is measured generally and on a day-to-day basis, have they identified different audiences, how many and how do they use this information to reach them more effectively and how do they measure the effectiveness of communication to segmented audiences.

The next section of internal communication questions focused on different platforms of internal communication namely social media, face-to-face, email and intranet. The choice to include this specific set of channels was motivated by Industry research by Melcrum Ltd (2011) and academic research (Mishra, Boynton and Mishra, 2014) that indicate the most popular internal communication channels

are face-to-face, email and intranet. From a practitioner perspective, Grossman (2019) challenges organisations to review the purpose of their corporate intranet site. With the uptake of social media tools, many companies are integrating different products to spark and continue discussions, e.g. Google+, which changes the whole emphasis of the corporate intranet. Where the intranet used to be used as a source of up-to-date communication and, in some cases, gave the opportunity for discussion, Grossman (2019) highlights that the best use for an intranet today is a receptacle of archived resources.

For social media, the questions were different than for the other channels. This is because social media can be segmented into many different platforms, for example Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, LinkedIn, YouTube, Snapchat. The opening question, in this section, was to establish which, if any, of the social media platforms were being used in the organisation. Once it had been established that social media channels were used the following questions focused on how they segment their social media audience (which provides mostly two-way communication – essential for feedback and to maintain an employee-led approach), the reasons why certain social media channels had been discounted, what aspects of internal communication had been allocated to social media and what devices people use to access social media. Follow-up questioning included how social media communication was measured to ensure the communication was successful.

For face-to-face communication and email communication, the questions used were the same. The main thrust of the questioning was about how they segment their audience, what types of internal communication they use these channels for, how they measure the effectiveness of this channel and whether they offer internal training to make these channels more effective.

The final internal communication channel discussed was the company intranet. Despite the assertion that the use of the intranet, in organisations, is less popular and reducing in favour, two of the organisations taking part in this research use the intranet to a greater or lesser extent. Therefore, it seemed to be appropriate to include them in the interviews.

Similar questions were asked about intranet use, as for other channels, namely, what types of communication the intranet is used for, how do people access the intranet and how big a part does the intranet play in the current IC strategy. This last question gives some context to the question of whether the intranet, as a communication channel, is sustainable in the future.

The final section of internal communication discusses ethical considerations. The imputes behind this section was the move of internal communications from a top-down communication service to more of a guardian and trusted advisor role. Do Amaral (2017), talks from a practitioner perspective, describing communication decisions as being better when taken by stakeholder teams rather than at a strategic level as it prompts more engagement, positive input and shared responsibility for outcomes which prompts a more motivated workforce. This section asked about who was responsible for checking appropriateness and fairness and, in a practical sense, how they carried this out.

4.4.10 Authenticity

The second half of the interview focused on authenticity. Given, authenticity is a more abstract concept, than internal communication, the initial design, of the interview form contained fewer questions, and less direction than the internal communication interview form. This was understood to be an appropriate approach as internal communication channels formed discrete sections whereas authenticity, even though this research proposes two discrete types, is less clearly defined. The basis of phase one is to gather data, from practical settings, to enhance the development of definitions of authenticity.

The initial interview form asked interviewees how they defined authenticity, in the workplace. The interview would then progress to examples of people behaving authentically and, in analysis, these could be split into work role and corporate authenticity. In practice, this did not happen. From the reactions of interviewees to the first two interviews, it became clear that the questions relating to authenticity were not detailed and directed enough for participants to consider authenticity fully. When asked to define authenticity or describe the actions of colleagues who

they considered to be authentic, they struggled to come up with definite actions, tending to use orthadox descriptors like honest, genuine and decent, the ordinary descriptions offered by Bialystok (2014) and Guignon (2008) earlier in this thesis. This gave a surface level description that failed to provide enough detailed data to factor into work role and corporate authenticity. After the first two interviews, it became clear that interviewees needed support to contextualise their ideas of authenticity within the realms of internal communication before asking similar questions as initially intended. This orientation of authenticity towards an internal communication context helped participants picture examples of colleague behaviour much more clearly and generated a much richer vein of information about authenticity, especially work role and corporate authenticity.

Thus, two avenues of questioning were used, one to elicit data about work role authenticity and one corporate authenticity. The nature of the questions was the same for both sets of questions, with the only difference being the emphasis on either work role or corporate authenticity. For example, the question 'what do they do to appear authentic?' was asked twice, one version was 'what do they do to appear work role authentic?' and the other 'what do they do to appear corporately authentic?'. In doing this, two sets of data were generated each linked either to work role or corporate authenticity.

Further questions included asking them to identify people they would describe as work role or corporately authentic. This question helped them to visualise a specific individual which made it easier for interviewees to describe traits in detail rather than generalise. The final part of this section related to inauthenticity as interviewees were asked what makes these specific individuals appear inauthentic, at times. Most participants described the reverse of authentic traits but with some gentle probing they were able to identify inauthentic traits. This was important to identify definitions of inauthenticity to contrast with definitions of authenticity.

Another construct visited in the interview was how important they felt authenticity was. The reason why interviewees were asked about the importance of authenticity, as a concept, was to identify whether it was seen as a key concept and worthy of further research, or whether it was an ancillary and abstract element

that, although interesting, was not regarded as important in the workplace. The level of importance associated with authenticity will directly influence the impact this research will have.

The final section, of the interview, directly discussed the impact of authenticity and inauthenticity at work, on performance, relationships with managers, impact on breadth of tasks individuals are willing to attempt and their openness to internal communication. Where interviewees focused more on work role authenticity some prompting would be used to help them consider corporate authenticity and vice versa. This tactic helped to ensure a rounded interview response that considered both aspects of authenticity but that did not lead the interviewee to give an answer the researcher was looking for.

4.4.11 Numbers of interviews

The question of 'how many interviews is enough?' is an important factor for all researchers (Mason, 1996; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007) and will impact on the reliability of the data gathered and the themes that are identified (Patton, 1990; Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006).

Ritchie, Lewis and Elam (2003, cited in Mason, 2010) take a slightly different view arguing the number of subjects is less critical in qualitative research because qualitative research is focused on meaning – because of this, one occurrence of a theme can be as useful as many occurrences. Mason (2010) goes on to say that the labour-intensive approach, to qualitative research, compared with quantitative research, means that analysing a large sample is impractical and time consuming. Notwithstanding that, he goes on to say that qualitative samples must be large enough to unearth all relevant themes and perceptions and that, for most researchers the guiding principle should be that of saturation.

Glaser and Strauss (1967, cited in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007) define saturation as the point where data collection and analysis has been conducted for one theme and the search for new knowledge, associated with that theme, has been exhausted. In practice, researchers may not have the resources or sample size to aim for theoretical saturation and Bertaux (1981) proposes that saturation of

knowledge is a more appropriate term for most research. He argues that researchers learn most from their first interviews but, as the number of interviews increases, the amount of new information or new themes reduces, as participants recount similar instances to the first.

Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) suggest that, although saturation is useful from a conceptual perspective, it does not help to provide practical advice on sample size. When undertaking background research, they found few sources of guidelines for sample sizes, and those they did find ranged from five to 50. Bertaux (Bertaux and International Sociological, 1981) suggests 15 as a smallest sample size and Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) found that 12 interviews of a homogenous group will suffice, in reaching saturation. Mason (2010) proposes that PhD students, that use qualitative interviews, stop sampling in multiples of 10 rather than when saturation occurs.

Several factors are important in informing the number of interviews a researcher may carry out, to achieve saturation. Interview structure and content are important as, with unstructured interviews and more varied content, perhaps because of less clearly defined research questions, more interviews will be necessary (Bernard and Ryan, 2009; Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006). The heterogeneity of the group will also dictate the number of interviews required, the more heterogeneous the sample, the more interviews will be required to cover all aspects of this varied group (Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006). The mental and physical well-being of the research team plays a part in the number of interviews carried out with experience and fatigue (Bernard and Ryan, 2009) and confidence (Mason, 2010) playing a part. Bernard and Ryan (2009) identify that the more interviews a research team has already done, the more positive they will be in thinking they have done 'enough' interviews and be more inclined to stop which is, in part, linked to the number of researchers in the team as, with more researchers, the possibility of conducting more interviews, in a given time, is enhanced. Mason (2010) makes a similar point, arguing that the higher the number of interviews, the more defensible the researcher believes the research will be.

Atran, Medin and Ross (2005, cited in Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006) suggest that in some of their studies, as few as 10 interviews were needed to reliably establish a consensus. Griffin and Hauser (1993, cited in Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006), working in market research, identified that 20-30 in depth interviews could uncover 90-95% of customer needs. Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) reviewed their own data, when studying reproductive health care, and found that of the 36 codes developed, in their study, 34 were developed during the first six interviews and 35 within the first 12. They concluded that, where samples had a high degree of homogeneity, among the sample, as few as six interviews is sufficient to develop useful and meaningful themes.

This study utilises 14 interviews, which, given Atran, Medin and Ross (2005, cited in Guest, Bunce and Johnson, 2006) suggest as few as 10 interviews will suffice, Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) found most codes in the first six interviews and Bertaux (1981) cites 15 interviews as the smallest permissible sample, would appear to be sufficient for use in this mixed methods study.

4.4.12 Stopping interviewing

The decision to stop interviewing was made because all the available internal communications resources, in the three cases, had been interviewed.

The relative importance of internal communications in most organisations, leads to a small core of employees usually numbering between two to six. In this research, 14 people were interviewed of these three were managers and three were working in an advisory capacity helping people in the business develop effective internal communications. The remainder of the participants all played an active role in managing or carrying out internal communications, at a variety of hierarchical levels, and had both a keen interest and an input to the IC strategy. This gave a breadth of relevant perspectives on authenticity and internal communication and represent 100% of the people, within the three organisations involved, who had a direct and close input to internal communications.

4.4.13 Interview transcripts

A total of 630 minutes of interviewing was carried out during this study. All interviews were recorded using a hand-held digital recording device and transcripts were produced by an online transcription service. To ensure accuracy, 10% of the final output was checked to ensure it was an accurate representation of the interview. The interviews were then entered into NVivo, a software analysis tool, before being classified and evaluated.

The next section explores the process used to analyse the data.

4.5 Phase one analysis
4.5.1 Overview

The analysis of the data was initially structured around the research questions. NVivo was used specifically to hasten the organisation of the transcriptions into relevant classifications. Transcripts were reviewed in NVivo and relevant sections and comments were highlighted and appended to one of the following classifications, called nodes within NVivo.

- Authenticity
- Work role authenticity
- Corporate authenticity
- Impact of authenticity

- Internal communication
- Internal communication strategy, purpose and definition
- Email
- Face-to-face
- Intranet and Internet
- Social media
- Measuring internal communication

As each transcribed interview was added to NVivo, there was an opportunity to modify the interview guide or the nodes.

As the interviews were structured in a similar way, much of the data was naturally organised. However, some data appeared in a different classification than expected for example, when discussing email, many of the interviewees discussed their reliance on email when face-to-face communication would have been more appropriate. In these cases, the data had to be classified appropriately. Some nodes were added following initial interviews like, 'Telephone and physical' added to communication channels.

During the first interviews it became clear that people struggled to define authenticity which prompted a change in the interview guide. Instead of asking context free questions about authenticity, broad characterisations of work role and corporate authenticity were offered to help the interviewees to provide more appropriate and directed information.

Following this initial sift, further sifting was carried out within these classifications to identify relevant themes. To do this, transcripts were read thoroughly, and key themes identified. As more data was added to the theme it would either strengthen the theme or would suggest the theme was made up of different elements. Themes were split if the theme was made up of different sub-themes.

The coding or categorisation table was updated after each set of interviews so that themes could be developed and identified as common across cases. An example categorisation table can be found in appendix 5.

The themes were used as a basis for items in the questionnaire used in phase two.

4.5.2 Grounded theory approach to analysis

This research broadly uses the grounded theory approach to analysing data which was identified as an antidote to extreme positivism by Glaser and Strauss (1968). They argue that "scientific truth results from both the act of observation and the emerging consensus within a community of observers as they make sense of what

they have observed" (Suddaby, 2006, p. 633). This method of building theory from the data in a continuous process fits with the overview presented above.

Suddaby (2006, p. 633) describes grounded theory as an ongoing interpretation of the meanings and concepts used by "social actors in real settings" to produce a common understanding of concepts that is developed organically.

Braun and Clarke (2006) describe a theme as capturing important aspects of the data, in relation to the research questions, that represents a patterned response within the data set. They go on to say that critical to informing coding practices is what counts as a pattern or theme and what size it needs to be, which will impact on its prevalence. Evans (2018) says, themes may appear more than once, but the frequency with which they are uncovered does not necessarily indicate their importance, "this is because in qualitative analysis, the importance or significance of a theme is reflected in the extent to which it 'speaks to' your theoretical position or your overarching research questions" (2018, p. 3).

Braun and Clarke (2006) argue in qualitative analysis there is no imperative for a fixed proportion of sightings of a theme before it can be considered a theme, nor is it necessary for a theme to have significant attention, rather than a couple of sentences. They go on to say, researcher judgement and a flexible approach, are critical when identifying key themes that have synergy with the research aims.

Glaser and Strauss (1968) describe grounded theory as having two main concepts: constant comparison - in which data is collected and analysed simultaneously - and theoretical sampling – in which the theory that is being constructed, determines what data should be collected next. The change in the interview questions relating to authenticity, described above, is an example of this.

Turner (1981) suggests nine stages of grounded theory which provide a useful guide to compare this research to.

1, After exposure to the field setting and collecting some data the researcher starts to develop categories that reflect the data.

In this study, initial categories, used in the interview guide, came from the literature and discussions with contacts at the case study organisations. These can be seen in the coding or categorisation table in appendix 5.

2, Information is gathered about those categories until the researcher has confidence about the range and relevance of the categories within the research context. There is a recognition that saturation has been reached.

In this study, initial categories were added to when interviewee responses were analysed and new or split categories were identified. This was an organic process that developed throughout the interviewing process with the coding table updated with each addition. All relevant internal communication staff within each case organisation were included in the research. Further operational managers could have boosted the data applicable to work role and corporate authenticity however, there were at least two operational managers within the participants for each case.

3, The category is further formulated and criteria is specified for inclusion of data into the category.

Categories were developed organically throughout data collection and analysis. As more data was added to the theme it would either strengthen the theme or would suggest the theme was made up of different elements. Themes were split if the theme was made up of different sub-themes for example, a category about identifying with the brand in corporate authenticity split into identifying with the brand and accepting a PR façade that masks the real view of the company.

4, These categories lead the researcher towards further theoretical reflection and identify other instances that would fit into the category.

As already stated, the development, and strengthening of categories was a continuous and organic process.

5, The researcher should be sensitive to the connections between emerging categories and other social environments that the category may be relevant.

In this research, some categories naturally combined. Within corporate authenticity sense of belonging, being cared about and building company wide relationships

combine in a broader group about fitting in to and being accepted in an organisation. The design of this research includes three differing environments that have been discussed earlier in this chapter i.e. public sector, private sector and agency. However, the discussion will allow a fuller consideration of the application of these categories.

6, The researcher becomes increasingly aware of connections between categories and begins to develop hypotheses about these links.

Some broad ideas about hypotheses had been visited at the beginning of this research. The literature points to cascading links between concepts of authenticity, identity, social identity theory and state authenticity when acting as a member of that group. Similar links had been made between internal communication, stakeholder approach, communication theory and attention to specific channels of communication. Interviews with participants further populated these theories from a practical sense and using organisational language.

7, The researcher should establish the conditions in which these connections exist.

This research is grounded in three case organisations giving a broad generalisability of the results to other organisations. Further information about the cases can be found earlier in this chapter. Phase two of this study will address the strength of the relationships between these categories and concepts.

8, The researcher should explore implications of the emerging theoretical framework for other themes, relevant to the subject area.

The implications of this framework will be discussed further in the discussion.

9, The researcher may wish to test the relationships between categories in extreme conditions to test the validity of the relationships.

Phase two has been designed to test the relationships between variables with a questionnaire. The questionnaire contains items that relate to each of the categories and explores the relationship between them.

This process was important, for corporate and work role authenticity, to establish a detailed definition that incorporated key themes used in the development of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was used in phase two, to measure the extent to which participants felt they reflected these themes.

The process for internal communication classifications was focused on understanding the context of channel use in the organisation. The need to create a definition was less relevant however, the need to understand how these communication channels fit into the overall internal communication strategy, was more important. This process helped to identify questions that would provide data, in phase two, to indicate how open and attentive participants were to specific channels.

The next section sets out the method used to explore relationships between the categories. Phase two employs a questionnaire and uses quantitative approaches.

4.6 Phase two

Phase two of this study takes the concepts of authenticity and openness to communication, defined in phase one, and uses a questionnaire to test the reliability and validity of the model. A positivist philosophy, deductive approach and survey strategy lend themselves to this phase.

4.6.1 Phase two philosophy

Saunders (2007, p. 103) refers to positivism as "reflecting the stance of the natural scientist" in that the data collected should be observed, measured and recorded. A positivist ontology is one where a single objective reality is observed and the research approach should be designed to be more conducive to the collection of objective data in as unbiased a manner as possible (Carson, 2001). A positivist approach is usually based on existing theories and used to test hypotheses leading from those theories. Our epistemology focuses on obtaining objective knowledge which we can abstract and generalise to other appropriate situations. In doing so we are, in many ways, attempting to justify the validity and reliability of our argument and the applicability to existing theories.

The context, from which we gather our data, is described as an "observable social reality" (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007, p. 103). Thus, it is critical to be explicit about the definitions of both what is being observed and where it is being observed for our observations to remain valid and focused. In this research, phase one is instrumental in developing and articulating new theories of work role and corporate authenticity and reviewing the application of internal communication channels in the case organisations described earlier in this chapter. Further information about the sample who completed the questionnaire can be found in the following sections.

One of the criticisms of the positivist approach is that the researcher cannot be truly independent of the research, for example, if interviews are used to gather data there is a possibility for bias as the researcher will project their own feelings and interests onto the interview and results. Gill and Johnston (2002) herald the use of a highly structured methodology to facilitate both replicability and

objectivity. Even if a researcher uses a structured methodology like a survey, the values and interests of the researcher will have motivated the design of the questionnaire, which will have some impact on the objectivity of the data collection. This questionnaire was reviewed by several people, academic and non-academic, to help ensure objectivity.

4.6.2 Deductive approach

Deduction is aligned to, what most people would consider, a scientific approach where, a theory is developed, and that theory is subjected to a rigorous test (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). Deductive research looks for specific causal relationships in the data based on fact rather than a generalised conclusion generated from specific instances or situations (Silverman, 2010).

Robson (2011) lists five sequential stages that will apply to most deductive research:

1, Deduce a hypothesis, a proposition that is testable about the relationship between two or more concepts from the theory

The hypothesis and definitions of work role and corporate authenticity and openness to internal communication were developed in phase one.

2, Express the hypothesis in working terms, with clear indications of how the concepts will be measured, which propose relationships between variables.

The hypothesis was clearly defined in terms of the relevant variables developed in phase one. In the following sections, the design and deployment of the questionnaire will be explained.

3, Testing this hypothesis, using a range of research strategies.

A questionnaire was the chosen research strategy. Following on from deployment of the questionnaire a range of statistical tests were used including scale reliability, factor analysis of scale items, correlation between scales and multiple regression to estimate which predictive variables create most effect on dependent variables.

4, Explore the specific outcomes which will either confirm the theory or indicate a need for some modification of the model.

The results of phase two are discussed in the phase two results chapter. Briefly, the results were mixed with some confirmation of the model and some fewer promising results. The low sample size is likely to have had a negative impact.

5, Modify the theory in line with the research.

The opportunity for future research, to modify the model or to repeat the tests with a bigger sample, is recommended.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) argue that once these five stages have been worked through, it is necessary to repeat the cycle with the newly modified model or theory, they go on to promote several important characteristics that apply to deductive approaches.

Firstly, is the search to explain causal relationships between variables, for example: a need to explain high employee absenteeism in teaching. Further exploration, of these absence patterns, highlights, a possible relationship between absence, length of tenure and challenging student behaviour. Resulting from this, one develops a hypothesis that absence is more likely if teachers are less equipped to deal with challenging student behaviour and are relatively new teachers. Part of this initial stage may focus on defining challenging behaviour before testing out this hypothesis.

Secondly, the hypothesis will need to be tested, which will require the use of quantitative data (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Blaikie, 1993), allowing for the controlling of different variables, although qualitative data is not precluded, but quantitative data makes it easier to isolate, for example, challenging student behaviour, when exploring teacher absence, rather than measuring a mix of things. The third characteristic, is related to testing, in that, one's methodology should be highly structured, so that replication is facilitated (Gill and Johnson, 2002) and by closely replicating the test it allows the researcher to ensure reliability (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

Saunders (2007) suggests another consideration, of good research design, is the preservation of researcher independence from the data being collected. When collecting absence data, as per the example above, it is not necessary for the researcher to interact with the subjects, and the same can be said of length of tenure. However, 'challenging student behaviour' will, naturally, have a degree of subjectivity, assuming that an agreed definition has been reached. To reach that definition, it is almost certain that some sort of interview or discussion process, with subject matter experts, has taken place. The questions used in this discussion and how they were chosen and phrased could give rise to elements of subjectivity (Patton, 1990).

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) describe concepts in a deductive study as needing to be operationalised, so that concepts can be measured quantitatively. From the example, some elements are more easily quantifiable, for example tenure can be measured in years, or months as can absence. However, 'challenging student behaviour' is much more difficult to objectively measure. Would one use a questionnaire? If so, would that be completed by the teacher or other responsible adults? Would one use a score derived from observing different behaviours and who would decide which behaviours were important?

Blaikie (2000) go on to point out the specificity needed when measuring elements, like absence, as we could measure that in whole days, or half days, or occasional hours of absence. They point to the principal of reductionism, in which, concepts are better understood if they are presented in the simplest terms.

The final characteristic representative of deduction is generalisation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Patton, 1990; Blaikie, 1993) which concerns the extent to which the research can be applied to a specific population. This is supported if we select sufficient sample sizes, that are representative of the whole population we are focusing on. For example, using the instance above, if we only select teachers from one school then we can only make inferences about that school, other schools may have a completely different situation. For us to predict the causes of absenteeism in teachers generally, we need larger numbers of participants, from a wider range of schools and areas (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

4.6.4 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire is designed to closely follow the theoretical model developed in phase one. It was designed using onlinesurveys.ac.uk, an online questionnaire design and distribution tool recommended by Manchester Metropolitan University. The drive was to produce a questionnaire that would not take respondents too long to complete but would still measure the concepts identified. A copy of the final questionnaire can be found in appendix 1.

The first section (page 1) contained participant information covering aims of the research and participant rights. More detail on this section will be provided in the following paragraphs.

The next section (page 2) included the general biographical information found in the table below:

Table 3: Biographical Questions and Response Options in Questionnaire

Question	Possible responses
Which of the following groups best describes your age?	16-24 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65 or older Prefer not to say
Which of the following describes how you think of yourself?	Male Female Prefer not to say
Which of the following best describes the hours that you work?	Full time Part time

	Ad-hoc (Zero hours contract or employed when needed) Other
Which of the following groups best describes your job?	Senior manager/Director Professional Junior or middle manager Supervisor Admin and secretarial Caring, leisure and other service Technical Semi-skilled Routine or manual Other

Items were scored Strongly disagree to Strongly agree on a five-point Likert scale. One item in work role authenticity and one item in corporate authenticity was reverse scored. This was to reduce the impact of response bias. Response bias (also called survey bias) is the tendency of a person to answer questions on a survey untruthfully or misleadingly. For example, they may feel pressure to give answers that are socially acceptable (Creswell, 2014).

4.6.3 Choosing a five-point Likert scale

Blaikie (2000) describes four point Likert rating scales as forcing the respondent to make a choice. The exploratory nature of this research benefits from as wide a range of responses as possible but on a four-point scale, with scoring statements ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, respondents have no option but to either agree or disagree when they rate the statement. Where the design of surveys allows for respondents to miss out questions that they may choose to go on to the next item rather than append a rating that does not reflect their true feelings which increases the likelihood of missing data. If a five-point Likert scale is used it

gives a respondent, the opportunity to 'sit on the fence' by using the middle or 'unsure' rating. By using a five-point Likert scale, this research allows respondents to use an 'unsure' option and reflect their true feelings rather than being forced to submit an inaccurate response. Blaikie (2000) also comments that using 'not sure' is much less threatening than having to admit they 'don't know'. To ensure respondent reads the statements carefully and think before responding Blaikie (2000) suggests keeping the order of response options the same but use positive and negative statements.

4.6.5 Work role authenticity

The work role authenticity model, developed in phase one, has nine component themes, in three clusters, which are outlined in more detail in the phase one results chapter. For brevity and simplicity one item was developed for each theme. For example: the theme 'performing despite politics and organisational pressures' was transformed into the item 'I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me'.

The section begins with a brief description of work role authenticity and the following nine questions.

- I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me
- I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company
- I come to work mainly for the pay
- I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team
- I like to build a network of technical experts, inside and outside my company
- Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority
- At work, I have clear boundaries of what I will and will not do
- Improving the quality of my work is important to me
- I take more pride in my job than I do in working for the company

Items were scored Strongly disagree to Strongly agree on a five-point Likert scale except for the third item, 'I come to work mainly for the pay' which was reverse scored.

4.6.6 Corporate authenticity

The corporate authenticity model, developed in phase one, has nine component themes which are outlined in more detail in the phase one results chapter. For brevity and simplicity one item was developed for each theme. For example: the theme 'identifying with the brand' contained strong elements of identifying with the values of the brand within the three cases. Hence, the item in the questionnaire was worded, 'I identify with what my company stands for and its values'.

The section begins with a brief description of corporate authenticity and the following nine questions.

- I identify with what my company stands for and its values
- I don't like getting involved in internal politics
- I present a positive view of my company even when it is not the whole truth
- I feel my company is loyal to me
- My company respects me as much as I respect it
- I get satisfaction from telling my friends positive things about my company
- Most people in my company care about me
- It is important to build networks with people across the whole company
- I have a sense of belonging when at work

Items were scored Strongly disagree to Strongly agree on a five-point Likert scale except for the second item, 'I don't like getting involved in internal politics' which was reverse scored.

4.6.7 Internal communication

The following sections cover internal communication channels (page 5 onwards). Each section begins with a similar question asking if the respondent uses that

channel of communication at work. If their answer is no, the questionnaire will move on to the next channel. If they answer yes, four questions are presented. Whilst these four questions relate to, for example, email, two of these questions will be phrased to encompass work role authenticity and two to encompass corporate authenticity. This separation will be useful in increasing the options for quantitative analysis beyond the scope of this research. Items were scored Strongly disagree to Strongly agree on a five-point Likert scale.

4.6.7a Email

The four items relating to email were:

- I use email to find out about what my company stands for and its values
- Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging
- I use emails to help me to learn more about my job
- I use email to help build better team relationships

4.6.7b Face-to-face

This section does not have a question about whether face-to-face communication is used at work. The presumption is that almost all workplaces utilise a form of face-to-face communication. The four items relating to face-to-face communication were:

- I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company
- Face-to-face training events help me to build my wider company network
- Talking to my peers, in person, helps me to understand and deal with internal politics
- Discussing the pressure of work, with my colleagues, makes it more manageable

4.6.7c Intranet

The four items relating to intranet communication were:

- The company intranet is my first stop for company information
- Looking at information on the intranet gives me a sense of belonging in the company

- I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and process that affect my job
- Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job

4.6.7d Social media

For social media, respondents were asked which types of social media were used at work, namely, LinkedIn, Facebook, Facebook Messenger, Twitter, You Tube, Instagram, Snapchat, Internet, Google+ or Google Apps.

The four items relating to social media communication were:

- When I post, about work, on social media, I feel like I am representing the company
- I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on social media
- I follow industry experts on social media to learn more
- I use social media to keep in touch with colleagues

4.6.8 Final responses

A free type answer box was included, so respondents could input any additional information that had not been specifically asked for in other parts of the questionnaire.

4.6.9 Review of initial questionnaire design

The initial design, see appendix 6, was reviewed by academic and commercial respondents to gain some clear feedback, from a respondent perspective, that would improve the respondent experience. Several important improvements were identified.

1, A formal consent page that respondents had to complete before moving to the questionnaire proper was changed to a consent statement prior to finally uploading responses.

2, Work role and corporate items were originally on one page. It was thought that a block of 18 items may discourage some respondents to continue. Work role and corporate authenticity were separated and placed on individual pages. This made the questionnaire appear less laborious.

3, Items relating to all four internal communication channels were originally placed on a single page. This made it necessary for respondents to excessively scroll down the page to complete all the items. The four channels were separated and placed on individual pages to make the questionnaire appear less laborious.

4, For respondents who do not use a communication channel it would be necessary to highlight 'not applicable' for each item. To negate the need for this, appropriate internal communication channels had a simple binary question at the beginning, for example, 'Do you use email at work?'. If the answer is 'no' the questionnaire moves onto the next channel, negating the need for a 'not applicable' option.

5, For each internal communication channel, the number of items was reduced from eight to four. Two items each were biased towards corporate and work role authenticity.

6, An item by item review was undertaken to check that the language used was understandable and accessible. For example, 'I identify with my company's brand' was changed to 'I identify with what my company stands for and its values' because some respondents may not recognise their organisation has a brand like in the local council.

4.6.10 Structural Equation Modelling

When reviewing the relationships contained within figures 4 and 5, it could be questioned why Structural Equation Modelling was not used.

Structural Equation Modelling is a set of statistical methods for modelling data (Hoyle, 2013). Kaplan (2009, p. 1) describes SEM as a "class of methodologies that seeks to represent hypotheses about the means, variances and covariances of observed data in terms of a smaller number of 'structural' parameters defined by a hypothesized underlying model". Nachtigall et al. (2003, p. 10) expand, describing SEM as enabling "the analysis of latent variables and their relationships, offering the opportunity to analyse the dependencies of psychological constructs without measurement errors". This may include conducting and combining a range of statistical tests like ANOVA, multiple regression, factor analysis and assorted other procedures. Nachtigall et al. (2003) explain that SEM models are sometimes

referred to as Linear Structural Relations (LISREL). SEM handles the relationships between latent variables using linear regressions graphically presented in a path diagram. SEM is flexible in that it can deal with a whole system of regressions and draw out complex relationship patterns. Whilst SEM appears to be suitable for exploratory pursuits like developing complex relationships between latent variables it can be viewed as creating overly complicated models that, whilst interesting, become removed from practical application (Nachtigall et al., 2003).

Whilst SEM appears to be a credible tool for analysing the data in this research it was discounted for three key reasons.

Firstly, in this research, the emphasis is on meaningful and straightforward relationships that drive practical application and interventions. Whilst SEM could have been used to analyse the relationships within CA and WRA, its complexity detracts from a clear and simple message, especially with respect to practitioners. Future research could use a bigger sample and explore these relationships in more detail.

Second is the potential for the presence of bi-directional relationships. For SEM to be effective, the initial theory or hypothesis needs to be transferrable into a set of linear regressions (Hoyle, 2013; Suhr, 2006; Nachtigall et al., 2003). The initial hypothesis, of this research, consists of bi-directional relationships between corporate and work role authenticity and different channels of internal communication. For example, being high on work role authenticity could predict high or low openness to social media channels.

The third reason is the need for relatively high sample sizes. Kline (2011) proposes 200 as a minimum, Loehlin (1992) proposes an absolute minimum of 100 but goes on to stress that 200 is better, and Yung and Bentler (1994 cited in Nachtigall et al.,

2003) propose a sample size of 2000 to obtain satisfactory results. Taking the smallest proposed sample size of 20 per variable (Kline, 2011), if we assume each authenticity measure to be one variable, rather than a possible 9 topics or 18 sub-topics, there are 6 variables namely CA, WRA, openness to face to face, email, intranet and social media. This suggests the minimum required sample size is 120. In this research operational factors led to a sample size of 72 which falls short of the minimum sample required to effectively conduct structural equation method analysis.

4.6.11 Principal Component Analysis

When reducing the number of factors in a set of variables there appear to be two logical choices either factor analysis (FA) or principal component analysis (PCA).

The mathematical mechanics of factor analysis and principal component analysis (PCA) are different. FA explicitly assumes the existence of latent factors underlying the observed data. This latent variable cannot be directly measured with a single variable for example intelligence or social anxiety. Instead, it is seen through the relationships it causes in a set of variables. PCA instead seeks to identify variables that are composites of the observed variables. PCA's approach to data reduction is to create one or more index variables from a larger set of measured variables. It does this using a linear combination (basically a weighted average) of a set of variables. The created index variables are called components. The whole point of the PCA is to figure out how to do this in an optimal way: the optimal number of components, the optimal choice of measured variables for each component, and the optimal weights. Although the techniques can get different results, they are similar to the point where the leading software used for conducting factor analysis (SPSS Statistics) uses PCA as its default algorithm (Coolican, 1993).

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) has three main uses. First, to understand the structure of a set of variables, second, to construct a questionnaire and measure an underlying variable and third, to reduce a data set to a more manageable size whilst retaining the integrity of original themes (Field, 2018).

In this research, understanding whether the overall questionnaire items fell into WRA, CA and openness to different IC channels was the main imperative. With a larger sample, further analysis could have explored the proposed structure of CA and WRA in more detail. To this end PCA was felt to be a more appropriate statistical analysis.

4.6.12 Questionnaire implementation

The questionnaire was generally sent out to respondents by key contacts within each organisation or the researcher. The email or text contained a link which accessed a website where the questionnaire was hosted. Standard text was used in the email to introduce the researcher, the study and the context.

After initial interviews, with the acting Internal Communications Manager, Head of Talent and Head of Training and Development of case organisation three, whose results have been included in phase one, the organisation made strategic changes, that involved significant redundancies, and the team liaising with this research decided that it was difficult to continue with the research at such a sensitive time for the organisation.

Following the withdrawal of organisation three, it was important to find a similar organisation, in the public sector, to take their place. Discussions were had, with another local council, about access to the internal communications team and wider groups of employees for phase two and approaches planned to begin the research. Unfortunately, the COVID-19 pandemic happened, before those plans could be realised and the organisation was not able to support this research.

Following the withdrawal of the two councils it became imperative to establish replacement respondents. Discussions were had with two HR/Management consultancies and a 'general' group of respondents. These were made up from an eclectic mix of organisations and sectors and contacted by various social media and internet channels.

Separate, but identical, questionnaires were used for each different organisation taking part. This made scheduling of opening and closing dates easier to manage for each organisation.

Organisational and operational issues reduced the opportunities to engage respondents. There were a sub-optimum number of respondents per group which precludes individual analysis for each group. The total number of respondents was less than optimum in providing sound statistical analysis however, there is sufficient data to identify themes which can be used for further development. Respondents were recruited via an internet link distributed by internal communications specialists and posted on Facebook and Twitter to an online questionnaire hosted virtually. Respondents read a participant information form before completing the questionnaire and were free to leave the study at any time.

4.7 Ethics

This research has been reviewed for ethical considerations and rigour and judged as adhering to the ethical standards laid down by the Business and Law Research Ethics and Governance Committee. These considerations included risks and hazards of collecting data, use and analysis of data, publication and dissemination of final output and insurance and indemnity.

In addition, The Social Research Association (2003) guidelines cover four main areas of ethical consideration in relation to this study. These are addressed in the following table:

Table 4: Ethical considerations with respect to The Social Research Association (2003) guidelines

1. Obligations to Society	1.1 Widening the scope of social research	The findings of this research will be shared with the two main audiences, organisations and internal communications team.
	1.2 Considering conflicting interests	This research will present potential improvements in people management, leadership and targeting of internal communication in organisations. Wider benefits could include better targeted social communication like public health messages. As the researcher has a personal connection with all cases, either directly or via an associate, the potential for conflicting interests is present but low. No payment or future payment was made by cases. Initial contacts and key contacts were made aware of the scope of this study prior to the start. Associates were not involved in the research except for providing an initial contact. Findings and subsequent write-up have been reviewed by other academics to reduce bias due to conflict of interest.
	1.3 Pursuing objectivity	This research, whilst an individual effort, has been undertaken with the co-operation and scrutiny of a supervisory team and supporting organisations. The supporting organisations have no influence, financial or otherwise on the outcome of this study.
2. Obligations to Funders and Employer	This research is self-funded.	2.1 and 2.2 are not relevant in this research context
	2.3 Guarding privileged information	Supporting organisations have taken no measures to restrict any information gathered. Individual contributors may have chosen what to disclose and what not to.
3. Obligations to Colleagues	3.1 Maintaining confidence in research	The results of this research have been communicated in an accurate manner and verified by the supervisory team.
	3.2 Exposing and reviewing methods and findings	This method clearly outlines the approach to phase one and phase two including potential limitations and challenges.
	3.3 Communicating ethical principles	This is an individual research project that has been scrutinised by the supervision team. The reliability and validity of the analysis has been clearly communicated in the results section.
	3.4 Ensuring safety and minimising risk of harm to field researchers	The researcher undertook interviews at commercial client sites and via video conference. The risk to health and safety was minimal.

4, Obligations to Subjects	4.1 Avoiding undue intrusion	The subject of the research is unlikely to create harm to participants due to intrusion. All participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the research if they feel uncomfortable.
	4.2 Obtaining informed consent	In addition to verbal explanations, interviewees were requested to complete a consent sheet (see appendix 3). Respondents to the online questionnaire had clear statements about consent within the text of the questionnaire. See questionnaire copy (appendix 1).
	4.3 Modifications to informed consent	Not relevant in this research context.
	4.4 Protecting the interests of subjects	Participants were given participant information sheets prior to taking part in interviews. The same information was available in the online questionnaire. The subject matter was thought unlikely to cause distress, however, if a participant had become distressed, the interview would have been suspended and a safe space provided for them to recover before discussing whether they wanted to continue. At this point they could be given the opportunity to have a trusted colleague to accompany them. If necessary, support services, like counselling, could have been signposted.
	4.5 Enabling participation	A flexible approach was on offer for interviewees who needed such flexibility, for example video conference interview, flexible times and location. The online questionnaire hosting states, 'Online surveys aims to follow the principles of the W3C Web Content Accessibility Guidelines'. In phase one participation was by means of working in IC in the selected cases. In phase two participation was by way of an internet link and online questionnaire. Should it have been required, participants could have borrowed a device to access the questionnaire or funding provided for them to use an internet café or other resource.
	4.6 Maintaining confidentiality of records	Within this research identification data was collected only on the consent forms prior to interview. Consent forms were scanned, shredded and electronic copies and the data set is stored in an encrypted, password protected folder. Access is restricted solely to the researcher.
	4.7 Preventing disclosure of identities	Within this research no identification data was collected. Storage of the data set is in an

		encrypted, password protected folder. Access is restricted solely to the researcher.

5.1 Chapter five – phase one results

5.2 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from phase one. The results have been arranged into broad areas, namely, overarching authenticity definitions, work role authenticity, corporate authenticity, strategy and measurement of internal communications, email communication, face-to-face communication, intranet and social media. Two of the areas, overarching authenticity definitions and strategy and measurement of internal communications, are not incorporated in phase two but their inclusion in this section gives useful context. The following sections, arranged into the key classifications outlined in the method, present the results from fourteen interviews, carried out within three cases, and identify themes and sub-themes.

5.3 Overarching authenticity definitions

Although orthodox definitions of authenticity are not a key variable in this research, it is important to review the results as it gives insight into the differences between authenticity, work role authenticity and corporate authenticity. The definitions described below are more representative of orthodox authenticity (Guignon, 2008; Bialystok, 2014) than the more nuanced work role and corporate authenticity.

Participants found answering questions about authenticity difficult without careful direction. 10 of the 14 participants expressed difficulty in articulating what authenticity comprises, although, most said they felt they had a good understanding. As described, in the method, interviews began by contextualising interviewees ideas of authenticity within the realms of internal communication.

Three themes were identified which were associated with orthodox authenticity, honesty, feeling valued and presenting 'your best self'.

5.3.1 Theme one - honesty

All 14 participants articulated a theme of honesty. A recurring theme for 10 of the respondents was the notion of being who one is, rather than a false representation.

The view that one can represent the official stance, without corporate spin and demonstrate honesty in how the message is delivered, is important. Interviewees acknowledged personal style will play a part but, even when individuals are not sure footed, delivering the message honestly, is viewed as more authentic. Interviewees said that corporate messages could be delivered in an "undiplomatic and politically unwise" manner, but employees still regard that as authentic, as they have a full picture, good and bad.

One L&D Director described it, "I feel when people use a lot of 'high-brow' corporate language or those kind of thinking out of the box, I feel they're hiding behind a language rather than talking like a human", "they use a lot of those phrases you hear politicians use. Rather than just delivering it factually with an acknowledgement that it might be upsetting to some."

An Internal Communications Manager, in a large pharmaceutical company, described occasions when the CEO communicated good and bad performance, for the company, without using jargon or putting "corporate spin" on the message and found this was accepted as being more authentic, or honest, than dressing up the message.

5.3.2 Theme two - feeling valued

Over half of the participants, eight out of 14, felt that feeling authentic was about being valued and supported at work. This could be informal like checking on one's mental health, sending ad-hoc messages of support or simply being remembered by key figures in the organisation. This resonates with belonging, one of the outcomes of effective internal communication proposed by Welch and Jackson (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

An IC specialist in the pharmaceutical company described having opportunities, at team meetings, to discuss their well-being and, "give people the opportunity to highlight challenges and also gives the team an opportunity to support and care for

them." In the local council, an IC Manager described a senior leader remembering personal details about her and her family and acknowledging her when outside of work, which made her feel valued. The Head of Marketing at the chef agency, described sending chefs regular updates, plus little messages to ask if everything is OK and allowing some chefs to take over social media for the day, "posting messages and cooking tips."

5.3.3 Theme three - presenting one's best self

Six of the participants talked about themes around presenting one's best self. Of these, four associated this with doing what one says one will do and three associated it with doing the best one can do in any situation.

The Head of Talent in a local council described senior managers, "They would be delivering what they said they would deliver, and they'd be communicating and explaining that to staff." A project manager at the chef agency said, "we've worked hard to build a team of chefs who are very capable when placed into a client venue. We give them a brief, but we expect them to do whatever is needed to make the project a success." The L&D Director of a local council also noted that for her, authenticity was also connected to being honest about what was possible to deliver within given resources and timescales.

5.4 Corporate authenticity

Seven themes were identified which were associated with corporate authenticity including five positively oriented themes and two negative themes. As with WRA, some regard these as essential tools in progressing their career. The positive themes include identifying with the brand, mutual respect, having a sense of belonging and care, loyalty and being treated as a representative of the company and building relationships. The negative themes associated with corporate authenticity were accepting a façade that masks the 'real' view of the company and internal politics.

The next section will explore each theme, in turn and add quotations from participants to illustrate.

5.4.1 Theme one - having a sense of belonging & care

The first theme associated with corporate authenticity is about having a sense of belonging and feeling the organisation cares about you.

Summing up this theme, an IC Manager of a pharmaceutical company said, "I come to work for more than just to do my job. I want to feel a valued member of a company, and it's - for me it's not just about pay and benefits, it's about having a good time while I'm here as well. Not crazy fun, but just feeling content and supported and that I understand the people who I'm working with."

13 of the 14 interviewees discussed aspects of belonging and feeling they were cared for in relation to corporate authenticity. For 10, this was heightened when they felt supported by being able to access training, by having a good introduction or induction to the company or taking a flexible approach when people have personal problems. For 10, it included honest communication and giving employees a voice, like having trading conditions honestly communicated and for another it was about setting up employee forums that allow for employee views to be recorded. Another eight interviewees commented on themes that included being supported in unfamiliar environments and accepted by others, which was focused

on making sure that new or temporary staff had a friendly face or informal mentor who could answer questions and provide guidance.

Relationship managers in the chef agency talked about the agency representing a central stability in their work where clients and venues change but the agency remains a static force. One said, "We give them consistency at work as clients and colleagues change with every new contract. We encourage chefs to contact us if anything is wrong or bothering them and we will work with them to resolve issues in the hope that chefs do not go to other agencies." The MD said they specifically use a range of social media channels, or texts, to keep chefs better connected and develop a sense of belonging, using channels that the chefs prefer. They have set up Facebook groups to allow chefs to feel they are part of a bigger team and allow them to promote their recipes and new chefs are using these tools to reach out to their peers before they begin work.

The Head of Marketing at the agency explained that, "chefs working for the agency have previously had poor experiences with other agencies and little, if any, development or appraisal. Many are shocked that we want to spend time getting to know them and their experience and get a view of what work they enjoy most. They try to meet face-to-face, to build trust and belonging, but this is not always possible due to geography".

The L&D Director at the local council explained that they have a formal induction training programme to increase belonging and more informal approaches to inducting new employees into their department or section. However, she feels they could do a better job of monitoring how successful this approach is and how consistent the approach is in individual departments.

The pharmaceutical company have several policies that provide support when people need it. The IC Manager recounted an example where a member of staff informed them that his father had died. This opened a package of care including

paid time off and counselling services via the company employee assistance programme.

The degree and intention to communicate to employees varies across the three organisations. The local council expect managers to cascade communication appropriately to staff and check understanding. The pharmaceutical company take an open and honest approach with their CEO often being regarded as blunt, although this appears to warm employees towards him in a way not experienced by previous CEOs. The chef agency, as explained above, places chefs at the centre of their business and uses channels they preferred.

5.4.2 Theme two - identifying with the brand

The second theme associated with corporate authenticity is about having a positive connection, as an employee or as a consumer, with the brand.

11 of the 14 interviewees noted aspects of 'identifying with the brand' in association with corporate authenticity. For some it was a genuine attachment to the brand, for others it was an identity with the impact the brand can make and for others it was a genuine attempt to create a shared identity with the brand.

The chef agency, once perceived as "corporate, professional and serious", consciously adopted a cohesive and strategic policy of helping chefs develop 'identity' with their brand. The desire to be recognised for caring about their chefs and having chefs buy into this concept is identified as a key part of their future success. The Head of Marketing made chefs central to the business. Part of this strategy included chefs communicating using agency social media accounts to make the brand more accessible, identifiable and 'authentic'. This encouraged chefs to use the company strap line when communicating and referring colleagues and peers to the agency.

Interviewees from the local council struggled to provide examples of where they, or other employees, identified with the brand. Reorganisations and redundancies have

reduced any positive connection. Staff have limited visibility of the whole council, working in small teams with several levels before they get to the head of their area, which reduces their connection with the brand. The L&D Director felt that "professional grades tend to view themselves as a member of their profession before the council".

In the agency, a chef relationship manager explained how chefs see themselves, foremost, as a chef because of their temporary employment status. This can create significant problems, like poor attendance, punctuality and performance, and is a reason why the agency is so keen to ensure their chefs really identify with their brand. The Head of Marketing feels that the goal is to have chefs happy to present as working for the agency rather than as an independent chef. She said that they have some chefs who have worked for the agency for over 30 years and these have "crossed the boundary", appearing to directly work for the agency.

5.4.3 Theme three - internal politics

The third theme associated with corporate authenticity is about the extent to which employees are comfortable in dealing with internal politics. This theme differs from theme four as one addresses the political positioning of the individual and the other the positioning of the organisation. In both, authenticity is presented as a tool that needs to create engagement without appearing false.

10 of the 14 interviewees noted aspects of internal politics, or a lack of, in association with corporate authenticity. Of these, eight directly attached themes of honesty to presenting arguments and in one's actions. Honesty, or a lack of political manoeuvring, was generally seen as a good thing that contributed to the positive image of the individual, according to five of the eight. However, the same number argued that 'managing' how one appears and communicates gives more opportunity for engagement and career enhancement. One interviewee concluded that, "authenticity is probably very malleable depending on what you're trying to portray or what you're trying to achieve".

The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company said she was less inclined to participate in internal politics, preferring a more honest and collaborative approach and feeling it has limited her career progression. For chefs, playing the game is rewarded, if they do not "ruffle feathers" and create a good impression with clients that reflects well on the agency.

In the local council, the Head of Talent described occasions when employees will enthusiastically agree with their manager's approach but present a different viewpoint when they go back to their teams. This creates bad feeling in the team, especially towards the manager. She describes employees exaggerating their part and taking more credit than they deserve, which is looked upon as dishonest and detrimental to the individual.

The IC and SCR officer, at the pharmaceutical company, described the new CEO as open and honest, compelling employees to buy into him, which is different than the previous CEO who was difficult to read. This has prompted an increase in engagement. This honest, blunt and apolitical style creates issues for the IC team but despite this, even with a challenging market and lack of upcoming innovations, employees it creates more engagement.

5.4.4 Theme four - accepting a façade that masks the 'real' view of the company

The fourth theme associated with corporate authenticity is about the extent to which employees are comfortable accepting a façade that masks the 'real' view of the company. As previously noted, this is like theme three with the exception that the focus is now on the organisation rather than the individual. 10 of the 14 interviewees noted aspects of dealing with an organisational façade consisting of manipulating communication to present the best of the situation. For all of them this was considered a necessary 'evil' in presenting a message that helped attain goals or move the entity to the next step.

The Head of Talent of a local council summed it up concisely when she described it as, "somebody who supports the organisation, is an ambassador for the organisation, but at the same time recognizes that any organisation has its faults".

For IC departments in this research, writing emails, as if the CEO had written them, or finessing communication is a regular activity. One IC officer said she accepted a degree of inauthenticity, but crafting and fine-tuning messages helps to leverage engagement and ensures that employees get the correct meaning behind a message. The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company described having to reword an email from the finance department, so that recipients would not view two people leaving the department as a conspiracy and create unease in the department. The message was originally due to be set after normal working hours, which also indicated a degree of panic and reinforced the conspiracy theory.

This façade, if not managed correctly, can backfire on organisations. A chef relationship manager explained, in a previous role, information regarding a reorganisation that could have led to redundancies, was not shared appropriately. This led to employees talking amongst themselves and a series of whispers and half-truths were made rather than employees having an official version of the truth. She went on to say, "this didn't make me feel grounded or part of a team and was a major factor in my decision to leave".

The Managing Director of the chef agency said feedback on how they came across in the industry had convinced them to take a more transparent approach to communication. This prompted the switch to social media so they could engage with chefs easier. The Managing Director explained, "We moved towards promoting vacancies on Facebook with realistic hourly rates and told current chefs if we knew a project is likely to be challenging or a difficult situation. We're proud of being one of the few agencies, in the industry, who present a realistic picture and it does help to build trust with the chefs".

5.4.5 Theme five - building relationships across the organisation

The fifth theme associated with corporate authenticity surrounds building relationships across the organisation. This theme is connected to theme 7 in work role authenticity. Eight of the 14 interviewees referred to instances where they, or a colleague have taken action to build relationships across the organisation. For seven, this was about exploring the needs of others in the organisation and for six this was about senior managers appearing accessible.

More established organisations appear to operate in a silo mentality, except for senior managers, whereas the agency has a flatter structure and fewer silos. Cases had their own techniques to break the silos down. In the local council, engagement events with the CEO were used and in the pharmaceutical company technology was employed by introducing Google+ to make interaction more accessible. The local council run small events with 50 employees from across the organisation and the CEO presents and answers questions. They found that involving a significant number of people was difficult, so they filmed subsequent events to share. The pharmaceutical company are using Google+ to promote the SLT and make them more approachable. Previous SLT members had been abrupt and aggressive towards employees presenting to the board, which had done "long lasting damage to the reputation of the board". Google+ gives opportunities for light-hearted interaction with employees like posting baby pictures and asking employees to guess which SLT member it was.

The relationships the agency builds with their chefs are essential in gaining general feedback and resolving issues. A relationship manager said, "Chefs are encouraged to feedback on client needs and possible opportunities to sell services". Chefs are critical in gaining information when things go wrong, identifying what could have been done to avoid it and how to resolve it. The Managing Director explained, new chefs are asked about their goals and aspirations, which the agency try to help meet, and what environments and work they enjoy most. This encourages a more collaborative, two-way partnership, with honesty about the contract so that the

chefs know what to expect when they start. This helps the agency anticipate problems, prepare solutions and build better relationships with chefs. She said, "We find our approach to building a partnership works for them as many of the chefs have worked for them for many years and their high retention rates are significantly better than the industry average".

5.4.6 Theme six - loyalty and being treated as a representative of the organisation

The sixth theme associated with corporate authenticity is loyalty to the organisation and whether one is treated as a representative of the company, especially with clients and the general public.

Seven of the 14 interviewees noted aspects of loyalty and being treated as a representative of the organisation in association with corporate authenticity. For three interviewees the focus was on loyalty, whereas for four interviewees it was about loyalty plus retention and having employees act as a direct representative either in a sales or consultative capacity.

The Head of Talent at the local council said, "For many years we have been known to have long serving employees. Many of our staff have come from school and stayed with the council. I have noticed that, in the past few years, that loyalty has changed. With the cuts to services and uncertainty we are noticing that our turnover of staff has increased".

The Head of Marketing at the chef agency said, "The goal of the agency is to ensure that all their chefs understand the important correlation between chef behaviour, client satisfaction and brand credibility". The Managing Director explained, "Our chef retention is one of the best in the industry. We have chefs who have worked with us for over 30 years. We think it's because we're honest with them and we treat them like one of the team. We have benefits like the Elite Brigade, branded workwear and conferences and training events for them". One chef relationship manager said, "Clients are spread throughout the UK and we don't have the resources to visit each in person. The 'face' of the agency is often the chef working

on a project so we have to make sure our chefs can build a relationship with the client and act as a go-between, feeding back information, about the client's business, to the agency".

5.4.7 Theme seven - mutual respect

The seventh theme associated with corporate authenticity is having a perception of mutual respect between the employee and the organisation.

The key theme, highlighted by seven interviewees, is a two-way relationship of give and take where employees are happy to put in extra effort or assume additional responsibilities in return for honesty and support from the organisation.

The IC Manager of a pharmaceutical company said, "Since the new CEO took over, and has started to make senior leaders more approachable to staff, the amount of engagement from employees has increased and the perception is that employees are much happier and much more open and confident when communicating with our senior leadership team".

In the chef agency, one chef relationship manager said they try to be honest and expect the same in return. The agency discloses when an assignment is problematic and find it helps chefs be more understanding when things go wrong. In a similar vein, the Head of Marketing said, "clients are told the truth about the availability of chefs rather than being led to believe that chefs may be available". This honest approach with clients has also paid off with clients being more respectful if the agency cannot find appropriate staff for them.

In contradiction, the Head of Talent in the local council, reported that they are announcing the third set of redundancies in the last five years. Staff are suspicious of any request for consultation and less willing to put themselves out for the council. She added, "We're hoping, with the arrival of the new CEO, we can build

better relations with staff and with a new IC team we can transform internal communications".

5.5 Work role authenticity

Seven themes were identified which were associated with work role authenticity including five positively oriented themes and two negative themes, with negative themes describing aspects of the job that were considered as a necessary, but disliked part of the job or as a means to an end. The positive themes include doing a good job and wanting to improve, performing despite politics and organisational pressures, having a clear picture of what they will and will not do, taking pride and having passion in their job and fostering good relationships with people in their team rather than broader organisational networks. The negative themes associated with work role authenticity were using the job as a means to an end, for example just for the pay and being expected to work unsociable hours.

The next section will explore each theme, in turn and add quotations from participants to illustrate.

5.5.1 Theme one - taking pride and having passion in their job

The first theme associated with work role authenticity is taking pride and having passion for one's job.

All 14 participants described elements of taking pride and having passion in their job. The main theme appeared to be directed towards the internal motivation behind wanting to do a good job which was highlighted by all 14. Eight participants mentioned being passionate about making a difference to clients' or employees' lives. This might be helping to develop medication for a specific illness or creating a better process and platform for chefs to find work. The outward expression of passion varies depending on the job. In some occupations, passion is understated, like scientists or chemists and for some passion is a more outward display.

The pharmaceutical company gave examples of both. A communications administrator described managers becoming emotional about the impact of new drugs, "and he was saying that just the sheer fact that a mother doesn't have to go

through all that and then teach her child how to do all the medication and everything else. And he sat there, and he just started crying". Conversely, teams of scientists with similar passion about their job, show it quite differently as a Senior IC officer described, "some teams are purely process driven and sometimes you do sit there and you think, 'Have they got heart?' but, you know their passion is numbers or chemistry and they demonstrate it in a quieter way". In both examples, it is the passion with which one engages with their role, that is of interest, rather than an emotionally driven definition of passion (Stevenson and Waite, 2011).

The L&D Director, at a local council, said, "I don't [have pride] and I don't need it. And I'm not proud of it, and I don't care if it's here. It exists and while I am employed and paid to do a job, I will do it to the absolute best of my ability but pride [in the organisation] doesn't matter to me". Her focus was about doing her job well, to benefit the organisation, rather than a need to engage passionately with the organisation.

The chef relationship managers described a passion for placing chefs at the centre of their model, especially communications. They described wanting to change the impression of chefs in the industry so being a temporary chef is not stigmatised as a lesser role compared to a permanent job. Part of this strategy is focused on wanting chefs to enjoy their assignments and motivate them to do a good job for the client and the agency. They explained, "We're sending people that turn up to work and are reliable. In terms of attitude, they go in and just get on with the job rather than trying to ruffle too many feathers that's what we encourage and that's kind of what we reward". The agency felt, by understanding the industry and understanding what chefs want they could generate work that values chefs and makes them feel passionate about their assignments rather than just treating it like any other job.

5.5.2 Theme two - doing a good job and wanting to improve

The second theme associated with work role authenticity is doing a good job and wanting to improve.

10 of the 14 participants highlighted the desire to do a good job and the willingness to improve one's capability and skills. All mentioned a focus on making sure their work is done to a good standard and employees are willing to expend additional effort to make sure that their standard of work is high. The reasons behind doing a good job were varied, sometimes as the result of an internal drive to excel, for some it was being able to demonstrate, to others, their excellence and for others it was more of an altruistic endeavour. Four of the 10 explicitly commented on employees' need to improve via skill sharing and more formal development and five of the 10 made indirect references to building skills and improving performance.

The chef agency makes efforts to prompt excellent performance and skills development. They hold conferences and let chefs post tips and recipes on their social media channels, to allow chefs to share knowledge and offer peer to peer support with mentor chefs. They use an elite chef programme to reinforce good non-technical skills as opposed to cooking skills, which offers the chefs exclusive benefits. The programme encourages chefs to demonstrate appropriate behaviour, like building good relationships with clients and the venue brigade, when working for clients. The elite brigade comprises about half the chefs they have on their books who are more involved in organised development activities.

One chef relationship manager highlighted, sometimes it is difficult to support chefs to develop because of their attitude or because of other personal issues impacting on them. He explained, alcoholism is "a stereotype that plagues the industry", and this impacts on how oriented these chefs are towards listening to feedback and developing their skills.

The Internal Communications Manager, at the local council, described gardeners being focused on making green spaces look good. She said they have an ownership of the task and the town itself (rather than the council). The annual nature of the gardening competition seems to precipitate a willingness to improve performance year on year.

The L&D Director of the local council described a lack of WRA in senior managers, who failed to ensure that nominees were fully briefed for an event with the CEO. This impacted on the effectiveness of the event, the reputation of senior managers and an opportunity to engage and build relationships with the CEO. The L&D Director said "Straight away the message is lost. The intent of this which was whole heartedly, I really want to hear what your views are. I want to engage with you. It matters to me. I don't want you to be nervous about coming because I know some of you won't be used to it, and yet all of that authenticity was lost in one fell swoop".

5.5.3 Theme three - unsociable hours

The third theme associated with work role authenticity is having to work unsociable hours.

Four participants made comments about unsociable hours in relation to work role authenticity. The main themes seemed to be the requirement to work extended hours, to be seen as an expert in your field or the general requirements of the role, which sometimes include split shifts or early starts or late finishes. Unsociable hours differ from the extra work required due to organisational pressures in that they are a constant requirement.

The Head of Talent, in a local council, commented on the needs of various roles to work unsociable hours. For some, like social workers and environmental health, the emphasis was on making sure their job was done to a good standard. For others, there was an organisational or job requirement like refuse collectors, cleaners and civil engineers. The exact split between working unsociable hours due to the quality of the job and because of organisational pressures is unknown.

The Head of Marketing in the agency described making sure chefs have a realistic preview of the requirement to work unsociable hours. She said, "We have to be very careful that we're not over promising to the chefs, and then the client can't

actually deliver or they're going to get angry with what we're saying because of course they'll have to work all the time. So, we're straight up with the chefs and say, 'Look, you will have to work weekends, that's what being a chef is about.' If you don't then this isn't going to work".

5.5.4 Theme four - performing despite politics and organisational pressures

The fourth theme associated with work role authenticity is being able to maintain performance despite the impact of internal politics and organisational pressures. This was indicated by 10 of the 14 participants and, in general, highlighted the desire or need to focus on the job rather than the organisational issues surrounding them. Examples were biased towards internal politics with six participants citing a significant impact of internal politics and four participants highlighting resource pressures like lack of staff or high workloads. When this was explored with participants it became apparent that pressure of work or a lack of resources had become a 'normal' way of working which, for the participants, was not noteworthy enough to be discussed.

One IC Manager, for a pharmaceutical company argued, choosing not to engage with internal politics hindered career prospects or the speed with which their career advanced. She said it was, "all just like a sort of feel rather than anything tangible". In the chef agency, the shortage of competent chefs made it easy for chefs to move into a new position quickly. Apolitical behaviour has few, if any, consequences on a chef's career which makes being good corporate citizens less of a priority.

The CSR and IC officer, for a pharmaceutical company, related an example from a new colleague who worked for Google. Employees were offered food and drink all day to keep them on site and extend working hours. One of the chef relationship managers said, "if they didn't believe in the job they were doing, they wouldn't do it", as the job is incredibly stressful. In both cases, the organisational or time

pressures come secondary to performing in the role. Whilst high pressure, long hours and weekend working are accepted, the macho vision of being a chef, encapsulated by long hours, is changing as more is known about the negative impact of burnout and stress and more individuals and companies are willing to deal with it.

In the local council, the need to be working under pressure was focused on specific times or in specific roles. The IC Manager at the local council talked about the pressure placed on cooks and other kitchen staff in schools to prepare large numbers of meals to tight deadlines together with an emphasis on providing nutritious and tasty food, whilst contending with budget restrictions that led to a shortage of staff.

5.5.5 Theme five - having a clear picture of what they will and will not do

The fifth theme associated with work role authenticity is having a clear picture of the boundaries surrounding what individuals/employees will and will not do.

Five of the 14 participants highlighted an association between work role authenticity and employees having a clear picture of the boundaries surrounding what they will and will not do. Participants were keen to elucidate this was not about shunning new opportunities or refusing to engage with new or changed requirements. They described it as having a clear focus on one's own tasks rather than being distracted by broader, more strategic issues, over which they have no control.

The areas where this was felt most acutely was in occupations that contained an element of care or service. A Head of Talent with a local council explained that many people working in care situations, like homelessness, have to focus on the task in hand rather than ruminating on the causes and the council's overall response to the issue. She said, "They focus on activities that have a direct impact

and have to work with what they have at the time. Many have a philosophical orientation towards social issues but place these to one side when helping people".

The agency gives chefs a clear picture of the assignment so that chefs know exactly what is expected of them and are not fazed by having to work outside of their expected remit. One of the chef relationship managers, an ex-chef, said "When chefs do not want to work in a specific venue we respect their honesty and will not force the point". This helps to build good relationships, with chefs and the venue, as chefs will remain motivated and do a good job.

5.5.6 Theme six - means to an end

The sixth theme associated with work role authenticity is coming to work for the remuneration rather than any psychological, social or moral attachment to the organisation or to one's career.

Two participants highlighted this theme which, compared to the other themes, had relatively little exposure. Nonetheless this is an interesting theme that, in effect, gives rise to one displaying low levels of both work role authenticity and corporate authenticity with one focusing solely on pay and other benefits.

One of the chef relationship managers reported, "I also know we have people who are doing it just because they need the money. They don't really care about us. They know that we're just a means to an end for them." For the agency, this can cause issues with quality especially if chefs have less interest in the client or the agency. Conversely, in the local council, the L&D Director described individuals who work hard and do a good job but once their contracted hours are finished, they have no desire to commit further.

5.5.7 Theme seven - building relationships with people in your team

The seventh theme associated with work role authenticity is building relationships with people in one's team.

Six participants specifically distinguished building relationships with their immediate or close team rather than wider relationships with others across the company and external stakeholders. Of these, five described a positive impact of having good relationships with close team members.

The extent to which one proactively sought out team relationships was a key aspect of this theme. For chefs, it was a necessity because of long hours and cramped environments. One chef relationship manager said, "If you're locked up in the room with somebody for 15 hours a day, you're going to end up getting on with them, or putting them in the pot". The Head of Talent, at the local council, also commented on environment playing a part. She said, "You can sit in your office a whole day and not see anybody, so I make a point of using the communal kitchen so I can keep in touch with people. Some offices are open plan which supports building a close-knit team".

The IC Manager, in the local council, said cleaners, grounds maintenance staff and care workers have no access to intranet or email and will tend to fall back on their existing team for information. The chef agency has purposely introduced a brigade, kitchen staff are referred to as a brigade, to unite their self-employed chefs and create the sense of a team. The brigade has a Facebook group to share ideas. In the pharmaceutical company, some technical teams choose to gather around a technical passion and build relationships within a relatively close group. The IC Manager said they are less open to communication about other groups or about corporate issues.

An internal communication manager at a pharmaceutical company gave an example of when relationships within a team are strained. The impact is a loss of communication and respect and less willingness to accommodate for personal or work issues. She explained about an employee of hers who lied about taking time off. She said, "he's broken my trust and if I can't trust you, I can't work with you".

5.8 Internal communication

The key channels of internal communication included in the research are email, face-to-face, intranet and social media. The following sections include how cases measure the effectiveness of internal communication, internal communication strategy and audience segmentation.

5.8.1 Strategy and audience segmentation

All 14 interviewees responded to questions about strategy and audience segmentation. Nine commented on an intention to develop a meaningful strategy or get senior level buy in. Only one person, from a pharmaceutical company, noted a long-term approach of three years with a focus on getting senior managers' buy in and creating a steering committee for internal communication. The same person described increasing IC capability and becoming a strategic partner rather than an administrative function, increasing engagement between employees and the senior leadership team which had been damaged by the behaviour of a previous CEO.

In all three cases, the need for quick and unplanned communication created a busy environment that detracted from the need to adopt a strategic approach. Strategy was absent due to finances, poor capability, poor discipline in adhering to communication protocols and engaging senior management. The local council and pharmaceutical company are at an early stage in rewriting communication strategies and are keen to delegate communication and empower others to do their own communication with support. The chef agency have introduced a clear vision focusing on texts and social media resulting from a consultation exercise with chefs. Client contracts are the only communication sent by email. Their goal is agreed but the strategy and practical steps to deliver it are not.

Without clear deliverables, audience segmentation is reactive rather than a planned activity. The local council communicate on a 'need to know' basis using hierarchy to segment employees. The council may communicate to schools but will use a

general email address without reference to specific recipients. The pharmaceutical company takes a similar approach and has started to use Instagram to communicate an education programme. Project stages can be used to segment the audience during product development and clinical trials. A key consideration is whether to send emails to the whole site, which includes European colleagues, or keep it to a domestic audience.

Of the three cases, the chef agency makes the most of audience segmentation. They have three main audiences, internal staff, chefs and clients and each uses slightly different channels. More detail follows.

5.8.2 Email

All 14 interviewees comment on the use of email in their organisation to a greater or lesser extent. 10 described themes covering interpretation or importance of content. 10 described usage as planned or unplanned, with planned generally being sent to a group of people and unplanned being sent to an individual. Seven described examples of overuse by copying to uninvolved employees. Four described email being used to provide a data trail, where issues of trust were present. Three identified themes around coverage within a diverse and spread-out organisation.

5.8.2a Theme one - creating meaningful attention

The first theme associated with emails concerns the difficulty in ensuring a one presents a consistent and comprehensive message.

In the chef agency, email has been replaced by Facebook, Messenger or text when communicating with chefs. One reason is that the informality of the media is thought to enhance clarity and attention. One of the relationship managers said, "With Messenger or text you can be quite blunt which gets the attention of chefs, or you can use emojis to help get your message across". The Managing Director explained that emails can be misinterpreted depending on the mindset of the recipient and simple requests can be interpreted as commands.

The IC Manager at the pharmaceutical company explained that they have more flexibility to create attention if they present messages on their intranet. They have the use of custom designs, pictures and colours to gain attention but because of the lack of proactive use of the intranet, they have to send a weekly newsletter email to direct employees to the intranet.

The Head of Marketing at the chef agency explained they struggle to communicate effectively using emails. She said, "We do try to speak to people on the phone. You cannot tell people as much over text or in email about a job, what it's like, the people who work there and their personalities. It's much easier over the phone". They are trying to increase the attraction that emails create by making them more visual, using pictures and colours, and easier to read. They are moving a system that can track receipt and opening of emails. She said, "When it's all bit more visual, a bit more attractive it sells our personality and our business and hopefully more people will read it".

5.8.2b Theme two – how emails are used

The second theme associated with emails is how emails are used as a communication channel.

The local council and the pharmaceutical company use email as a primary communication channel despite the desire to move to more interactive channels. The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company said she would not use email outside of work, tending to use social media. The chef agency has moved away from using emails unless essential.

Email usage is either planned or unplanned. Planned usage is for mass communication whereas unplanned usage is when other communication attempts have failed, and it is necessary to leave a reminder to prove contact was attempted.

The L&D Director in the local council described a situation where changes in legislation prompted planned emails that were a legal requirement. The emails

contained several large attachments, but they had no way to ascertain if recipients had opened or read the email.

Other examples of planned emails included a weekly newsletter, marketing to clients and for the chef agency, arranging mid-year appraisals. The pharmaceutical company have a corporate email process where a maximum of three emails are sent from the corporate email address and senders must book. However, emails sent from other email addresses are not governed and contribute most of the emails received.

Unplanned usage tends to be when other communication attempts have failed, and it is necessary to leave a reminder and increase the possibility of a call back. This relates to the need to leave a paper trail discussed further in theme 4. Other unplanned usage includes general replying to queries and problems, making and receiving requests for work and general conversations. The IC Manager, in the local council, cited the physical environment creating unplanned email traffic. With several sites, spread around the town, email is quicker than physically finding someone.

The chef agency uses email to send contracts or to confirm assignment details, but they avoid email where possible. They find that emails do not adequately convey emotion, especially if there is a problem with an assignment or a client. A phone call is much more efficient than a long email thread. The agency is willing to adapt the channel of communication to the individual where possible. They have surveyed their stakeholders including, chefs, clients and internal staff, and identified, broadly, which channels they use most.

5.8.2c Theme three - overuse

The third theme associated with emails is their overuse in internal communication.

The issue of overuse of email, as a communication channel, was more pronounced in the pharmaceutical company and the local council. The chef agency has made a

determined effort over recent years to move to social media platforms which has reduced their reliance on emails.

The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company reports the subject matter of emails can be diverse, with subjects liked blocked toilets reducing one's attention as they detract from business or job-related content. The L&D Director, at the local council, described it as "a lazy communication tool". She explained, people complain about the overuse of emails, but they are part of the problem. Every time one copies others in or replies with a 'thanks', the problem is exacerbated.

The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company said, "people are slaves to emails and a lot of news isn't really time-sensitive", as a result people expect their message to be sent immediately. To offset this, they wrap emails into a weekly newsletter. The newsletter reinforces that these messages are also available on the intranet, as many people do not regularly use the intranet.

All agree that a different platform or channel would be more effective, something more interactive, but the organisations (particularly when larger and more established) appear to struggle with control and security issues, despite alternatives being available.

5.8.2d Theme four - lack of trust

The fourth theme associated with emails is their use when parties lack trust and use the emails as a paper trail to prove what was said.

The IC Manager of the local council said, "It's almost having that paper trail isn't it? So, you can prove that you have communicated it and if they haven't done it then it's their fault".

The chef agency avoids giving job details via email, especially with new chefs they do not know well. They feel the risk is new chefs could contact the client directly and negotiate a better rate of pay by excluding the agency. Some chefs will work with several agencies and choose the assignment that is better for them. The

agency said it tries to help chefs build a career and send them to jobs that are right for them, rather than just send them to occasional jobs. Long standing chefs are treated as members of the agency team.

The IC Administrator of the pharmaceutical company felt there is a sense of presenteeism that is facilitated by sending and replying to emails. She said, "there's an element of people need to prove they're working and need to cover their back a bit", and "people want to make themselves look busy, they can prove that they're busy because they sent the email". Conversely, working across several teams, she uses emails as an aide-memoire to check that she has covered all the tasks requested of her.

5.8.2e Theme five - coverage

The fifth theme associated with emails is the extent to which employees, across the whole organisation, have access to them.

This impacts on any organisation where employees and clients cannot or do not wish to use emails. In the local council, many staff do not have access to email, like cleaners, grounds people and refuse operatives. Where people do not have access to email, they have to send to managers and ask them to cascade, for example, after strategic board meetings five or six topics will be chosen for cascading to increase the opportunity for them to gain attention.

5.8.3 Face-to-face

10 of the 14 interviewees commented on face-to-face communication. Eight of the 10 talked about large-scale face-to-face presenting, generally in company-wide meetings. Eight discussed the same but with facilitated interaction with the audience. Five interviewees talked about face-to-face team meetings, with some use of technology for field staff, and social networking.

The amount of data collected about face-to-face communication was lower than anticipated, especially one to one interactions. For the agency, with their remote relationships with chefs, this was expected. The teams in the local council and pharmaceutical company are both relatively small however, they do interact with organisations employing 8000 and 600 people (100,000 globally).

5.8.3a Theme one - presenting or giving instruction to large groups

The first theme associated with face-to-face communication is presenting or giving instruction to large groups. Eight out of 10 interviewees discussed large scale face-to-face presentations. CEOs or other senior managers presented to large audiences with limited interaction. For some the presentation was recorded for viewing later if employees could not attend.

The IC Manager at the pharmaceutical company explained they have four or five 'town hall' meetings per year, usually presented by a senior manager. The setting is formal with the presenters on stage. Key to creating attention is the 'loose lipped' nature of the general manager but audiences see this as honesty. The choice to present personally, rather than sending an email is appreciated by staff. The L&D Director at the local council reported similar events including the interactive opportunity to ask questions at the end. She notes the difficulty of having 200 people wanting to ask questions, which can take over two hours, but some will still think of questions after the presentation. The council have made efforts to record presentations and encouraged questions to be sent before the event.

The IC Manager for a pharmaceutical company described similar events with questions collated before the presentation. This helps to collate similar questions and ensure the senior managers presenting have an opportunity to read them beforehand. The IC Administrator reports that, due to a remote team, webcasting is used to broadcast the events live and later.

5.8.3b Theme two - facilitating interactive discussion

The second theme associated with face-to-face communication is facilitating interactive discussion. Eight out of 10 interviewees discussed large scale presentations with elements of interaction, like the events in theme 1 but with more audience interaction. Formal presentations can lack attention but instigating formal or informal interaction can improve this.

In the local council, the CEO is trying to engage more with staff. He has instigated meetings with fewer employees, taken from multiple silos, to increase engagement, give less confident staff a forum to voice their views and encourage questions. The L&D Director commented on the logistical challenge of meeting with 50 people at a time. With one meeting a month and an organisational headcount exceeding 8000 it would take over 13 years. To resolve this, meetings were arranged around specific subjects, chosen by employees, and video recorded for later consumption. Although, the council had not fully explored how to share the content.

As discussed in the previous section, the pharmaceutical company use webcast technology to involve remote staff. Whilst this is a step away from face-to-face, it represents a pragmatic and implementable solution.

5.8.3c Theme three - one-to-one

The third theme associated with face-to-face communication is one-to-one interactions. Four out of 10 interviewees discussed one to one interactions. Interviewees from the local council did not comment about one-to-one discussions.

Despite wanting to, the chef agency cannot commit to face-to-face contact with all chefs because of the geographical spread of chefs across the United Kingdom. Where possible face-to-face meetings are arranged, especially for new recruits, or contact can be made at regular chef conferences or social events. Another chef relationship manager spoke of face-to-face meeting as creating belonging, which

increases retention. He said, "When chefs have not met you, they feel like they can let you down a little easier".

The IC Manager of a pharmaceutical company said she values face-to-face meetings and feels sending emails and multiple replies is more work. In her view, as the business had become more dispersed, technology was replacing face-to-face communication in the form of Google hangouts and video conferencing via mobile phones. An IC Administrator described having individual 1:1s and team meetings every week but cautioned that emails are the most prevalent form of communication.

5.8.3d Theme four - team meetings

The fourth theme associated with face-to-face communication is facilitating team meetings. Five out of 10 interviewees discussed face-to-face team meetings. Overall, there was less emphasis on team meetings in any of the cases however, it seems a natural theme to include in this section.

In the pharmaceutical company, many team members work remotely and attend team meetings using webcast software. The IC Manager said, "I think it depends on your team and the individuals within that team". Senior managers, in the organisation, have face-to-face meetings six times per year where 40 ALT (senior managers) plus the 10 PLG (operating board) meet.

In the agency, chef relationship managers meet once a week to discuss clients, chefs and performance. The Managing Director said it was important to connect socially and share business information. Chefs have their own face-to-face events like conferences, where they can meet agency staff and other chefs, share skills and network. They also have social events like 'Pizza and Peroni' nights, which are purely for social networking. Chefs living in remote areas might not always get the opportunity to attend such events and rely on telephone and social media for communication.

5.8.4 Intranet

Six of the 14 interviewees commented on the use of the intranet as part of IC strategy. Three discussed using the intranet as a notice board for important news. Three commented on using the intranet as a data store for important documents and for some this was highlighted by an email newsletter. Five discussed the limitations of their intranet and suggested how to improve it.

For the local council and pharmaceutical company, the intranet is a key part of knowledge management. The introduction of new tools like Google+ and social media tools has largely left the intranet redundant. Where the intranet used to be used as a source of up to date communication and, in some cases, gave the opportunity for discussion, Grossman (2019) highlights that the best use for an intranet today is a receptacle of archived resources. In some cases, as discussed below, even this is not being managed appropriately. The chef agency do not have an intranet and use cloud storage for vital information which is appropriate for a small company.

5.8.4a Theme one - notice board for news

The first theme associated with intranet use is as a repository for news stories. Three out of six interviewees discussed using it as a notice board for news stories with varying approaches to updating the information and managing attraction.

An internal communications officer in a pharmaceutical company describes using the intranet for archiving. News articles on the intranet are collated and automatically put into an email newsletter which is distributed weekly. Interaction is limited to 'liking' posts and commenting. Comments are channelled through IC and passed to the author of the post, who will decide whether to reply or not. One interviewee lamented her previous company intranet which was more interactive and garnered attention and engagement for employees.

5.8.4b Theme two - link to data store

The second theme is associated with using the intranet to store documents and other data. Three out of six interviewees discussed using the intranet as a data store. A data store will have older archived documents than a news source.

The local council and the pharmaceutical company, in part, use the intranet as a data store. The types of documents stored are varied and could include policies, contracts, guides, historical archives and operating manuals. A lack of basic document management is recognised in both cases. For example, the local council have recently updated their intranet system and transferred documents from the old intranet without any review leading to duplicated documents and multiple versions of the same documents. Managers are reluctant to lean on the intranet for up to date information because documents might be out of date. Introducing Google+ in the pharmaceutical company added another layer as locally stored documents were automatically uploaded. Both cases described a lack of ownership and resources to manage the information.

5.8.4c Theme three - not fit for purpose

The third theme associated with the intranet is a lack of fit for purpose or alignment with existing processes. Five out of six interviewees discussed the limitations of their current intranet provision, or surrounding systems.

The L&D Director in the local council advised their intranet had been improved but still needed work. She described poor aesthetics that reduced attention and varying standards of written communication. She felt it needed to be more like social media channels. In the pharmaceutical company, the intranet is not considered a first choice when seeking information, hence needing a newsletter to prompt staff to use it. One interviewee felt use and attention would increase if the intranet was available on any mobile phone, which would reduce the challenge of some employees not having a company mobile.

The pharmaceutical company is also impacted by having other parts of the global business on site, each of which has their own intranet and internal communications all of which overlap slightly. This creates issues in the use of language, especially with content from other countries, appearing abrupt and needing finessing by the UK IC team. This reintroduces resource and funding issues.

The pharmaceutical company is adopting Google+ and employees are encouraged to post their own information. This has led to an increase in attention and engagement but does not mitigate a shortage of resources to manage it.

5.8.5 Social media

All 14 interviewees gave some input about the use of social media. Six social media channels were used by interviewees, each with several themes. Broad themes comprise general strategy, Facebook and Messenger, Twitter, LinkedIn, YouTube and Instagram.

5.8.5a General

All 14 interviewees were supportive of using social media for internal communication. Seven commented on the strategic management of social media. Seven had some misgivings including controlling and resourcing social media and ensuring the accuracy and honesty of posts. Six commented on using social media to create internal and external engagement.

5.8.5a.1 Theme one – strategic management of social media

Seven interviewees commented on the strategic management of social media.

The agency proactively and consciously switches between different social media platforms depending on the needs of the business. They describe being aware which of their markets is active on which platform. Facebook is used to recruit chefs with LinkedIn more suitable for high level executive chefs. Twitter and LinkedIn are used to recruit clients.

In the local council, there is an acknowledgement that ICT is not fit for purpose which impacts on IC and the use of social media. There is a reluctance to use social media because of this and a generally risk averse culture. The L&D Director said that existing tools are misused and by adding social media the weaknesses in communication will be exacerbated.

The pharmaceutical company are subject to legal, regulatory and internal restriction which will slow the introduction of any new channel of IC and introduces risk. Like the local council, there is caution surrounding access and misuse.

5.8.5a.2 Theme two – issues managing social media

Seven interviewees commented on potential issues managing social media including controlling and resourcing social media platforms and ensuring the accuracy and honesty of posts.

The IC Manager at the local council reiterated concerns about control of social media and added resourcing and responding to social media. Their impression is that comments need immediate responses.

For the pharmaceutical company, initial use of social media has been positive and a longer evaluation period is planned at the end of the year. However, the restrictions pose a considerable threat especially considering that other group divisions, on the same site, will be subject to different restrictions. One example given, was someone from a global group company posting on social media that they are now working on the same project for the UK business. In their home country this may not be considered unusual but in the UK any reference to medicines is a breach of the regulations and could attract heavy fines. Hence, they are taking a slow approach based on educating employees about what is acceptable.

The chef agency has fully embraced social media, making a strategic change to place chefs at the centre. Part of this change has been introducing social media as a primary communication channel and this has already produced results. Over 75% of the agency chefs are now recruited through Facebook and the social media groups are creating a sense of belonging in staff. A new chef posted an introduction and an

invitation to coffee which was considered extraordinary. One possible challenge is posting accurate pay rates so that current and prospective chefs are not disappointed or feel misled. One chef relationship manager said, "We'll get loads of people calling us and just being disappointed that what we're posting on Facebook isn't actually true so, it's wasting their time and it's wasting our time as well".

5.8.5a.3 Theme three – using social media to create internal and external engagement

Six interviewees commented on using social media to create internal and external engagement.

The chef agency hosts a discussion group, encourages chefs to write a blog and allows certain chefs to take over the Instagram feed all to encourage engagement. Managing the group can be difficult as chefs are used to using risqué language and a balance had to be struck between allowing freedom and risking offending someone. The Managing Director feels engagement has been established when chefs put the agency as an employer on social media profiles.

Using social media, in the pharmaceutical company, has enabled them to learn what works and what does not and build confidence that social media is an effective tool. The plan is to use that to bid for additional budget in the next few years and build on that foundation.

The local council are not at a stage where they have considered using social media for internal communication and engagement.

5.8.5b Facebook and Messenger

All 14 interviewees were supportive of using Facebook and Messenger for internal communication. 10 discussed using Facebook and Messenger for quick and informal communication. Eight commented on using Facebook for internal and external promotion. Eight commented on using Facebook to source and recruit staff. Six

commented on using Facebook groups to create engagement by using and creating work-based groups.

Of the three organisations, the agency makes the most use of Facebook and Messenger as a core channel in their IC strategy. Compared with the pharmaceutical company who use it on few specific projects and the local council who rarely use it. As a result, the results for Facebook and Messenger have significantly more content from the agency.

5.8.5b.1 Theme one - quick and informal communication

Ten discussed using Facebook and Messenger for quick and informal communication. Benefits included gaining engagement by using a preferred channel, informal discussions with prospective new staff and using Facebook features to check if staff are online.

In discussion with chefs, the agency discovered that they prefer using Facebook or Messenger to communicate because it is informal and quick meaning, chefs can reply quickly and then resume their work. Internal team members will use a chatty and informal approach when speaking to prospective chefs using Facebook. They have found this approach to be highly successful in recruiting new chefs who comment that they prefer communicating with an individual rather than a brand.

One of the chef relationship managers discussed using Messenger as an alternative communication channel when checking a chef's whereabouts or keeping in touch, even when on holiday as it puts the chef in control of when they respond. The chef agency also uses the functions of Facebook and Messenger to 'track' or verify whether messages have been read or whether chefs are 'active' on social media. This is one reason why they prefer the trackability of social media to sending texts or leaving a voicemail.

The chef relationship managers at the agency have found that the versatility of using emojis in messages helps to reduce misunderstandings in other written

communication like emails. One commented, "You can chat to people and use the emojis, and you can really compare tone a lot better on social media than you can from an email.' He went on to say, 'We'll communicate with people via social media over email because sometimes people get, can get the wrong end of the stick quite easily".

5.8.5b.2 Theme two - promotion of activities (internal and external)

Eight interviewees commented on using Facebook for internal and external promotion of upcoming functions, charity events and services. The main focus is interactive activity and engagement rather than as a notice board.

The Head of Talent at the local council said important and unusual events are shared on Facebook. For example, a recent visit from a Chinese delegation. Reviewing the corporate Facebook page of the council it is populated with public information messages like school meals, learning services and COVID-19 advice.

Chefs are encouraged to post pictures of their food on the agency Facebook page, in addition to taking over the Instagram page every month. The agency also posts their own corporate messages tailored to attract new clients.

The pharmaceutical company use Facebook and Instagram to promote their 'generation next' project. This project is an educational tool and aimed at 13 to 18 year olds, teachers, and parents to encourage school children into science subjects and scientific careers.

The pharmaceutical company support charity events like multiple sclerosis awareness day where employees share posts and further publicise the event. Regulation, around the promotion of pharmaceutical products, restricts how informal and extensive any Facebook promotion can be. They are not allowed to mention the company or products.

5.8.5b.3 Theme three - recruitment of staff

Eight interviewees commented on using Facebook to source and recruit staff. The local council are yet to take advantage of social media to recruit staff and the pharmaceutical company have careers information, with vignettes of different roles rather than job advertisements, which complies with the regulations. The chef agency uses Facebook as a key recruitment tool with 78% of all new chefs coming through Facebook.

The Head of Marketing at the chef agency explained they have a dedicated marketing team working specifically on Facebook to recruit chefs. By making posts like "Tell us about your day at work", or "Show us some of your food that you've made today", they engage chefs on Facebook. The team find this can lead onto other discussions about chefs' personal lives and this builds a relationship from which to recruit chefs or an opportunity for chefs to recommend colleagues. If chefs are satisfied with their current position, it is an opportunity to build relationships for when they are out of work. Similar tactics are used to engage with existing chefs.

The ability to share opportunities is a significant benefit for the agency as chefs and family members share posts about vacancies. In one example, an individual 'tagged' her husband in the post and suggested the agency contact them, which enabled the agency to make contact via Messenger. This makes it easier for chefs compared to older processes involving several phone calls and multiple days of calling.

The Managing Director is keen to expand their use of Facebook and social media for recruitment due to the success of the platform in helping to meet targets.

5.8.5b.4 Theme four - to build and engage virtual groups

Six interviewees use Facebook groups to create belonging and engagement. All referred to groups set up by the organisation to promote opportunities and public groups like the Freelance and relief chef group, Chef social, Chef jobs UK and Europe (freelance). All the data in this theme comes from the chef agency and

although that presents a one-sided view, it was included because of the importance of the potential audience in Facebook groups. Four times more people use groups in 2019 (400 million) than in 2017 (100 million) (Rodriguez, 2020).

The agency has their own private group on Facebook where chefs share posts about their food and cooking tips, which creates belonging and engagement. The agency finds this encourages chefs to recommend the agency on Facebook and on other platforms. The agency marketing team use Facebook groups to recruit chefs and clients. One said, "We monitor a lot of the chef groups, to see if anybody has posts on there looking for work or clients with vacancies, so it's more like a research tool and a recruiting tool."

The Head of Marketing said, "When the need for chefs is high we spend more time trawling the chef groups to recruit chefs but when the need drops off we focus on client groups or Twitter to recruit more clients" This flexible use of social media to serve the needs of the company seems to serve the agency well.

The following section explores the use of Twitter.

5.8.5c Twitter

12 of the 14 interviewees commented on the use of Twitter. All 12 discussed using Twitter for external stakeholder communication, eight used Twitter for direct sales engagement and three highlighted potential issues using Twitter.

5.8.5c.1 Theme one - communicating with external stakeholders

All 12 discussed the use of Twitter for communicating with external stakeholders. For all 12 the focus was on one-way communication providing a noticeboard of current news or events.

The pharmaceutical company have only been using Twitter for two years within corporate affairs. It covers a variety of news about the corporate group rather than the UK site.

The Twitter feed from a local council replicated their Facebook feed and appeared to be being used as a one-way noticeboard without any interaction. The Head of Talent said, "if there's an issue it goes on Facebook and Twitter".

In the chef agency Twitter carries news stories, or events rather than private messages.

For all three cases the use of Twitter is small compared with Facebook.

5.8.5c.2 Theme two - using Twitter for direct sales engagement with clients

All interviewees from the chef agency commented on using Twitter for direct sales engagement with clients. They described using Twitter to inform clients and higher-level chefs, who operate on multiple sites, what the agency and their chefs are capable of and to highlight events that the agency may be putting on.

The agency has sourced independent research to establish clients are more likely to be using Twitter than chefs. At the time of the interviews, the agency had more clients than chefs which prompted the agency to prioritise Facebook and use Twitter to post news when time permitted.

5.8.5c.3 Theme three - potential issues using Twitter

The three interviewees from the pharmaceutical company highlighted potential issues arising from changing and retweeting messages.

The heavy regulation and powerful compliance team necessitate that the strategy for Twitter is a soft launch and slow build up.

5.8.5d LinkedIn

10 of the 14 interviewees discussed the use of LinkedIn. For seven interviewees the focus was on recruitment and for five it was about external promotion.

5.8.5d.1 Theme one – using LinkedIn for recruitment

Seven interviewees use LinkedIn for recruitment.

The chef agency switches to LinkedIn when they need to recruit higher level chefs or executive head chefs. They understand that more senior chefs like executive head chefs will promote themselves and look for work on LinkedIn because they are managers of the brigade.

The Head of Marketing explained that high level chefs will undertake permanent careers for longer periods of time rather than assignments and use LinkedIn more. She said, "Temporary chefs have little appetite to build a profile and impress potential employers".

The pharmaceutical company have a LinkedIn channel that is populated and managed by HR.

5.8.5d.2 Theme two – using LinkedIn for external promotion

Five interviewees use LinkedIn for external promotion.

The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company is planning to promote the company as a good employer and conduct all CR (Corporate Responsibility) activity through LinkedIn. She feels that the regulation and legislation has discouraged this plan.

The chef agency takes a more structured and proactive approach by training employees to use LinkedIn. They have taken advice and have been told to post just text, rather than video or pictures and this has generated significant leads.

5.8.5e Instagram

Seven interviewees use Instagram. Four use Instagram to increase engagement from external stakeholders, and three use it for Corporate Social Responsibility.

5.8.5e.1 Theme one – using Instagram to increase engagement

Four interviewees spoke of using Instagram to increase engagement, mainly from external stakeholders.

Instagram is used by the chef agency to promote chefs cooking. Once a month they allow certain chefs to control the feed, posting pictures of their dishes and sometimes, sharing their day-to-day lives which has included surfing in Cornwall or days out. The agency has found that chefs seem to engage well with 'Take over Tuesday' enjoying the imagery that helps create attention. They have much less interaction on Instagram compared to Facebook and rarely recruit chefs or clients directly from Instagram posts.

The pharmaceutical company is looking to launch a broader remit Instagram page that includes more general information, not just career information. There is a need for training to make sure that posts meet the requirements of the regulatory and legislative conditions placed on their communication.

5.8.5e.2 Theme two – using Instagram for Corporate Social Responsibility

Three interviewees use Instagram for promoting CSR and engaging children to promote science based further education courses.

The CSR and IC officer for a large pharmaceutical company described a project encouraging 13 to 18-year-old people to engage with further education in the sciences and a scientific career. Their move to Instagram was due to a high proportion of young people using the platform. A recent campaign engaged with 150 thousand people that shared, commented, or liked the content. This Instagram campaign goes alongside events in local schools and colleges and satisfies the obligations of the CR function.

5.8.5f YouTube

Five of the interviewees use YouTube however, for those that do it is not perceived as a key social media tool.

The Head of Talent at a local council explained that they have a YouTube channel that is populated with video content directed towards charity events or public awareness like refuse collection rules and charity fun runs. She said interest at a senior level is low.

The IC Manager at a pharmaceutical company said they have a YouTube channel that is dormant because there is a fear of producing uncompliant content. The global organisation has a separate channel, but content cannot be taken without approval.

The IC Administrator at a pharmaceutical company said they used YouTube last year for a charity campaign. There are no brands mentioned in the video which satisfies the needs of the regulator.

6.1 Chapter six – phase one discussion

6.2 Introduction

The purpose of this phase of the study is to establish a definition of corporate and work role authenticity and openness to different channels of internal communication, namely, email, face-to-face, intranet and social media, grounded within the context of a stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

This chapter contains discussion to help answer the research questions:

How do we define work role and corporate authenticity within the context of modern-day organisations?

How do we define openness to internal communication within the context of modern-day organisations?

Phase one of this study seeks to create definitions of corporate and work role authenticity based on the literature relating to authenticity (Bialystok, 2014; Guignon, 2008), identity and social identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989) and state authenticity (Lenton et al., 2013; Lenton, Slabu and Sedikides, 2016; Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). Openness to channels of internal communication relies on the literature regarding communication theory (McQuail, 2000) and theories of attention (Graf and Aday, 2008; McQuail and Windahl, 1993). The relationship between work role and corporate authenticity and openness to different channels of internal communication is grounded within the context of a stakeholder approach. In reviewing group-based models of audience segmentation, several existing models have been rejected because they are organised by organisational imperatives, like hierarchy or closeness to organisational challenges (Kalla, 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021). This study is broadly based on the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007), with the distinction that this research focuses on stakeholder groups based on individual preferences and how they impact on corporate communication by influencing openness to internal communication channels.

Phase one fieldwork has identified several themes within corporate authenticity like belonging and identifying with a bigger entity, mutual loyalty and respect that

concurred with identity and social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989). The findings suggest that work role authenticity focuses more on the job, that is, doing a good job, wanting to improve, working unsociable hours and taking pride and having passion for one's job. These findings are congruent with state authenticity and hence based on work role tasks. The diversity of work role tasks present a less cohesive concept. The findings suggest that openness to different channels of internal communication varies depending on the channel and context, in which it is used, but is broadly in line with communication theory (McQuail, 2000) and theories of attention (Graf and Aday, 2008; McQuail and Windahl, 1993). These themes will be discussed further in this chapter.

Before discussing the themes resulting from phase one fieldwork, it is important to review some of the overarching findings contained within this research. These are, first, authenticity is scaled between completely authentic and completely inauthentic, second, our identity and authenticity are informed by our contexts, third, the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007) could be improved by an additional individual layer and lastly, openness to varied internal communication channels is influenced by attention and selective attention.

6.3 Overarching findings

6.3.1 Authenticity is scaled between completely authentic and completely inauthentic

This research runs counter to the widely expressed view that one is either authentic or inauthentic. The following section balances theory with interviewee insight to provide a pathway that facilitates differentiating levels of authenticity. This is important when assessing the impact of CA and WRA on openness to internal communication.

Yacobi (2012), proposes authenticity as an absolute without partial values and with a lack of definable points which makes authenticity impossible to measure. Bialystok (2014) highlights the difficulty with this style of definition, as any definition should be able to adequately address the negative side of self, i.e. inauthenticity. Rousseau, recounted by Guignon (2008, p. 278), argues, every individual has "a distinctive potential for development built into his or her nature from birth, a "calling" or "fate" that he or she ought to realise", indicating a transition, over time, towards a more authentic state. This transition, however long, signposts authenticity as a continuum or a scale with start and end points.

Warren Bennis describes authenticity as "close to the source" (2013, p. 3) which implies scale towards an authentic entity. Varga and Guignon (2016) and Bialystok (2014) all point to the authentic self as a work in progress, a life-long project, and not a, fixed from birth, and enduring identity. A logical extension of this focuses on the convergence, or lack of, at a particular point in time by measuring one's behaviour, or progress, towards that goal, with the goal itself.

In this study, interviewees described varying states of authenticity from people who were deemed to be mostly inauthentic, to people who were generally seen to be authentic but with some areas where there was some doubt. Interviewees did not acknowledge the presence of anyone they would regard to be completely authentic. If we take Yacobi's (2012) view of authenticity, it makes any discussion rather one sided and without depth as without complete authenticity there is only inauthenticity.

Interviewees described different indications of authenticity from making people feel valued, to congruence between behaviour and the message when presenting, to doing what one said they would do. Despite the complexities of finding a universal scaled measure of authenticity, that would satisfy the broad application of authenticity found in this research, the benefits of such a measure are wide ranging.

Scaled measurements of authenticity are useful when one requires to make comparative statements between the different stages of developing or growing into one's identity. If we take the position of social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989), as presented in this research, one will have multiple identities, depending on the group or context, which prompts consideration of the usefulness of measuring the extent to which one is an authentic representation of each.

6.3.2 Our identity and authenticity are informed by our contexts

The findings of this research are broadly in line with social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989) as adopting a 'context' or a group, when discussing authenticity, gave rise to more descriptive accounts of authenticity and it paves the way for multiple authenticities like corporate and work role authenticity. This is confirmed by Bialystok (2014) who argues that the act of defining autonomy is equally as much about searching for the conditions, or context, of authenticity as it is autonomy. In practical terms, interviewees found envisioning and articulating authenticity easier when they understood the context, for example, authentic as a (insert job title).

Overarching definitions of authenticity fall into several themes, described as 'ordinary' definitions, like historical authenticity (Bialystok, 2014), original authenticity or being faithful to the original (Guignon, 2008) and being honest and true to oneself, which is more reflective of leadership authenticity (Gardner et al., 2011).

Garnett (2013, p. 22) uses autonomy theory to present the idea of more than one identity in individuals, proposing that we have some elements within that are "deeply expressive" of who we are and other elements that are less indicative of who we are. Stets and Burke (2000) support this view proposing that identity comprises characteristics hewn from membership of multiple social groups. Taylor (1991) highlights virtue ethics, in particular horizons of significance, that allow for self-fulfilment and an authentic contribution to society. In this research, two of these 'social' groups are engaged, work role and corporate authenticity and the relative level of authenticity towards each is predicted to have an impact on openness to internal communication.

In phase one, interviewees focused on these overarching themes. They used words like honest, truthful and being true to oneself. They stated that although they had intuitive feelings about authenticity, they found describing it, in any level of detail difficult. One approach to increase the level of detail and breadth was to ask them to give practical examples of authentic and inauthentic behaviour. When replying they reverted to these overarching themes and reversed their description of authenticity to demonstrate inauthenticity. Another approach, which was adopted in future interviews, was to give them a brief description of work role authenticity and corporate authenticity which gave them a practical context. For example, someone who feels authentic being a (insert job role) or someone who feels authentic as an employee of (insert case organisation). After the first two interviews, it became clear that this contextual approach was beneficial in helping participants envision and articulate examples of colleagues' behaviour much more clearly and generated a much richer vein of information about authenticity, especially work role and corporate authenticity.

This research offers evidence that indicates the presence of multiple identities within individuals who feel authentic towards those identities at varying levels. For example, an individual could be a parent, a researcher and a musician and feel different levels of authenticity within each identity. By combining the first assumption, differentiating levels of authenticity, with this assumption, how

context informs our identity and authenticity, we acknowledge the complexity of the relationship between identity and authenticity.

6.3.3 The stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007) could be improved by an additional individual layer

These findings broadly support the stakeholder approach in internal communications (Welch and Jackson, 2007) as interviewees described utilising all four groupings of internal communication, namely internal line management, internal team peer, internal project peer and internal corporate communication. One area which was not in agreement with Welch and Jackson (2007) was the extent to which communication was described by the interviewees as one-way. Cases were making greater efforts to create two-way channels especially where relationships had been damaged by previous senior managers. Welch and Jackson (2007) identify a gap in the literature about the types of communication media used and whether different types of media are suitable for meeting the needs of differing employee, or stakeholder, groups. Indeed, as the use of technological communication tools increases, in the discipline, the opportunity for implementing a wider range of tools is increased. This opens up the discipline to more complex audience segmentation and enhanced granular measurement of the effectiveness of internal communications. In this research, the stakeholder groups are corporate and work role authenticity but the emphasis, for selection into these groups, is placed on individual preferences rather than hierarchical groups or organisational imperatives.

Welch and Jackson (2007) account for top-down communication from senior leaders that create a sense of belonging within employees. Grunig (1992) highlights the need for two-way communication in order to increase the value of internal communications and to improve the quality of relationships with stakeholders. Interviewees gave multiple examples of where the organisation was proactively encouraging two-way communication with CEOs holding meetings with small numbers of employees and board members going out of their way to appear more

approachable. The literature focuses on groups honed from organisational hierarchy or association with or interest in organisational issues (Kalla, 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021). Welch and Jackson (2007) support the view that by identifying stakeholder groups that share values and beliefs the possibility of influencing larger numbers of employees increases. Social identity theory affords one a mechanism by which this identification can be articulated but still allows employees freedom to define their own identities with respect to social groups. By identifying with those social groups, they protect and enhance their self-identity (Lenton et al., 2013). If the discipline wishes to move towards more transparency (D'aprix, 2017) and flexibility (St.Onge, 2017) social groups like work role and corporate authenticity could be a more effective way to improve motivation and attention to communication.

Interviewees described communicating to the broad groups highlighted in the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007). For all cases they described communicating in a reactive way rather than it being a planned activity which is possibly due to the absence of a clear and detailed internal communications strategy. The L&D Director, in the local council, said they have no active segmentation of their audience and communicate based on who needs to know or hierarchical levels. The pharmaceutical company have a broad strategy of internal communications that is redesigned and re-started as IC Managers' move to new challenges. The chef agency has deliberately placed chefs at the centre of their communication strategy which more naturally forms a group based on work role authenticity as their general focus is the job. In all cases, the introduction of the stakeholder approach, with appropriate measurement, would compensate for the lack of a clear strategy.

This research offers tentative evidence for the need to reflect individual preferences, of social identity, and to use these social groups as stakeholders within a stakeholder model of internal communication. For example, groups based on work role and corporate authenticity.

6.3.4 Openness to varied internal communication channels is influenced by attention and selective attention

These findings are in harmony with McQuail's (2000) position that gaining attention is critical in creating effective internal communication and Graf and Aday (2008) who support selective attention based on individual attitudes and preferences. Interviewees described some groups of employees as preferring specific channels of communication and others were more willing to disseminate and take responsibility for information but only if they agreed with the content. The concept of openness to communication channels focuses on how motivated individuals are to attend to different channels.

McQuail highlights that the primary aim of mass media is to catch and hold the attention of the receiver: "The fact of attention often matters more than the quality of attention" (McQuail, 2000, p. 55). His third model of mass communication, the publicity, or display-attention, model is the most applicable to this study. The model only works in the present, paramount is what you are attending to at that point in time and the audience can only attend to one thing at a time. When proposing a multi-model approach for communication campaigns, McQuail (2000) assumes multiple sources and multiple channels to ensure the message reaches all of the audience and highlights filters that aid or reduce the flow of messages. One of these filters is attention. Graf and Aday (2008) propose that selective attention could impact on how successful corporate messages are at getting through. For example, people with strong views spend more time gathering information supportive of their view than they spend gathering counter information. People with less strong views will collect a range of data and make a decision based on attitudes and feelings.

Interviewees described several situations that supported the position outlined above. Interviewees from the local council and the pharmaceutical company described where email was overused, especially copying people in for information, unless they were directly involved, general 'all employees' emails and replying with a thank you. The interviewees argued this reduced the attention that employees paid to emails. In the chef agency, they engaged with the chefs and actively moved

to using text and messenger. Chefs said they found it easier to reply to a text or message, especially when working, whereas a phone call or an email took longer and garnered less attention. For clients of the chef agency, Twitter was used and because it was their preferred channel it was more likely to gain their attention. In the pharmaceutical company, the modal communication channel was email but because of overuse they began collating emails and combining the messages in a newsletter or email links to information contained on the intranet. They used Instagram for communication to schools and children in education programmes. This indicates the cases used varied channels depending on group norms and with more vigorous measurement could indicate an improvement in attention.

This research offers evidence that suggests there is an opportunity to manage attention by utilising group characteristics and selecting appropriate communication channels. The notion of groups based on individual preferences could be considered, like work role and corporate authenticity groups, as could how different groups select which information to attend to.

6.4 Discussion of main concepts of corporate and work role authenticity

The following sections contain discussion to help answer the research questions described previously. The first section focuses on the concept of corporate authenticity and the second section focuses on the concept of work role authenticity. Following these two sections channels of internal communication will be discussed.

6.4.1 Corporate authenticity

Nine themes were identified from the data collected from phase one fieldwork relating to the definition of the concept of corporate authenticity. These nine themes factor into three general topics as presented pictorially below. These three topics are discussed more comprehensively below.
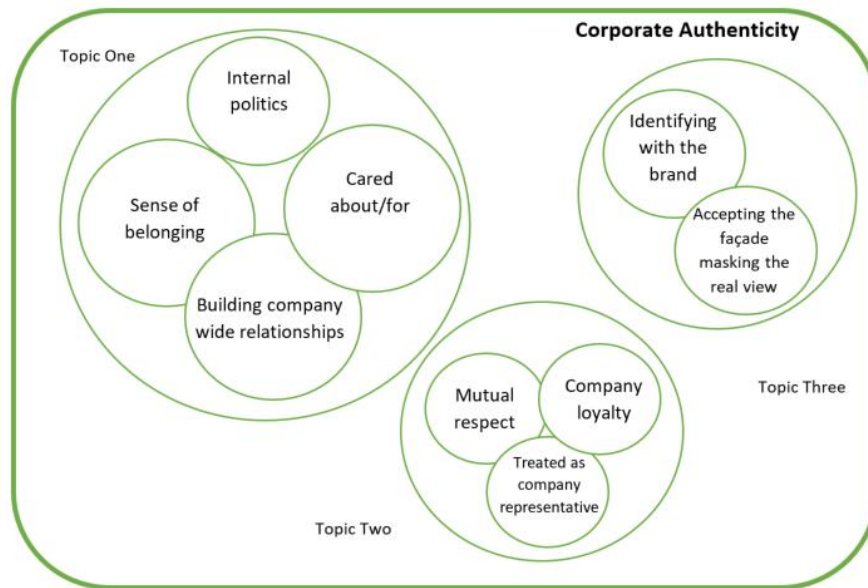
Figure 7: Pictorial Representation of Corporate Authenticity

6.4.1a Topic one – CA, group belonging, feeling cared for, building company wide relationships and internal politics

One of the key outcomes that Welch and Jackson (2007) propose in the application of stakeholder theory to internal communication is the sense of belonging that is created when good communication processes are in place, a group like corporate authenticity. This, in part, helps to create a link between corporate authenticity and internal communication, in that a sense of belonging is created by building good relationships and making employees feel cared for and reinforced by continued communication by company or team leaders.

Four of the themes identified during phase one fieldwork of this study can be integrated under a single topic for the purpose of this discussion. These themes are having a sense of belonging and care, building relationships across the company, being cared for/about and Internal politics. All four relate to relationships with people across the company, which is synonymous with corporate authenticity and are enhanced by effective internal communication. This differs from work role authenticity as work role authentic employees will have a much smaller circle of relations.

Guignon (2008), argues, when discussing Heidegger's theories of Dasein, the individual can consciously act as a clearing, to connect with others in a way that is "vivid, focused, steady and intense" (2008, p. 283), prompting responsibility or ownership of the act and therefore being considered authentic. This act of connecting with others concurs with social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) in that key groups or teams in the organisation, comprise a social group and effective group leaders encourage engagement. Individuals authentically identifying with the CA group are much more likely to be spread across a wider section of the organisation than individuals identifying as work role authentic. The notion of internal politics can be linked to 'in-group' and 'out-group' behaviour as one internal group sees themselves as more critical to company success than other groups (Stets and Burke, 2000). Internal politics can also be associated with the level of honesty leaders project when communicating and this can have a similar impact on feelings of belonging. Interviewees highlighted several reasons why they felt they belonged ranging from having a good induction to feeling that leaders were being honest. When leaders were honest, even when there were challenging market conditions, employees tended to feel a greater sense of belonging and view the leader as more authentic.

Lenton et al. (2013) proposes that individuals define their own identities, with respect to social groups, and that by identifying with those social groups they protect and enhance their self-identity. This chimes with views of authenticity, specifically virtue conception, in which Guignon (2008) holds the view that authenticity is knowing where one stands, forthright and open and consistent in one's expression of one's values. Stets and Burke (2000) describe the self as reflexive, in that it can take itself as an entity and apply a category or name itself, on the basis of other social categories or classifications. In the instance of this research and particularly corporate authenticity the group identity chosen would relate to feeling one belongs at the case in question. Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggest that care should be taken as group characteristics assigned to the individual can develop into inaccurate stereotypes. For internal communicators, this presents challenges in both choosing an appropriate channel and ensuring that it

encompasses all relevant employees. Stets and Burke (2000) argue that group perception can be categorised into three types. Cognitive, in which stereotyping of group members increases one's identification with the group and as prototypical of the group. Attitudinal, where individuals make positive evaluations of their own group, regardless of their feelings about other members of the group. Behavioural, where one exhibits behaviour in line with the group norm to distinguish themselves from the out-group and ingratiate themselves with the in-group. Whichever of the three groups is in operation, it will chime with creating a sense of belonging and will be enhanced by corporate communication outlined in the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

Cornelissen (2017) describes a sense of being part of a group or a motivation for belongingness as typifying what it means to belong. Welch and Jackson (2007) describe several dimensions of communication that will affect a sense of belonging. One is internal corporate communication, which is aimed at all employees and is critical in developing effective engagement. This typifies elements of corporate authenticity, namely enhancing cohesion by engaging a group of people using clear and consistent internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Welch and Jackson define it as, "communication between an organisation's strategic IC Managers and its internal stakeholders, designed to promote commitment to the organisation, a sense of belonging to it, awareness of its changing environment and understanding of its evolving aims" (2007, p. 186). Other dimensions of internal communication, internal team peer and project peer communication are more likely to resonate with work role authenticity.

Interviewees described attempts senior managers were making to connect across the organisations. These ranged from official engagement events, in the local council, where a cross section of employees from across the organisation met with the CEO to listen to a presentation and take an opportunity to ask questions. The pharmaceutical company use Google+ to create engagement. They have created content especially, to make the senior leadership team more approachable and develop engagement. Part of the reason for this was to undo damage caused to the

board's reputation by a previous CEO. The local council use 'new starter' inductions to start employees with a feeling of belonging to a bigger entity but, although they have good intentions, there is no monitoring of the effectiveness of this approach. In general, the more established organisations and those with a more hierarchical structure struggle to create an environment where cross silo communication, and therefore relationship building is possible. The introduction of more collaborative communication processes like those afforded by social media may help to create more cross silo networking. This will increase feelings of a more cohesive social group which will, in turn, develop a stronger individual identity with other employees in the organisation.

The chef agency has a much flatter structure and fewer employees. Within the agency itself there are around 20 employees who service up to 300 chefs. This allows for the chefs to network with most agency employees due to the small number. The agency has formulated an elite chef brigade that connects over 100 of the chefs based on the extent to which they demonstrate organisational values. The agency finds that this improves the retention and commitment of those chefs. In addition, the agency arranges conferences and social events to allow for chef networking. The agency is based in the north of England, but the chefs and venues are all over the UK. These conferences allow agency staff to meet chefs, face-to-face which supports ongoing communication and networking and contributes to the maintenance of a social group.

One aspect of being connected with a large group of people is the possibility of internal politics either enhancing or detracting from the cohesiveness of the social group. Some interviewees indicated that paying attention to and managing internal politics can pay dividends in maintaining the social group, especially when influenced by peripheral entities. The agency described situations where chefs were required not to 'ruffle feathers', even if clients were being unreasonable and to create a good impression when dealing with clients. This need to reflect well on the agency is rewarded financially and by possible inclusion into the Elite Brigade, thus increasing authentic membership of a social group. In the pharmaceutical company, honest and blunt presentations from the CEO and senior leaders, whilst appearing

to lack political sensitivity, serve to meld the social group into a more cohesive entity. In the local council, duplicitous behaviour from middle managers, when cascading messages from the senior leadership team, is seen as detracting from the cohesiveness of the group. From the examples given by the interviewees, it seems evident that internal politics can be beneficial in maintaining the group but if managed badly can challenge the cohesiveness of the group.

This research suggests there is an opportunity to utilise corporate authenticity in the formation and management of cohesive social groups by linking individual identity with group identity. This link has significant connection with all channels of internal communication investigated in this research which will be discussed further in the phase two discussion. It should be noted that this research is limited in the scope of cases, which prompts the need for care when assigning generalisation.

6.4.1b Topic two – CA, company loyalty, mutual respect and wanting to be trusted as a representative of the company

The findings of phase one fieldwork broadly concur with social identity theory especially the contributions individuals make to the group by integrating efforts towards a common goal (Stets and Burke, 2000). This joining of forces for the common good is representative of corporate authenticity especially as employees show loyalty and respect for the goals of the organisation and each other. Interviewees described retention as one measure of loyalty and the impact that employees can have when extolling the virtues of the organisation to people inside and outside. When leaders demonstrate mutual respect by ethical and symmetrical communication of changes (Grunig, 1992), incorporating employee focused benefits and clear communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007), the sense of commitment and corporate authenticity is enhanced.

Three of the themes identified during phase one of this study can be integrated under a single theme for the purpose of this discussion. These themes are company loyalty, being treated as a representative of the company and having mutual respect. All three relate to a proactive relationship with the company and are

indicative of corporate authenticity. This theme was not as strongly represented by the results in phase one but is still worthy of inclusion because loyalty, respect and the desire to be representing an organisation could be considered a step beyond identification and subsequent corporate authenticity that employers are likely to wish to encourage.

Stets and Burke (2000) describe attitudinal group categories as having an emphasis on group evaluation, where people will make positive evaluations of any group of which they are a member. In this case the group would be regarded as the organisation and even when attachment to other individuals in the group is much lower (Hogg and Hardie, 1991), group evaluations remain high. Commitment to the group is higher, when one has higher in-group identification, leading to less desire to leave the group (Stets and Burke, 2000) and more willingness to represent the group in a positive light. The positive evaluation of the group is directly impacted by corporate communication which further develops a sense of belonging and commitment (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

Meyer and Allen (1997, cited in Welch and Jackson, 2007) identify three types of organisational commitment or loyalty which can be impacted by internal communication: affective, where employees have an emotional link to the organisation and remain with the organisation because they want to be there, continuance, where employees remain because the cost of leaving is too high, i.e. they need to be there and normative commitment, where employees feel a sense of obligation to the organisation. Welch and Jackson (2007), summarise this as a "type or degree" (p. 189) of loyalty to the organisation and argue that well-formulated internal communication can help to enhance these characteristics of organisational commitment and loyalty.

In this theme belonging appears to go further to a point where employees are willing to vouch for or represent the organisation either formally, in a sales or business development capacity or informally, which is more interesting for this research. Informal representation could be talking socially about the company, talking to other divisions or sites about your division or even talking to less engaged employees about the positive aspects of the organisation.

The need for individuals to want to balance authentic aspects of the individual and authentic connection with society, in this research the case or organisation, is highlighted in this topic. Taylor (1991) proposes "horizons of significance" which are projects or values that go beyond the self to deliver for society but also retain some value for self-fulfilment and actualisation. He proposes that they can be different for every individual but must always have this connection between "individual fulfilment and something of significance in the world". This balance of delivering for society and self-actualisation reflect the two-way nature of relationships with the organisation which, with effective internal communication, leaders can enhance (Welch and Jackson, 2007). In the same way corporate authentic individuals see the organisation as providing something of significance, so work role individuals, see developments in their work role equally as significant.

The key theme, highlighted by seven interviewees, was a two-way relationship between employees and the organisation. There was an essence of give and take where employees were happy to put in extra effort or assume additional responsibilities in return for honesty and support from the organisation. One of the new chef relationship managers explained how vital the chefs are as a representative of the agency, she said, "Clients are spread throughout the UK and we don't have the resources to visit each in person. The "face" of the agency is often the chef working on a project so we have to make sure our chefs can build a relationship with the client and act as a go-between, feeding back information, about the client's business, to the agency". Interviewees respected honest and frank communication, regardless of how positive or negative the content was. The Managing Director of the chef agency explained, "Our chef retention is one of the best in the industry. We have chefs who have worked with us for over 30 years. We think it's because we're honest with them and we treat them like one of the team". In the pharmaceutical company, the new general manager has already increased engagement by being honest about market challenges. This has prompted more willingness for employees to act as a representative. For example, the Corporate Social Responsibility officer made extra efforts to use Instagram to engage with

school children outside of the organisation to increase interest in STEM subjects when she could have sent an information package to the school.

Engagement with and willingness to represent the organisation can be reduced if engagement is not supported by leaders who practice effective internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). In the local council redundancies and reorganisation have happened for the past five years and as a result, staff are suspicious of any request for consultation and unwilling to put themselves out for the council. This has been accompanied by higher than usual turnover.

This study appears to support the argument for maintaining high corporate authenticity in organisations by managing the depth and level of engagement by building mutual respect and loyalty. By doing so the organisation secures employees who are willing to support and represent the organisation and in return trust is built and loyalty maintained.

6.4.1c Topic three – CA, identifying with the brand and accepting the negative aspects of the brand

According to Ian Grime (DeSanto and Moss, 2011) the past two decades have hosted a move from product branding to corporate branding. He gives a definition of corporate branding as involving features of the organisation that distinguish it from competitors. Grime writes about the need for employees to understand and epitomise the corporate brand, their behaviour should be in line with corporate imperatives and they should demonstrate they have bought into the brand. He says corporate leaders should do the same but also consistently communicate the values of the organisation to a range of stakeholders including shareholders, industry experts and regulators and employees (DeSanto and Moss, 2011). This call to arms from leaders links both to authenticity, especially regarding virtue ethics and prioritising ethical obligations or in this case obligations to the organisation (Taylor, 1991) and to internal communication theory, especially internal corporate communication as a means of developing engaged employees and a sense of

belonging through consistent and clear communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Internal corporate communication is said to be important as it focuses attention on all employees and addresses a vacuum left by other research into the area. Welch and Jackson (2007) go on to say that by using clear and consistent messages, it helps to generate and maintain employee engagement, and makes a contributing link between internal communication managers and developing engaged employees.

Grime makes a distinction between corporate branding and corporate identity. He says, "corporate identity is more about how a company brand becomes known through the people and, in particular, the people internal to the organisation" (DeSanto and Moss, 2011, p. 147). This topic captures elements of both brand and identity within it. Grime goes on to say that a well communicated and thought-out corporate identity can bring with it a deeper and stronger emotional tie to the organisation. This links to Welch and Jackson (2007) who identify three types of organisational commitment or loyalty which can be impacted by internal communication, one of which is affective, where employees have an emotional link to the organisation and remain with the organisation because they want to be there.

These findings partially agree with Welch and Jackson (2007) in that corporate communication can be used to create a sense of belonging to the brand or overall ethos of the organisation. However, Welch and Jackson (2007) propose the utilisation of one-way communication which is easier to manage in the context of larger organisations. The findings of this research, in small and bigger organisations, indicates that a two-way process, however slight, helps employees feel more connected to the brand.

Grunig (1992) highlights the need for two-way, preferably symmetrical, communication to improve the quality of relationships with stakeholders and enhance a feeling of belonging. He goes on to argue if stakeholder needs are not acknowledged, and integrated within the strategy, stakeholders will either pressure the organisation to change or add cost and risk to policies and decisions by actively or passively opposing the strategy or goal. Grime also makes the point that

soliciting feedback from external stakeholders gives leaders an opportunity to see if the internal vision is being replicated from an external perspective (DeSanto and Moss, 2011). For many larger organisations this could be extrapolated to other internal departments.

This theme partially reflects the view Grime (DeSanto and Moss, 2011) discusses with respect to the external view of the brand and the internal view which also encompasses corporate identity. In addition, the measures stakeholders take when they feel their need are not being acknowledged. They indicate a desire for the organisation to change whilst they continue to identify with the brand. Thus, this theme contains the elements of identifying with the brand whilst also acknowledging that there will be some aspects of the brand that stakeholders do not like, but to an extent, they will accept them providing the organisation acknowledges their concerns.

Interviewees described three perspectives to identifying with the brand, making the brand more accessible to support employee's identification with it, an attempt to create a shared identity with the brand and for some, a genuine attachment to the brand. The chef agency was the only organisation making conscious efforts to help employees identify with the brand. The Managing Director explained that recent feedback about the brand being corporate, serious and at the higher end of the price range, belied a genuine desire to be seen to care for chefs. Interviewees noted that chefs are placed at the centre of the brand and are responsible for much of the informal marketing of the agency. Chefs are encouraged to 'sell' the agency to clients and gather market information about the client's business which concurs with Grunig (1992). The agency allows chefs to take over their social media all of which promotes a sense of identification with the brand. The local council interviewees describe how this sense of belonging needs constant effort to maintain. They explain that successive forced reorganisations and redundancies have reduced feelings of belonging and, as a result, have increased turnover. This is where this research disagrees with Welch and Jackson (2007) as interviewees felt that honest and inclusive communication would have helped to maintain a sense of belonging. One interviewee, from the pharmaceutical company, described

colleagues in another organisation, who were offered free meals and snacks to increase belonging but also extend the length of the day. This resonates with Welch and Jackson (2007) who warn against the possibility of manipulation where identification with the brand is so strong.

The next section discusses the results from phase one fieldwork and relevant literature that applies to work role authenticity.

6.4.2 Work role authenticity

Seven themes were identified from the data collected from phase one fieldwork relating to the definition of the concept of work role authenticity. These seven themes factor into three general topics. However, two of the themes attracted less data but were considered to have value given the nature of the cases and the jobs contained therein, represented by the dashed line surrounding them. For example, in the chef agency and local council interviewees described colleagues who were keen and committed to do their job but once their day had finished their relationship with the job and the organisation was over. All three cases noted some necessity to work unsociable hours, but this was considered to be part and parcel of the job rather than something that increased or decreased authentic connection with the job. These two themes are marked with a broken outline and will be discussed further at the end of this section.
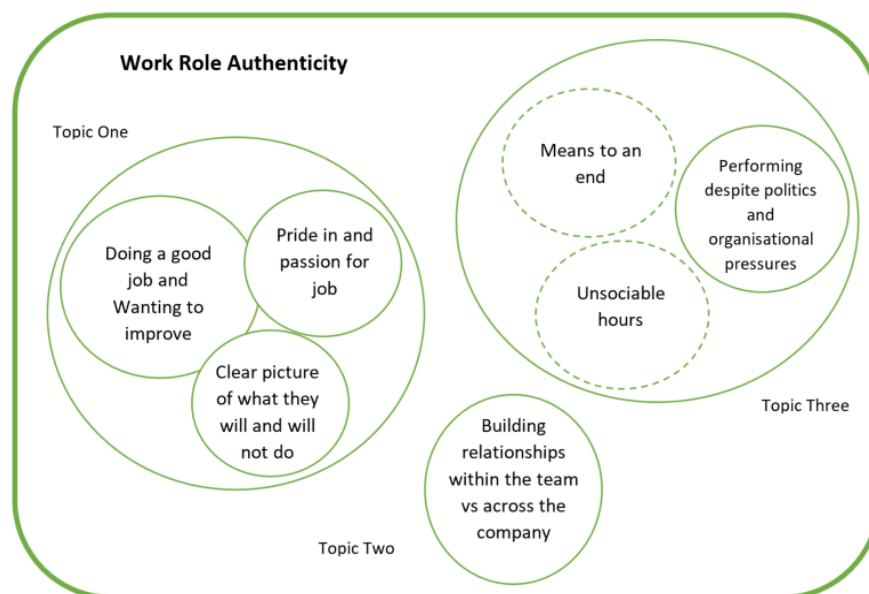
Figure 8: Pictorial Representation of Work Role Authenticity

6.4.2a Topic one – WRA, doing a good job, taking pride, wanting to improve and having a clear picture of one's work role.

One of the key links between work role authenticity and internal communication comes through state authenticity. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) note that state authenticity creates an environment where one gravitates towards situations one

identifies with and towards other people identifying with similar settings. In the workplace, this creates a group of people all connected by way of their job role or even job tasks and forms a stakeholder group for internal communication. The stakeholder approach makes provision for team managers, general line management and projects teams, and team peers to develop effective internal communication that leads to enhanced understanding, commitment and belonging to this work role group (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

Three of the themes identified during phase one fieldwork of this study can be integrated under a single topic for the purpose of this discussion. These themes are taking pride and having passion, doing a good job and wanting to improve and having a clear picture of what one will and will not do. All three relate to having a focus on a specific job group and striving to be the best which is enhanced by effective internal communication. This topic creates differentiation from corporate authenticity with a clear focus on work role features.

Schmader and Sedikides (2018) maintain that with state authenticity "people strive to be themselves" (2018, p. 228) and gravitate towards situations, that they identify with, and shy away from environments and situations they feel are alien to them. Thus, high work role authenticity individuals are likely to gravitate towards aspects of their job or experiences similar to their job rather than to corporate matters. This not only strikes a chord with the group orientation that forms work role authenticity but also the tendency to have a clear picture of what they will and will not do.

The concept of state authenticity appears to give a workable conceptualisation of multiple authenticities within the workplace, with the value of authenticity decided by the individual, based on how congruent the current situation or episode is with that individual's values of self (Fridhandler, 1986). For example, work role authentic groups. The notion of taking pride and getting better at their job relates to individuals ingratiating themselves with the group by getting better at what they do and increasing their value to the group (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Ashforth and Mael (1989) make the point that an individual's identity can be derived from work groups, for example, department, age group cohort, lunch group or fast track

group, as well as the organisation. Ethier and Deaux (1994) argue that individuals will ingratiate themselves to the group by demonstrating appropriate behaviours and by expressing passion and a willingness to improve these behaviours to make themselves more indispensable. This links with both doing a good job and having a willingness to improve.

Interviewees described employees having a passion for releasing products or services that make a difference to end users like producing new drugs in the pharmaceutical company or delivering services for the homeless in the local council. This chimes with Taylor's (1991) views of horizons of significance, that allow for self-fulfilment and an authentic contribution to society. The L&D Director of a local council said, "I don't [have pride in the organisation] and I don't need it. And I'm not proud of it, and I don't care if it's here. It exists and while I am employed and paid to do a job, I will do it to the absolute best of my ability but pride [in the organisation] doesn't matter to me". For her, pride in her job supersedes pride in her organisation which chimes with Schmader and Sedikides (2018) models of state authenticity. The reasons behind wanting to improve include an internal drive to excel and wanting to demonstrate their excellence to others. For others it was more of an altruistic endeavour which, to an extent, demonstrates compatibility with social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Interviewees described the drive for keeping focused and ring fencing what they will and will not do. In the local council, support workers will focus on providing services for the homeless rather than ruminating on council funding and management support. Whilst it may be an issue that impacts on them, they push that to one side so they can concentrate on doing their job. This concurs with Schmader and Sedikides (2018) in that employees are shying away from environments and situations they feel are alien to them and focusing on familiar situations.

On the face of it, this research suggests that having pride and passion for one's job, wanting to improve and focusing on specific tasks link to work role authenticity. Different to corporate authenticity, this indicates that this type of employee will be more engaged with job specific matters rather than corporate matters. Attempts to connect with them will be more successful if coached in job specific terms.

6.4.2b Topic two – WRA, team and technical relationships

The findings of this research agree with social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) especially in-groups and out-groups as people who are more work role authentic will tend to stick together and may exclude individuals with high corporate authenticity. Interviewees described the impact of positive, close and respectful team relationships and dealings with SMEs who can bring enhanced understanding of the work role. Sedikides et al. (2017) contests that positive, engaging situations where one feels competent like work role activities are state authentic.

Topic two is a single theme topic that relates to building relationships within a smaller, job specific sphere.

Lenton et al. (2013) argues that different social groups in the workplace help to define individual identity. Individuals assign or categorise themselves with the group and take on or strengthen behaviours appropriate to the group (Stets and Burke, 2000). Hogg and Hardie (1991) conclude that our attraction to the group can be stronger than our connection to other group members. However, people generally behave in line with the group norm, even when the group is a low-status minority group. For example, individuals who associate themselves with the group will participate in group behaviour to distinguish themselves from out-groups and to ingratiate themselves with the in-group (Ethier and Deaux, 1994). Individuals with authentic membership of the work role group will be more likely to resist corporate authenticity groups and their link to the whole organisation and the brand. In contrast, they will be more inclined to represent their job role. McQuail and Windahl (1993) argue that selective attention happens when one has strong views. Selective attention is defined as a brain function that ensures ongoing processing of information to give selected messages privileged access to perceptual awareness and guide behaviour (Chelazzi et al., 2013) which, in the case of work role authentic employees, will be information connected with their job. Hence, the more ingrained they are with their job role identity the more likely they will be selective with their attention and the more inclined to choose particular content or even particular channels in preference to others.

Relationships with people in a job specific sphere and technical experts helps individuals validate and increase their levels of individual skill which prompts them to feel truer in work role situations. This not only increases their speed of processing work role information but also drives deeper feeling of being work role authentic (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). If internal line management communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007) and work processes afford completion of work role tasks and targets, it will promote a more authentic fit between an individual and their work role, even if that communication is presented virtually via social media groups (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). In discussions where technical elements of the role are discussed or SMEs are involved, the type of internal communication will change to dimension three, internal project peer communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). This involves a range of colleagues working on a specific common project - communication is generally two-way and focuses on project issues and will enhance the feeling of a cohesive group.

Interviewees distinguished building relationships with their immediate or close team from building wider relationships with others across the company and external stakeholders, like in corporate authenticity. One of the chef relationship managers made the point that one must develop a positive relationship with colleagues in the long hours and cramped conditions usually associated with professional kitchens. The Head of Talent, in the local council, makes a point of using the communal team kitchen, despite having closer options, so she can informally catch up with her team. She noted, if she stays in her office, which is on the same floor she will infrequently meet face-to-face with her team. In the pharmaceutical company, the IC Manager gave an example of when team relationships were broken by an employee lying about his father dying. Once that had happened, she felt it was impossible to work with him. The chef agency makes efforts to encourage work role authenticity by connecting chefs using social media and conferences for sharing skills and the Elite Brigade, both with a focus on developing key soft skills. This could be considered excessive, for an agency, but their quest is to change how temporary chefs are regarded in the industry by developing their skills and encouraging loyalty and long tenure.

One of the challenges of having a single theme topic was the development of questionnaire items for phase two. In each of the other topics there were three themes which allowed for a single item for each theme. This theme contains three elements, communication with the team, communication with experts and a lack of corporate relationship building. These three elements constituted the subjects of the three items in this topic.

These findings suggest work role authentic individuals have a smaller network and less interest or impact from internal politics, instead focusing on getting the job done. This will limit the levels of interest in corporate communication and possibly define their belonging on terms of their job or team. This suggests a propensity for a higher turnover as they commit to the job in preference to the organisation and look for similar work elsewhere.

6.4.2c Topic three – WRA, politics and organisational pressures, working unsociable hours and seeing work as a basic financial transaction

The SAFE (State Authenticity as Fit to Environment) model (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) makes a link between characteristics of the self and elements of the work role which, when aligned, prompt an authentic fit to the work role. Organisational pressures, politics and unsociable hours will, unless negotiated by ethical and effective internal communication (Grunig, 1992), impact on this fit, leading to inauthenticity.

Three of the themes identified during phase one fieldwork of this study can be integrated under a single topic for the purpose of this discussion. These themes are performing despite politics and organisational pressures, working unsociable hours and seeing work as a basic financial transaction. All three relate to elements that, unless managed by ethical internal communication, will create feelings of inauthenticity. Working unsociable hours and seeing work as a basic financial transaction were less well represented in phase one fieldwork which is represented by the dashed line surrounding them. Their impact, as described within this topic,

has implications for commitment, authentic fit and group identity which is why they have been retained within this topic.

The SAFE model (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) contains three elements each of which will impact on work role authenticity unless moderated by ethical internal communication (Grunig, 1992). Firstly, self-concept fit is the fit between the workplace and an individual's self-values. Schmader and Sedikides (2018), go on to argue that this 'self-concept fit' happens when a specific environment activates the most default, or accessible aspects of the self. Thus, someone interested in educating others would have good self-concept fit when working as a teacher. However, when excessive administration is needed, excessive hours spent marking and having to do low value tasks, to tick boxes the level of authenticity reduces and their rate of cognitive processing slows (Schmader, Croft and Whitehead, 2014; Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). Second, goal fit builds upon self-concept fit to include goals and targets, in the workplace, that afford internalised goals. If individuals feel their actions are self-directed and self-determined they will feel authentic. Consequently, organisations that use internal communications to manage stakeholder needs and communicate symmetrically (Grunig, 1992) will help to maintain those feelings of authenticity. Even when tasks are unlikely to generate work role authenticity, ethical internal communication can help to reduce the negative impact. The third element of the SAFE model is social fit which is defined as the extent to which "other people in the current environment accept and validate a person's sense of who they are" (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018, p. 232). This meshes with social identity as by identifying with appropriate social groups they protect and enhance their self-identity (Lenton et al., 2013). Group identification also influences one's view, of the self, as prototypical of the group (Hogg and Hardie, 1991).

The impact of internal politics was more keenly felt on participants' career prospects or the speed with which their career advanced. Some chefs were reported to have sworn at their Head Chefs and still engaged with another venue despite full disclosure of the incident. A shortage means that some chefs lack real consequences when ignoring political and societal conventions. However, one chef

relationship manager reports this type of behaviour is typical of the group. Working under pressure, in the local council, was either due to staff shortages that had been brought about by budget restrictions and consequently remaining staff had to work harder and longer to achieve that same result with no more reward. The lack of a symmetrical approach to internal communication (Grunig, 1992) was already impacting on the commitment of this stakeholder group (Welch and Jackson, 2007) leading to some members of staff leaving. Conversely, some council employees working with the homeless pushed all corporate issues to one side and focused on doing their job with the resources they had. In the chef agency, a project manager described their efforts at two-way symmetrical communication regarding the working hours of chefs. In previous years, chefs had experienced burnout and stress as a direct result of the expectation for working long hours. More recently the motivation to communicate symmetrically has increased and chefs and venues are more willing to discuss flexible hours where possible.

The theme of seeing work as a basic financial transaction had relatively little exposure but is still interesting as it gives rise to low work role and corporate authenticity. For the agency, having chefs who treated their assignments solely as a vehicle to make money created issues as they focused less on quality and client relationships.

These findings suggest individuals who are work role authentic have the potential to be rendered inauthentic by the impact of politics, organisational pressures and working unsociable hours. The result could be employees seeing work as a basic financial transaction which will reduce commitment, quality and turnover. Key to mitigating this is ethical and symmetrical internal communication and a willingness to facilitate understanding or reach compromise.

The next section will discuss the findings with respect to internal communication channels.

6.4.3 Internal communication

Four channels of internal communication were considered in this research. These were email, face-to-face, intranet and social media. The original aim was to collect data to illustrate the context in which these channels were being used within the four cases however some interesting trends presented which are discussed below.

6.4.3.1 Email and reduced attention in employees

The results of this research broadly agree with communication theory in that without attention the possibility of knowledge transfer is low (McQuail, 2000) and that overuse of emails further reduces attention. Interviewees described poor use of email from an individual and strategic perspective and as a result attention was reduced accordingly.

McQuail (2000) describes a range of filters that facilitate or hinder the flow of information attention, perception, group situation and motivation. He argues that gaining attention is an end, which resonates with this research in that openness, or attention, to a particular channel takes precedence over the meaning transferred. McQuail (2000) proposes that unless the meaning of the message is concordant between the sender and the receiver it is unlikely to be successful. Overuse of emails will distort the perceived meaning for the receiver as they see excessive emails as an irritation rather than a source of information. Chelazzi (2013) proposes selective attention which gives some information privileged access to cerebral functions. When emails are overused employees develop a perception that most emails are irrelevant which, according to Chelazzi (2013), will select their attention away from emails.

The IC Manager from the pharmaceutical company said that she does not use email in her personal life and despite IC strategists saying that email is outdated the business is reluctant to give it up. The chef agency has made a conscious effort to move away from using email unless absolutely necessary. Both the local council and the pharmaceutical company use planned emails to direct employees to further information that needs to be read like newsletters, intranet or official documents.

There is little attempt to create attention and uptake of information is not monitored which means that messages cannot be amended to improve attraction. In the pharmaceutical company they have tried to reduce the number of corporate emails by reducing them just to one a week which incorporates the newsletter. By mixing messages within one email, some trivial like charity bicycle rides and some serious like legislative or regulatory messages, the impact of the important messages is diluted and attention is reduced. However, individual departments are free to send as many emails as they wish and the responsibility for sending them is being devolved to individual managers which creates challenges.

In the chef agency, almost all communication has been moved onto social media platforms. They use Messenger or text to communicate with chefs, Instagram or Twitter to market the agency and Facebook pages to provide a central point of reference. This gives the agency clear feedback on whether chefs or clients have read messages. Ad-hoc individual feedback indicates that recipients prefer the less formal style of communication and, due to the familiarity of the platforms used, are more likely to attend to the message.

In larger, more established organisations, emails can be used for tracking progress or distribution which creates a paper trail. This paper trail manages a lack of trust between participants and increases the number of emails as senders may require replies to confirm receipt. In a similar vein some people send emails to satisfy a sense of presenteeism either sending emails outside normal working hours, when they are on holiday or replying to ensure a manager knows they have read the message.

The local council use email as a main communication channel despite significant numbers of employees not having a council email address. They rely on managers and supervisors to cascade messages face-to-face but do not monitor the effectiveness of this. The Head of Talent acknowledges that many of the people excluded from email, grounds people, catering staff, refuse and road cleaning staff, parking wardens, have access to social media applications. She is hopeful that the new CEO will support changes in IC strategy.

The findings support an argument for established organisations to review the use of email and adoption of IC channels that may increase attention and lead to more effective communication. The adoption of social media will streamline basic monitoring like checking if people have read the communication.

6.4.3.2 Face-to-face communication and group belonging

The findings of this research support the use of face-to-face communication in some aspects of developing belonging as defined by Welch and Jackson (2007), in creating and maintaining group cohesion as suggested by social identity theory (Stets and Burke, 2000) and in creating attention (McQuail, 2000).

The theory that connects face-to-face communication, namely stakeholder and social identity theory has been previously covered in this chapter. Therefore, a brief summary will follow. Welch and Jackson (2007) account for top-down communication from senior leaders that creates a sense of belonging within employees. Grunig (1992) highlights the need for two-way communication in order to increase the value of internal communications and to improve the quality of relationships with stakeholders. Welch and Jackson (2007) point out that identification is a way organisations can influence stakeholder groups by emphasising shared values and beliefs, however many models of group based segmentation rely on organisational hierarchy or interest in an organisational issue (Kalla, 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021; Grunig, 2005). Commitment to the group is higher, when one has higher in-group identification, leading to less desire to leave the group (Stets and Burke, 2000) and more willingness to represent the group in a positive light. This research focuses on groups based on individual preferences which is more likely to prompt feelings of inclusion (Stets and Burke, 2000).

Overall, the amount of information offered by interviewees was significantly less than expected. Although interviewees were in small teams, which may limit exposure to face-to-face communication, they were part of large organisations and working in a communications function, one would expect more emphasis on face-

to-face communication. Several reasons could be apt like face-to-face communication is so commonplace that the interviewees did not feel it was noteworthy enough to mention at length, or face-to-face communication is less prevalent even in organisations where the opportunity for face-to-face communication is high or especially in larger, more mature organisations, where email is used as the preferred communication channel hence the comments about over-use in the section above. An IC administrator in the pharmaceutical company said that formal one-to-one meetings are held with employees every week but the most frequent form of communication used is email.

Interviewees discussed General Managers and CEOs presenting strategic information about the fortunes and challenges of the organisation to an audience made up of a range of employees. Although this meets the requirements of the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) in each case various strategies had been employed to enable feedback from employees for example collating questions beforehand, using a webcast to collate questions or choosing a smaller cross section of the organisation to allow time for questions. This approach supports two-way communication and increases the value of internal communication (Grunig, 1992).

Technology is used to offer a pseudo face-to-face experience in two of the cases. The pharmaceutical company uses video conferencing when communicating with the European and worldwide businesses. The chef agency connects with chefs from across the UK and Europe which reduces the possibility of physical face-to-face meetings. Instead, they use video conferencing but also arrange conferences, social events and skill shares to help chefs to network.

6.4.3.3 Intranet archives and inconsistent information

The findings of this research agree with the assertion by Grossman (2019) who highlights that the best use for an intranet today is a receptacle of archived resources. The use of an intranet as a central point of communication for

employees has passed and the two organisations using an intranet effectively treat them as a data store and use email to direct employees to relevant resources.

The chef agency does not operate an intranet. Most documents and resources they need to access are in cloud-based storage. As the agency is relatively young and has quite a narrow focus, they have few resources needing intranet storage. For them, the cost and maintenance of operating an intranet outweighs the benefits.

The pharmaceutical company use the intranet to store news and resources which are collated and then links emailed to all staff once a week. The intranet has some functionality in that employees can indicate they 'like' posts. Both the pharmaceutical company and the local council have issues with archiving documents. Although, systems are updated archive resources remain on the system with a reluctance to remove them just in case they are needed at some time. This has led to stores of out-of-date information without any motivation to remove less useful resources. The IC Manager at the local council thought that the self-serve nature of the intranet leads to an assumption that document management is a collaborative function and resources do not exist to keep it up to date.

The L&D Director for the local council commented on the variability in the quality of intranet resources and others referred to it appearing out of date and not mimicking the mobile apps they are used to outside of work. Similar themes were discussed with the IC Manager at the pharmaceutical company. She said that the adoption of Google+ tools has increased employee engagement far in excess of past intranet provision.

6.4.3.4 Using social media to establish attention and create belonging

The findings broadly concur with McQuail (2000) in that, similar to emails, social media gives an opportunity to gain attention. It is worth noting that the choice of social media platform will impact on the attention gained as will the tone, language and length of the message. Social media also presents an opportunity to gain group cohesion and belonging (Stets and Burke, 2000) and can generate sustainable

engagement. The aims of this research are to look at the relationships between corporate and work role authenticity and communication channels like social media. The complexities of how different social media channels work to gain attraction is outside the main scope of this research however, with 78% of the UK population having their smartphones always on (Ofcom, 2018) and checking them every 12 minutes (Papageorgiou, 2017) it seems amiss not to utilise this information to discuss each of the social media channels in turn.

Use of social media varied immensely between the three cases. The local council have an awareness of social media, mainly through their own personal use, but from a corporate perspective social media is mainly one-way and restricted to public information announcements. The pharmaceutical company are beginning to explore using social media, mainly for targeted external communication and, like the local council present a one-way message. Only one of the three cases has engaged fully with social media and is using a multi-platform approach to connect with clients, associates and staff. This limitation is important when considering this discussion and especially when contemplating the generalisability of these themes.

Before each social media channel is discussed it is useful to discuss some of the overarching strategy and challenges the three cases experienced when considering or introducing social media tools. These all relate to either attention or social identity.

6.4.3.5 Strategy

McQuail's (2000) models of mass communication support the use of multi-method approaches to communication and highlight the need for attention when communicating which is echoed by several other models in the literature (Kalla, 2005; Karanges, 2014; Jacobs, Yu and Chavez, 2016; Araújo and Miranda, 2021). Over one year ago the chef agency made a strategic decision to utilise multiple social media channels to gain the optimum attention from the audiences they are targeting. They use Facebook and Messenger as a key channel in communicating with chefs. They reacted to feedback that their Facebook presence was too formal

and now have different pages and groups, run by agency staff, mainly to attract chefs. To increase the likelihood of attention, these pages contain content written by chefs which Whitworth (2017) highlights is more credible than professionally produced material and therefore more likely to gain the attention of chefs. The agency uses Twitter to connect with clients as they find most of their clients use Twitter as a key communication tool. When it is necessary to send contracts to clients, they will use email but regard this as a last resort as contracts could be sent via Messenger or hosted in the cloud and a link sent to the client. Executive chefs and head chefs are more likely to populate LinkedIn and when the agency is recruiting high level chefs they engage on LinkedIn rather than Facebook. For general promotion of services, the agency uses a combination of Twitter, Facebook and Instagram to appeal to different stakeholder audiences which partially relates to the stakeholder theory of internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). The agency currently does very basic monitoring of social media collating numbers of hits with specific job vacancies but plan to take greater advantage of social media analytic tools in the near future.

Although the chef agency has a relatively comprehensive strategy for the use of social media the pharmaceutical company and the local council are less focused on social media.

In the second case, the local council, there is a willingness to improve internal communication generally. However, the organisation accepts that internal communication is not fit for purpose. Although some, in the council, would welcome the introduction and uptake of social media most accept that basic communication is not done well and adding other communication tools would further exacerbate issues. As will be discussed later, the council do use Facebook and Twitter for external communication of public service messages. The IC Manager of the council also noted a reluctance and fear of controlling, resourcing and responding to social media. However, as the chef agency have discovered, promoting the use of social media can enhance group cohesion.

The third case, the pharmaceutical company, is constrained by regulation and legislation of their communication. This would impact on any use of social media

that could be accessed outside of the company. Restrictions include not mentioning product names or benefits in any communication. This heightens the fear of introducing social media and allowing multiple sources of access just in case these regulations are inadvertently broken. An IC officer at the pharmaceutical company explained that they are in the process of educating employees as to what they can and cannot say on social media. This is compounded by having parts of the company on the same site, whose home base is a different country and therefore they are bound by different laws. All these issues make for a very slow introduction of social media with a risk averse approach.

6.4.3.6 Using Facebook and Messenger to gain attention and create belonging

The findings relating to Facebook and Messenger concur with McQuail (2000) in that communication has enhanced attention partly due to the availability of different media like pictures, video and emojis, the informal nature of the tool and ease of sharing. The findings also support Stets and Burke (2000) as formal and informal groups build up around specific pages, content and groups. Most of the data surrounding Facebook and Messenger comes from the agency as they are the only case who have fully implemented these channels.

In the chef agency, interviewees describe having several different profiles, a 'corporate' profile that is more formal to attract clients and two informal profiles deliberately directed towards chefs. This naturally provides some audience segmentation and allows the agency to modify their communication to attract chefs using banter and a less formal style and clients where the communication is friendly and professional. The Head of Marketing acknowledges that chefs are viewed as less interested in the brand and more interested in the job which is why they have a personal profile to engage with chefs. This supports the view of work role authenticity and of specific groups formed within the workplace (Stets and Burke, 2000) although the chefs make up a pseudo workforce rather than a traditional team. As soon as a chef agrees to work with the agency, they are invited into a Facebook group and have an opportunity to share information about themselves.

The agency uses Facebook as a recruitment tool by making a public post asking, "Tell us about your day at work" or "Show us some of your food that you've made today". They use this as a gentle way to network with chefs which helps to build relationships and ultimately, engage them as an agency chef. This leverages the attention of chefs which McQuail (2000) argues is critical for any information transfer. The agency finds that by using Facebook and Messenger it is easier to react to any post or message for example, if someone wanted to recommend a friend to the agency it is easy to tag them in the post or send a message to the agency.

The agency has surveyed their current chefs to establish the best way to contact them, that is the best way to get their attention. Chefs explained that during the day they are busy preparing for the evening service and so have limited time to engage with the agency. Chefs said they are more likely to respond to Messenger or text than a telephone call. The agency has found that using Messenger is a good way to maintain quick and informal contact with their chefs.

The local council use Facebook to promote specific projects or events and the pharmaceutical company use it to engage with school children, parents and teachers to encourage the take up of STEM subjects. For both the emphasis is on promotion of activities rather than gaining internal engagement.

6.4.3.7 Using Twitter to gain attention and manage stakeholder communication

Twitter was used by all three cases but to differing degrees. The purpose of Twitter for these cases is to increase attention by using it to reach other stakeholders which aligns with McQuail's (2000) models of mass communication and Welch and Jackson's stakeholder approach to internal communication (2007).

The local council replicates Facebook posts on Twitter which are generally public service messages or notification of local issues like COVID-19 restrictions. The pharmaceutical company have used Twitter for the past two years to report corporate messages. The account is operated by the PR company and covers news

and other posts about the whole company. As an externally accessible tool it falls under the regulation and legislation mentioned earlier and as a result access to posting is carefully controlled. The pharmaceutical company is concerned that someone may retweet a post but change it slightly so it, inadvertently, falls outside of the rules.

The chef agency uses Twitter as a key communication tool for contacting clients and high-level chefs, who may be active on multiple social media platforms. They have researched clients' use of social media and found most are contactable using Twitter. The agency describes their social media focus as mercurial as when they need to attract clients they mostly use Twitter but when, as recently, chefs are in short supply they switch their focus to Facebook to recruit chefs. This switching of social media channels supports McQuail (2000) as the agency predominantly focus on attention and, to a lesser degree, the stakeholder approach by leveraging the external context (Welch and Jackson, 2007; Silbiger, 2005).

6.4.3.8 LinkedIn, YouTube, Instagram and Snapchat

These social media channels are acknowledged by the internal communication teams of all three organisations. Their use is haphazard which reduces the amount of information available to discuss. Therefore, it has been decided to omit these channels from this discussion.

This haphazard approach does bring into question whether future research could examine whether having a smaller number of social media channels, that companies adequately resource, is better than trying to cover many channels without adequate resources.

7.1 Chapter seven - phase two results

7.2 Introduction

This research addresses the issue of whether CA and WRA influence openness to different channels of internal communication (IC) in organisations. The research questions presented later in this chapter help us to understand that issue in more detail.

This results section follows the distribution of an online questionnaire to 72 people from a variety of cases. The sample, as outlined in the methodology chapter was significantly restricted by the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic. The questionnaire collected biographical data, opinions about work role and corporate authenticity and use of, and openness to, different channels of internal communication namely, face-to-face, email, intranet and social media.

When designing questionnaires to measure new concepts one must ensure two main fundamental design parameters are met, validity and reliability (Coolican, 1993).

7.3 Validity

Validity ensures that questionnaires measure the concept they are supposed to measure which, in this research is CA, WRA, openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media. There are several ways to assess validity including face, content, criterion, concurrent, predictive and construct (Coolican, 1993). This research has used three types of validity to test the scales designed. **Face validity** was met by ensuring the items reflect the subject matter being measured. It is a crude measure and needs other measures of validity to support it. **Content validity** measures the extent to which the content (items) of the test measures the concepts it is supposed to measure. To assess this, it is customary to ask colleagues to review the content and judge whether the items measure their respective subject areas. These questionnaires have been reviewed by the research supervision team, other peers, and the case contacts, in that order. The supervision team identified several changes to items and questionnaire design, outlined in chapter four – method. **Construct validity** is the final, and most rigorous method,

relying on factor analysis to validate constructs (Coolican, 1993). Factor analysis is used throughout this chapter to assess how closely items congregate, which is essential in measuring both validity and reliability.

7.4 Reliability

Reliability ensures concepts being defined are accurate and precise in order for them to be replicated by others (Neale and Liebert, 1980). Reliability confirms that a questionnaire will give the same results, within a band of error, each time it is used providing the conditions are the same. As with validity, there are several measures we can use to claim a measure is reliable. This research uses Chronbach's Alpha which is commonplace when measuring a concept with multiple items (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Chronbach's Alpha was developed by Lee Chronbach and is a measure of the inter-relatedness of the items in a scale, that is the internal consistency of the questionnaire. Alpha can be affected by the length of the test, shorter tests give a lower score, and the size of the sample. Kline (1986) argued that Chronbach's Alpha could not be measured with a sample size of less than 300 however, Yurdugul (2008) indicates this is possible in certain circumstances. Both agree that Chronbach's Alpha must be 0.7 or above for a scale to be deemed reliable.

The research aim can be operationalised by reference to the following research questions:

To what extent are CA and WRA independent aspects of authenticity that co-exist within the self and comprise independent variables?

1. *Are the questionnaire items measuring work role authenticity and corporate authenticity measuring two discrete concepts?*

2. *Is corporate authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is work role authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

How can we predict the likelihood that employees will pay attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Is openness to face-to-face communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

2. *Is openness to email communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is openness to intranet communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

4. *Is openness to social media communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

How much influence does an individual's perceived authentic membership of groups like CA and WRA have on attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Does CA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

2. *Does WRA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

Authentic membership of which group (CA or WRA) has more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?

1. *Does CA have more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

2. *Does WRA have more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

Questions one and two review the reliability of the questionnaires and questions three and four review the validity of the questionnaires, that is their predictive validity.

The first section will present some descriptive statistics to provide further analysis of the whole group. This will include number of respondents in each organisational

or contextual group, age and gender, hours worked, organisational level and frequency of social media channel usage.

7.5 Descriptive statistics

The sample includes a total of n=72 and was taken from a large pharmaceutical company, a chef agency, two HR/Management consultancies and a general group of people who were contacted by various social media and internet channels. The breakdown of respondents for each of these groups can be found in Figure 6.
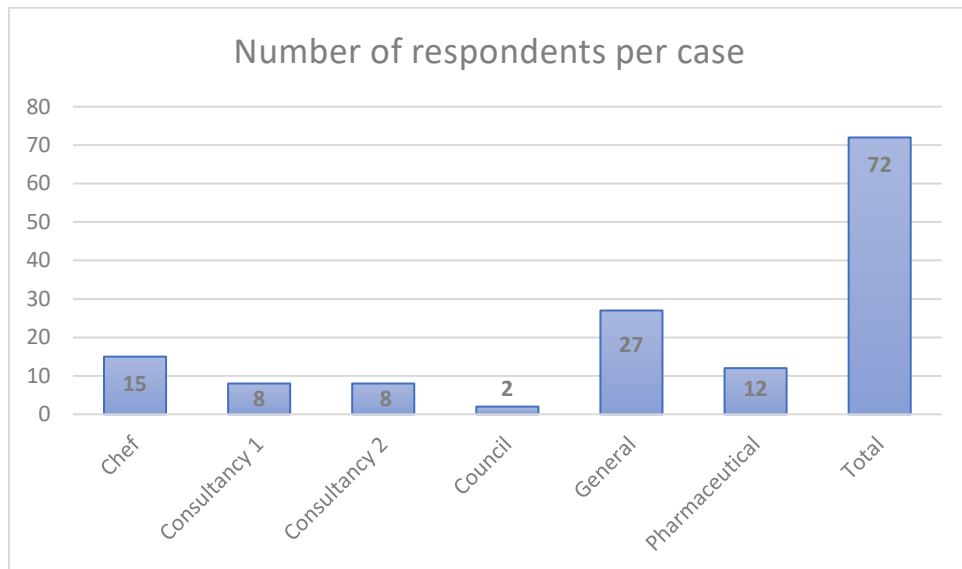
Figure 9: Graph of Number of Respondents Per Case

Test for normality					Skewedness		Kurtosis	
	n	Min rating	Max rating	Mean rating	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Email combined	67	3.00	15.00	8.73	.06	.29	-.72	.58
Face to face combined	72	3.00	15.00	11.47	-.78	.28	1.0	.56
Intranet combined	42	3.00	15.00	10.21	-.38	.36	-.43	.72
Social Media combined	69	3.00	15.00	9.71	-.55	.29	-.34	.57
CAF Final	72	6.00	30.00	21.53	-.38	.28	.04	.56
WRA Final	72	13.00	25.00	19.44	-.11	.28	-.59	.56
Which of the following groups best describes your age?	71	1.00	5.00	3.66	-.41	.29	-.60	.56

Tests for normality were conducted and then presented in the table above. Coolican (1993) states, if the skewness value is greater than + 1.0, the distribution is right skewed. If the skewedness value is less than -1.0, the distribution is left skewed. If the kurtosis value is greater than + 1.0, the distribution is leptokurtik. If the kurtosis value is less than -1.0, the distribution is platykurtik. This indicates the data were not skewed either way and there was some slight kurtosis but nothing that was grossly outside of normal assumptions especially for exploratory concepts.

Table 6: Reported Age Compared with Reported Gender

Reported Age Compared with Reported Gender					
		2. Which of the following describes how you think of yourself?			
		Female	**Male**	**Total**	**Percent**
1. Which of the following groups best describes your age?	**16-24**	1	0	1	1.4
	25-34	7	3	10	13.9
	35-44	7	10	17	23.6
	45-54	11	16	27	37.5
	55-64	3	13	16	22.2
	65 or older	0	1	1	1.4
Total		**29**	**43**	**72**	**100**

The sample consisted of 29 females (40.3%) and 43 males (59.7%) with age measured in six categories represented in the table above. The modal age was 45-54 with 61.1% of respondents aged 45 or over (three age groups). The proportion of younger respondents aged 16-34 (two groups) was 15.3%. This discrepancy between numbers of younger and older respondents may have impacted on the results observed especially with respect to work role authenticity. Older participants may be working at higher levels which are more likely to be aligned with the breadth of organisational focus associated with corporate authenticity. Younger participants may be at the stage in their careers where they are focusing on building skills rather than forging links through the organisation.

Table 7: Contracted Hours of Work

Which of the following best describes the hours that you work?				
	Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Ad-hoc (Zero hours contract or employed when needed)	7	9.7	9.7	9.7
Full time	58	80.6	80.6	90.3
Other	2	2.8	2.8	93.1
Part time	5	6.9	6.9	100.0
Total	**72**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Full time workers were the highest proportion (80.6%) with ad-hoc hours next (9.7%) followed by part time working (6.9%) and those who have different working patterns 'other' (2.8%).

The biggest group within the sample considered themselves to be at a Professional level (45.8%) with Supervisor taking the least represented group (1.4%). Those who described themselves in a managerial capacity (Junior or Middle Manager and Senior Manager/Director) 20.8% and Professionals 45.8% make up 66.6% of the sample. These people were more likely to score higher on corporate authenticity which may have impacted on the overall discrimination between work role and corporate authenticity.

Table 8: Job Level

Which of the following groups best describes your job?			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Admin and Secretarial	5	6.9	6.9
Caring, leisure and other service	3	4.2	11.1
Junior or Middle Manager	8	11.1	22.2
Other	6	8.3	30.6
Professional	33	45.8	76.4
Senior Manager/Director	7	9.7	86.1
Supervisor	1	1.4	87.5
Technical	9	12.5	100.0
Total	**72**	**100.0**	

Of those responding to which social media they use at work, 24.4% said they use the internet, a similar number 23.8% said they use LinkedIn. This could have been heightened by having 66.6% of respondents identifying as Managers and professionals for whom LinkedIn is a popular networking platform. Respondents using Facebook as a communication tool made up 14.6% of the sample with 12.2% using Google+.

Other channels of social media used were below 8% of respondents which were Messenger, Twitter, Instagram and YouTube respectively. In phase one, the chef agency were early adopters of social media as an internal communication channel and focused specifically on Facebook. The local council and pharmaceutical company to some degree, focused more on LinkedIn which is reinforced by the respondents in phase two.

Table 9: Social Media Channels Used

Which types of social media do you use at work, or use to find out about work?			
	Responses		**Percent of**
	N	**Percent**	**Cases**
Facebook	24	14.6%	36.4%
Messenger	13	7.9%	19.7%
Instagram	8	4.9%	12.1%
Intranet	40	24.4%	60.6%
YouTube	8	4.9%	12.1%
LinkedIn	39	23.8%	59.1%
Google+	20	12.2%	30.3%
Twitter	12	7.3%	18.2%
Total	**164**	**100.0%**	**248.5%**

To explain the two columns '% responses' and '% cases' it is necessary to understand the construction of the question. Respondents were asked which social media channels they use at work and were given an option to choose as many as they wish from Facebook, Messenger, Instagram, Intranet, YouTube, LinkedIn, Google+ or Twitter. The percentage of responses is the total number of responses made of the different options, i.e., there were 164 responses in total, and this is the percentage for each option, i.e., 7.9% of responses were for Messenger. The percentage of cases is the total number of people (cases) responding, i.e., 14.6% of people responded Facebook but as some of these people will also have responded for more than one option, it is possible to get more than 100% total cases.

7.5.1 Calculating overall CA and WRA

CA and WRA both have the same number of items/questions which helps to create a comparable overall score. Total CA and total WRA were both calculated by adding together the scores from each of their respective items included in the initial measure. Final CA and final WRA were calculated by adding together the scores from each of their respective items included in the final measure. The decision to add raw scores, rather than use an average, was to reduce the inaccuracy gained if using mean scores. Field (2018) warns of the dangers of using the mean score in a

data set as it can be impacted by outliers which, in turn, dilutes the accuracy of the data.

7.6 Statistics by research question

To what extent are CA and WRA independent aspects of authenticity that co-exist within the self and comprise independent variables?

1. *Are the questionnaire items measuring corporate authenticity and work role authenticity measuring two discrete concepts?*

2. *Is corporate authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is work role authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

Comrey (1988, p. 755) argues an important aspect of scale development is items "must satisfy a statistical criterion of relatedness by correlating with each other sufficiently to define an item factor in a factor analysis of items after they have been written". This cluster of items helps us to define these items as a discrete and self-contained factor and provides a step towards measuring the reliability, or internal consistency of the scale. Comrey (1988) goes on to advise that all items may not be successful in correlating with the other items and some items will need to be dropped to reach the provisos of an internally consistent scale.

Comrey and Lee (2013) suggest that a correlation (loading) of 0.32 represents a poor loading, 0.45 represents a fair loading and 0.55 or above represents a good loading. By using these guidelines there is more chance of assessing Chronbach's reliability coefficient to be adequate, 0.7 or above.

The design of this research hinges on the concept of discrete notions of work role authenticity and corporate authenticity. To answer the research question, we must analyse whether the 18 items measuring CA and WRA are measuring two discrete concepts. Principal component factor analysis was used to identify the principal components that the 18 items map onto. Each item was measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The research question is partially answered in that it demonstrates a set of items that group together to give a reliable measure of corporate authenticity. Table 9: Initial Factor Analysis CA and WRA indicates the presence of 6 factors arising from the 18 item questionnaire. Eigenvalues for factors 1-6 were all above 1 which indicates the items are a stable measurement of their respective factor. Work role authenticity is much less cohesive with five factors indicated. This made it necessary to employ alternative statistical strategies like parallel analysis to create a reliable scale. The analysis does indicate themes for further development like the wording of the items or a bigger overall sample size. The overall sample size is lower than anticipated but still allows us to see trends in the data. The composition of the sample also holds some challenges in that 66.6% identified as Directors, Managers or Professionals and may not see the aspects contained in the hypothesised model of work role authenticity. For example, Directors, Managers or Professionals may see building relationships across the company and further as a key aspect of their job or may see having a clear picture of what they will and will not do as restrictive in carrying out their duties. This will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Corporate authenticity and work role authenticity will be discussed further in turn.

Table 10: Initial Factor Analysis Corporate Authenticity and Work Role Authenticity

Rotated Component Matrix for Corporate Authenticity and Work Role Authenticity[a]						
	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.1. I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me			.90			
7.2. I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company			-.71			
7.3. I come to work mainly for the pay	.46			.34	.41	
7.4. I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team		.62				
7.5. I like to build a network of technical experts, inside and outside my company		.77				
7.6. Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority		-.78				
7.7. At work, I have clear boundaries of what I will and will not do				-.84		
7.8. Improving the quality of my work is important to me					.87	
7.9. I take more pride in my job than I do in working for the company	-.41			-.38	.33	.46
8.1. I identify with what my company stands for and its values	.779					
8.2. I don't like getting involved in internal politics			-.36	.64		
8.3. I present a positive view of my company even when it is not the whole truth						.77
8.4. I feel my company is loyal to me	.83					
8.5. My company respects me as much as I respect it	.83					
8.6. I get satisfaction from telling my friends positive things about my company	.73	.41				
8.7. Most people in my company care about me	.77					
8.8. It is important to build networks with people across the whole company	.34	.72				
8.9. I have a sense of belonging when at work	.66					
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.						

7.6.1 Corporate authenticity questionnaire

The nine items, originally identified in phase one and designed to reflect corporate authenticity, map onto five of the six factors identified by the principal component analysis outlined in Table 9: Initial Factor Analysis CA and WRA. However, seven of the nine items mapped onto a single factor.

An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.826, using all Corporate Authenticity items from 8.1 to 8.9.

To further refine this scale individual items were reviewed using the principal component analysis table. One of the items, "8.2. I don't like getting involved in internal politics" correlates with two factors that are consistent with items in the work role authenticity scale. Another item, "8.3. I present a positive view of my company even when it is not the whole truth" correlates with another work role authenticity item. These two items form a factor that focuses on having pride in one's organisation and one's job. A final item "8.8. It is important to build networks with people across the whole company" contributed to the main factor in corporate authenticity but it had a loading of 0.342. Comrey and Lee (2013) argue it would represent a poor loading onto the first factor or component. It has a good loading on the second factor and correlates with the communication items in WRA. It may be possible to reword these three items so they sit more definitively in either WRA or CA as discussed in chapter eight – phase two discussion.

Crossover of items between the two scales produces issues as it reduces the independence of CA and WRA by creating co-dependence and reducing the precision of the measure (Neale and Liebert, 1980). With a positive correlation between them, high scores on WRA will predict high scores on CA. Thus, the probability of high scores on one scale and low scores on the other are reduced.

Producing a table in SPSS, indicates the impact on Alpha if individual items are deleted. This table was produced and confirmed these items should be dropped at this stage. These choices will be discussed further in chapter eight – phase two discussion.

An estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.894, using Corporate Authenticity items 8.1, 8.4, 8.5, 8.6, 8.7 and 8.9.

The final corporate authenticity scale consisted of 6 items:

8.1. I identify with what my company stands for and its values

8.4. I feel my company is loyal to me

8.5. My company respects me as much as I respect it

8.6. I get satisfaction from telling my friends positive things about my company

8.7. Most people in my company care about me

8.9. I have a sense of belonging when at work

This confirms the design of the scale, to measure Corporate Authenticity, as a cohesive and reliable scale. Further analysis indicates that these six items account for 65.5% of the total variance created by CA.

All further statistical calculations involving corporate authenticity will use these six items as a combined scale.

7.6.2 Work role authenticity questionnaire

A similar process was carried out with the nine items, originally identified in phase one and designed to reflect work role authenticity. They map onto all six factors identified by the principal component analysis outlined in Table 9: Initial Factor Analysis CA and WRA. There is a relatively equal spread of these factors which indicates that these items do not cohesively create a single factor of work role authenticity or factor into the three topics identified in phase one.

An alternative statistical approach was used. Hayton (2016, p. 191) argues that parallel analysis is "one of the most accurate factor retention methods" and is especially underused within management and organisational research. Parallel analysis carries the underlying rationale that components from a set of real data, with an underlying theoretical structure, will have larger eigenvalues than parallel

factors derived from random data with the same number of respondents and variables (Hayton, Allen and Scarpello, 2016). Correlation matrices are constructed using the factors, derived from the random data described above. "The average eigenvalues from the random correlation matrices are then compared to the eigenvalues from the real data correlation matrix, such that the first observed eigenvalue is compared to the first random eigenvalue, the second observed eigenvalue is compared to the second random eigenvalue, and so on. Factors corresponding to actual eigenvalues that are greater than the parallel average random eigenvalues should be retained. Actual eigenvalues less than or equal to the parallel average random eigenvalues are considered due to sampling error" (Hayton, Allen and Scarpello, 2016, p. 194). Researchers are more likely to be looking for meaningful components, extracted from actual data with correspondingly larger eigenvalues, than the parallel factor obtained from random numbers.

When we analyse all nine original WRA items using parallel analysis, six of them factor into one component. However, we still must be vigilant about their suitability in providing a precise measure (Neale and Liebert, 1980) and ensure they load exclusively onto this component and not onto other components (Comrey, 1988).

Table 11: Parallel Analysis of Work Role Authenticity

Component Loading of Work Role Authenticity		
	Components	
	1	Uniqueness
7.1. I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me	0.41	0.83
7.2. I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company	0.56	0.68
7.3. I come to work mainly for the pay	0.44	0.80
7.4. I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team	0.58	0.67
7.5. I like to build a network of technical experts inside and outside my company	0.71	0.49
7.6. Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority	-0.82	0.33
Note. 'varimax' rotation was used		

Following this parallel analysis Chronbach's Alpha was calculated and found to be 0.626. This indicates that the scale does not meet the requirements of a reliable measure but does give some trends from which to further review the construct of WRA.

Item 7.3 whilst broadly meeting the loading requirements defined by Comrey and Lee (2013) can be seen in Table 9, to load onto two other components. This cross loading indicates that item 7.3 does not have a unique variance. Put simply, we cannot be sure whether a respondent means item 7.3 to load onto the factor above or onto one of the other two factors. With some rewording it could be developed to load onto a single factor but at the present time and in accordance with Comrey (1988), the item will be discarded from this measure.

Item 7.6 meets the loading refinements of Comrey and Lee (2013) but the loading is negative. This indicates that high scores on this item indicate low scores on overall

measure. This moves away from the theoretical justification that WRA involves a tighter knit social group and that relationship building is reserved for one's current team and 'technical' experts. An alternative view to this is that the composition of the sample with 66% of people coming from professional or leadership roles could impact on the way this item has been interpreted. Hair (1995) recommends that these negatively loaded items are reversed but the theoretical scope of the construct must also be accounted for.

Following these changes an estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.628, using work role authenticity items 7.1, 7.2, 7.4, 7.5, 7.6r. Even with these changes the scale does not meet the requirements of a reliable measure but does give some trends from which to review the construct of WRA.

The final corporate authenticity scale consisted of 5 items:

7.1. I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me

7.2. I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company

7.4. I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team

7.5. I like to build a network of technical experts inside and outside my company

7.6r Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority

Further analysis indicates that these six items account for 36.5% of the total variance created by WRA.

All further statistical calculations involving work role authenticity will use these five items as a combined scale.

How can we measure the likelihood that employees will pay attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Is openness to face-to-face communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

2. *Is openness to email communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is openness to intranet communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

4. *Is openness to social media communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

The design of this research places openness to different channels of internal communication as a dependent variable impacted by work role authenticity and corporate authenticity. To answer the research question, we must analyse whether the 16 items measuring openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication are measuring four discrete concepts. Principal component factor analysis was used to identify the principal components that the 16 items map onto.

Initial analysis of the 16 items, indicated the presence of five factors, see Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC, but with the exclusion of certain items this was reduced to four factors arising from the remaining 12 items see Table 8: Final Factor analysis IC. Eigenvalues were all above 1 which indicates the items are a stable measurement of their respective factor.

Openness to email, face-to-face communication, intranet and social media will be further discussed in turn.

Table 12: Initial Factor Analysis for Internal Communication

Rotated Component Matrix for all Internal Communication Channels[a]					
	Component				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9.a.1. I use email to find out about what my company stands for and its values		.68		.30	
9.a.2. Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging		.70			
9.a.3. I use emails to help me to learn more about my job			.31	.53	
9.a.4. I use email to help build better team relationships	.41				.63
10.1. I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company			.81		
10.2. Face-to-face training events help me to build my wider company network			.88		
10.3. Talking to my peers, in person, helps me to understand and deal with internal politics			.81		
10.4. Discussing the pressure of work, with my colleagues, makes it more manageable	.35				-.68
11.a.1. The company intranet is my first stop for company information	.78	-.35			
11.a.2. Looking at information on the intranet gives me a sense of belonging in the company	.65		.42		
11.a.3. I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and process that affect my job	.72				
11.a.4. Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job	.79				
13.1. When I post, about work, on social media, I feel like I am representing the company		.81			
13.2. I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on social media	-.34	.73			
13.3. I follow industry experts on social media to learn more		.37		.72	
13.4. I use social media to keep in touch with colleagues				.88	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.					

7.6.3 Email questionnaire

The four items, originally identified in phase one and designed to reflect openness to email, map onto all five of the factors identified by the principal component analysis outlined in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC

An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.693, using all openness to email items from 9.a.1 to 9.a.4. Less valid cases exist for this scale as some respondents will not use or have access to email.

To further refine this scale individual items were reviewed using the principal component analysis table. One of the items, "9.a.4. I use email to help build better team relationships" correlates with a factor focusing on openness to the intranet and another factor that was sparsely populated. This item was discounted.

An estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.711, using openness to email items from 9.a.1 to 9.a.3.

The final openness to email scale consisted of the following items:

9.a.1. I use email to find out about what my company stands for and its values

9.a.2. Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging

9.a.3. I use emails to help me to learn more about my job

7.6.4 Face-to-face questionnaire

The four items, originally identified in phase one and designed to reflect openness to face-to-face communication, map onto three of the five factors identified by the principal component analysis outlined in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC.

An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.751, using all openness to face-to-face communication items from 10.1 to 10.4.

To further refine this scale individual items were reviewed using the principal component analysis table. One of the items, "10.4. Discussing the pressure of work, with my colleagues, makes it more manageable" correlates with two factors

whereas the other three factors consolidate onto one factor. This item was discounted.

An estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.796, using all openness to face-to-face communication items from 10.1 to 10.3.

The final openness to face-to-face communication scale consisted of the following items:

10.1. I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company

10.2. Face-to-face training events help me to build my wider company network

10.3. Talking to my peers in person helps me to understand and deal with internal politics

7.6.5 Intranet questionnaire

The four items, originally identified in phase one and designed to reflect openness to intranet communication, map onto three of the five factors identified by the principal component analysis outlined in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC.

An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.741, using all openness to intranet items from 11.a.1 to 11.a.4. Less valid cases exist for this scale as some respondents will not use or have access to an intranet.

To further refine this scale individual items were reviewed using the principal component analysis table. One of the items, "11.a.2. Looking at information on the intranet gives me a greater sense of belonging in the company", positively correlates with more than one factor. This item was discounted.

An estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.770, using openness to intranet communication items from 11.a.1, 11.a.3 and 11.a.4.

The final openness to intranet communication scale consisted of the following items:

11.a.1. The company intranet is my first stop for company information

11.a.3. I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and processes that affect my job

11.a.4. Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job

7.6.6 Social media questionnaire

The four items, originally identified in phase one and designed to reflect openness to social media communication, map onto three of the five factors identified by the principal component analysis outlined in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC.

An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.684, using all openness to intranet items from 13.1 to 13.4. Less valid cases exist for this scale as some respondents will not use or have access to an intranet.

Most items cluster around two factors. By computing a table in SPSS, that indicates Alpha if individual items are deleted, confirmed that deleting item "13.1. When I post about work on social media, I feel like I am representing the company" would increase Alpha to acceptable levels. This item was discounted.

An estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.726, using openness to intranet items from 13.2 to 13.4.

The final openness to social media communication scale consisted of the following items:

13.2. I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on social media

13.3. I follow industry experts on social media to learn more

13.4. I use social media to keep in touch with colleagues

Factor analysis of the final items in the scales of openness to email, face-to-face communication, intranet and social media can be found in Table 8: Final factor analysis IC.

Table 13: Final Factor Analysis for Internal Communication

Rotated Component Matrix for Final Items Internal Communication Channels[a]	Component			
	1	2	3	4
9.a.1. I use email to find out about what my company stands for and its values			.79	
9.a.2. Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging			.87	
9.a.3. I use emails to help me to learn more about my job	.30	.33		.50
10.1. I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company	.79		.32	
10.2. Face-to-face training events help me to build my wider company network	.89			
10.3. Talking to my peers, in person, helps me to understand and deal with internal politics	.83			
11.a.1. The company intranet is my first stop for company information		.86		
11.a.3. I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and process that affect my job		.80		
11.a.4. Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job		.74		
13.2. I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on social media		-.45	.62	
13.3. I follow industry experts on social media to learn more			.45	.69
13.4. I use social media to keep in touch with colleagues				.90
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.				
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.				
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.				

How much influence does an individual's perceived authentic membership of groups like CACA and WRA have on attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Does CA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

2. *Does WRA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

To analyse relationships between CA, WRA, openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication the sum of relevant items needs to be calculated. The following table identifies relevant scales, items and summary scales.

Table 14: Questionnaire Items contained in Summed Scales

Scale	Items	Summed scale
Work role authenticity	7.1. I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me 7.2. I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company 7.4. I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team 7.5. I like to build a network of technical experts inside and outside my company 7.6r Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority	WRAParallel
Corporate authenticity	8.1. I identify with what my company stands for and its values 8.4. I feel my company is loyal to me 8.5. My company respects me as much as I respect it 8.6. I get satisfaction from telling my friends positive things about my company 8.7. Most people in my company care about me 8.9. I have a sense of belonging when at work	CAFinalTotal
Email	9.a.1. I use email to find out about what my company stands for and its values 9.a.2. Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging 9.a.3. I use emails to help me to learn more about my job	EmailTotal
Face-to-face	10.1. I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company 10.2. Face-to-face training events help me to build my wider company network 10.3. Talking to my peers in person helps me to understand and deal with internal politics	FTFTotal
Intranet	11.a.1. The company intranet is my first stop for company information 11.a.3. I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and processes that affect my job 11.a.4. Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job	IntranetTotal
Social media	13.2. I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on social media 13.3. I follow industry experts on social media to learn more 13.4. I use social media to keep in touch with colleagues	SMTotal

Correlation was used to determine the extent to which a relationship exists between the above variables. Field (2018) describes the issues and differing views on using Pearson's product moment to calculate correlation coefficients, especially with ordinal data like a 5 point Likert scales ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. This necessitates the use of a non-parametric statistic, in this case Spearman's Rho.

Table 15: Descriptives and correlations for the scales used in this study

Descriptives and correlations for the scales used in this study								
	Mean	Sd	A	Work Role Authenticity Final	Corporate Authenticity Final	Email combined	Face-to-face combined	Intranet combined
Work Role Authenticity Final	19.44	2.94	.63					
Corporate Authenticity Final	21.53	5.19	.9	.57**				
Email combined	8.73	2.72	.71	.32**	.36**			
Face to face combined	11.47	2.62	.80	.53**	.55*	.34**		
Intranet Combined	10.21	2.9	.74	-.249	-.091	-.012	-.220	
Social Media Combined	9.71	3.23	.73	.309**	.304*	.486**	.075	-.236
Spearman's rho								
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

7.7 Correlations

7.7.1 WRA Vs CA

Work role authenticity positively correlates with corporate authenticity (r=0.56, p<0.01). A lower correlation was expected which would better characterise discrete factors. One of the implications of having high co-dependence, discussed earlier in this chapter, is that people scoring high on WRA are more likely to score high on CA and vice versa. This reduces their independence and makes divergent responses less likely. The need to reverse one item on WRA will have had some impact as reversing that item places it more firmly in the theoretical space occupied by CA. The unsymmetrical and small sample is more likely to be responsible for this (Kline, 1986). This will be discussed in more detail in the discussion chapter.

7.7.2 Does CA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?

CA has a significant positive correlation with, in order of strength, face-to-face, email and social media. Further details can be found below.

Corporate authenticity positively correlates with face-to-face (r=0.555, p<0.01), email (r=0.360, p<0.01), and social media (r=0.304, p<0.05). This indicates that people with high corporate authenticity are open to, in order of preference, face-to-face, email and social media.

7.7.3 Does WRA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?

WRA has a significant positive correlation with, in order of strength, face-to-face, email and social media. Further details can be found below.

Work role authenticity positively correlates with face-to-face (r=0.523, p<0.01), email (r=0.318, p<0.05) and social media (r=0.309, p<0.01). This indicates that people with high work role authenticity are open to, in order of preference, face-to-face, email and social media.

7.7.4 Additional correlations between communication channels

Email has a significant positive correlation with openness to social media (r=0.486, p<0.001) and face-to-face communication (r=0.335, p<0.005).

7.7.5 Authentic membership of which group (CA or WRA) has more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?

1. *Does CA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

2. *Does WRA have a stronger relationship with openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?*

To answer this research question, it is necessary to carry out four multiple regressions. Each multiple regression will have two predictive variables, which are CA and WRA and one dependent variable which will be openness to email, face-to-face communication, intranet communication and social media communication, in turn.

The calculations will estimate effect that both CA and WRA will have on each of the four channels of internal communication and determine which, if any, impacts on communication channels more.

Table 16: Hierarchical Regression: Corporate Authenticity and Work Role Authenticity as predictors of Openness to Email, Face to face, Intranet and Social Media Communication

Model		St. β	T
Openness to Email	**CA Final**	0.29	2.21
	WRA Final	0.18	1.32
F (2,64) = 6.49, p <0.05, Adj. R^2 = 0.14			
Openness to face to face	**CA Final**	0.40	3.41
	WRA Final	0.21	1.78
F (2,69) = 14.19, p <0.001, Adj. R^2 = 0.29			
Openness to intranet	**CA Final**	0.07	0.38
	WRA Final	-0.28	-1.6
F (2,39) = 1.36, p >.05, Adj. R2 = 0.02			
Openness to social media	**CA Final**	.16	1.08
	WRA Final	.17	1.17
F (2,66) = 3.082, p <0.05, Adj. R^2 = 0.06			

7.7.5a Influence on openness to email

With regards to the discrete examination of CA, WRA and openness to email communication reported in table 15, in the final regression model CA Final (β=0.29, t=2.21, p < .05) was predictive of openness to email.

7.7.5b Influence on openness to face-to-face

With regards to the discrete examination of CA, WRA and oenness to face to face communication reported in table 15, in the final regression model CA Final (β=0.40, t=3.41, p < .01) was predictive of openness to face to face.

7.7.5c Influence on openness to intranet

With regards to the discrete examination of CA, WRA and openness to intranet communication reported in table 15, in the final regression model no relationships were observed as significant.

7.7.5d Influence on openness to social media

With regards to the discrete examination of CA, WRA and openness to social media communication reported in table 15, in the final regression model no relationships were observed as significant.

7.8 Summary

These results indicate that CA and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media questionnaires all meet the requirements of a reliable questionnaire. WRA provides a solid basis for further development and identifies some trends from which to further review the construct of WRA.

CA and WRA both have significant positive correlations with, in order of strength, face-to-face, email and social media. Intranet communication has a negative correlation with all other variables.

CA is significantly better at predicting openness to email and face-to-face communication than WRA. Neither CA or WRA have a significant impact on openness to intranet communication. CA and WRA combined have a significant impact on social media communication.

Non-significant trends have been detailed in Appendix 7.

8.1 Chapter eight - phase two discussion

8.2 Introduction

Phase one of this study seeks to create definitions of CA and WRA based on the literature relating to authenticity (Bialystok, 2014; Guignon, 2008), identity and social identity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989) and state authenticity (Lenton et al., 2013; Lenton, Slabu and Sedikides, 2016; Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). Openness to channels of internal communication rely on the literature regarding communication theory (McQuail, 2000) and theories of attention (Graf and Aday, 2008; McQuail and Windahl, 1993). The relationship between work role and corporate authenticity and openness to different channels of internal communication is grounded within the context of a stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

The purpose of this phase of the study is to take the definitions established in phase one, further test their veracity through an online questionnaire and to validate the online questionnaire. The definitions established in phase one were corporate and work role authenticity and openness to different channels of internal communication, namely, email, face-to-face, intranet and social media, grounded within the context of a stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007)

This discussion is broadly split into two parts which is in line with the research questions. The first part will focus on what comprises corporate authenticity, work role authenticity and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media. The second part of this discussion focuses on the relationships between these concepts, namely, does corporate authenticity and work role authenticity impact on employee's openness to internal communication comprising email, face-to-face, intranet and social media?

8.3 Unsymmetrical characteristics of the sample

In phase one, a sample of 14 people were surveyed which represented all the people working in IC departments across all three cases. In phase two, the initial plan was to use the same three cases as in phase one and survey employees from within those cases however this was not possible as discussed in Chapter 4 Method.

The local council made significant changes during this research, gaining a new CEO and making significant redundancies. In discussion with the new internal communications team, it was decided that the timing was not appropriate for sending out a questionnaire focusing on communication. Attempts were made to engage another local council but before this could be fully agreed the United Kingdom was placed in lockdown because of COVID-19. The IC Manager at the pharmaceutical company was promoted to a European role and did not feel she had the authority to support the release of the questionnaire. Her replacement agreed to inform employees about the questionnaire by placing a small statement in the weekly newsletter but was reluctant to fully engage with this research. She had just been recruited into the job and did not feel she could give this research her full support.

This set of circumstances prompted a need to source other respondents to gain enough respondents to ensure that a normal distribution could be achieved and sufficient respondents for each case in order to apply comparative statistics to compare responses from one case to another. Discussions were had with two HR/Management consultancies and a 'general' group of respondents. These were made up from an eclectic mix of organisations and sectors and contacted by various social media and internet channels based on the questionnaires used.

This chapter will review the validity of the questionnaires used with respect to the research questions.

8.3.1 Size of sample

In total, 72 people completed the questionnaire. Coolican (1993) argues that sample size is not important, when demonstrating significance in relationships, providing we can verify our sample is unbiased. Coolican goes on to say that bigger samples reduce the possibility of bias and so increase the generalisability of the results to a bigger population however Blaikie (1993) highlights the need for at least 50 respondents per case. Kline (1986) argued that Chronbach's Alpha could not be measured with a sample size of less than 300 however, Yurdugul (2008) indicates this is possible in certain circumstances. Both agree that Chronbach's Alpha must be

0.7 or above for a scale to be deemed reliable. The size of this sample and constitution, resulting from operational issues, the impact of COVID-19 and the need to recruit respondents from two management consultancies, has created an uneven sample. However, it creates a starting point to explore WRA, CA, internal communication channels and their relationships that can be exploited by future research.

8.3.2 Higher number of older respondents

Whilst still a useful sample for the purposes of this research, there are more older respondents when compared with a normal distribution. Over 83% of respondents are aged 35 or over with nearly 60% aged over 45. There is no significant correlation between age and any of the other variables except for intranet use which has a significant positive relationship (r=0.40, p<0.05) meaning that older people, in the sample, are more open to intranet use. This may be the result of intranet use being at the end of its intended life (Grossman, 2019) thus, older people will be more inclined to have experienced the peak of its use and be more open to the ongoing use of the intranet.

Despite this significant positive correlation between age and openness to intranet communication, most correlations with openness to intranet communication were negative. These will be discussed later in this chapter.

8.3.3 Higher number of managers and professionals

When asked about the type of job that respondents have they were given eight answers to choose from namely, Admin and Secretarial, Caring, leisure and other service, Junior or Middle Manager, Other, Professional, Senior Manager/Director, Supervisor, Technical. The optimum distribution is an equal number of each option which allows for comparative analysis. Comparative analysis in this situation allows one to see if corporate authenticity, or any other variable, is higher or lower for senior Managers than it is for admin and secretarial staff. Despite this unsymmetrical nature of the sample it provides a good starting point for the exploration of these interesting concepts.

When we review the composition, professionals make up 45.8% of the sample with senior managers and directors making up 9.7% and junior and middle managers adding 11.1%. If we take these respondents as a separate group, they comprise 66.6% of the sample.

If we take the view of Hogg and Hardie (1991) these people are likely to have a similar view of their identity which will predispose the results towards that identity. The results discussed later in this chapter will focus on the cohesive nature of corporate authenticity, which is likely to include this group, compared with a less cohesive work role authenticity.

8.4 Part One: What is the composition of corporate authenticity, work role authenticity and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media and how valid are the questionnaires in measuring them?

The following questions will provide some structure for this section of the discussion. In the results section it was beneficial to cover question one first but, in this section, covering questions 2 and 3 first will give the necessary background to support a discussion about CA and WRA being two discrete concepts.

To what extent are CA and WRA independent aspects of authenticity that co-exist within the self and comprise independent variables?

1. *Are the questionnaire items measuring work role authenticity and corporate authenticity measuring two discrete concepts?*

2. *Is corporate authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is work role authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

How can we measure the likelihood that employees will pay attention to different internal communication channels?

1. *Is openness to face-to-face communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

2. *Is openness to email communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

3. *Is openness to intranet communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

4. *Is openness to social media communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?*

8.4.1 Is corporate authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?

The results provide an affirmative answer to the first research question as they indicate a reliable and homogenous measure of corporate authenticity.

Principal component analysis and measures of internal consistency of the nine factors identified as comprising corporate authenticity and outlined in detail in phase one appear to provide a reliable measure of corporate authenticity. An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.826, using all corporate authenticity items. The principal component analysis confirmed that six of the nine original items had a strong relationship with a single factor which indicates that these six items create a discrete measure.

A high measure of internal consistency for corporate authenticity supports the existence of a cohesive group. This supports theories of social identity in that this group of respondents are presenting a controlled and consistent view of the concept (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Taylor, 1989). How much an individual feels authentic in this identity is a measure of their corporate authenticity.

The items within the authenticity scale are designed using the themes identified in phase one and many of these remained reliable in the final version. An initial estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.894, using the final six corporate authenticity items. The six items included in the final analysis are:

8.1. I identify with what my company stands for and its values

8.4. I feel my company is loyal to me

8.5. My company respects me as much as I respect it

8.6. I get satisfaction from telling my friends positive things about my company

8.7. Most people in my company care about me

8.9. I have a sense of belonging when at work

One of the main functions of social identity is to provide a classification that allows one to self-define within an environment (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000). The combination of items above provides a clear set of criteria for one to self-identify as someone with corporate authenticity.

With a larger sample it would have been of benefit to analyse each of the three topics to establish if they are independently reliable and cohesive.

8.4.2 Items not validated

Several items were left out following the analytical process which is in line with Comrey (1988) who argues that when designing questionnaires it is unlikely that all will be successful and some will need to be dropped. These items will be discussed below.

Item 8.2. (Topic One): I don't like getting involved in internal politics

This item correlates with several items in the work role authenticity scale and had low or negative correlation with all other items in corporate authenticity. This indicates a stronger relationship with work role authenticity. As highlighted in chapter seven, key to building discrete scales is having items that cluster together but remain independent from other scales.

On reflection, respondents could view internal politics as a negative activity and therefore even those employees who use internal politics to their advantage may have indicated a dislike of internal politics. Some rewording to describe the behaviour, rather than using the term internal politics would be beneficial in future studies.

The high propensity of professional respondents may reflect a need to manage the internal politics of clients and client representatives, especially if they are self-employed consultants. This was why this item was left out from the final six CA items, but it could be reworded or used in the WRA scale.

Item 8.3. (Topic Two): I present a positive view of my company even when it is not the whole truth

This item shared a positive relationship with a work role authenticity item in the same factor, namely, "I take more pride in my job than I do in working for the company" and thus shares similar issues to 8.2 above. These two items could be measuring the propensity to remain optimistic at work. Conversely, the high proportion of professionals amongst the respondents may be conflating the company and their job especially if they are self-employed consultants. A larger and more diverse sample of respondents may bring more understanding.

On reflection, respondents may have perceived the wording of this as an act of dishonesty. Offering a positive view when they knew it was not the whole 'truth' was asking respondents to acknowledge they were happy to lie about their view of the company. Rewording this item would be beneficial in future studies.

Item 8.8. (Topic One): It is important to build networks with people across the whole company

This item differs from items in work role authenticity, which focus on team and technical specialist networks, as it covers a broader network across the whole company. Initial modelling of CA and WRA was that WRA individuals, being more focused on their job, would seek out job specific contacts either in their team or a wider 'technical' family. In contrast, CA employees would relish the opportunity to build networks across the whole company. To an extent, phase one, reflected the original thoughts around this item, with interviewees describing the creation of broader networks across the company in corporate authenticity and themes about relationships with the team and technical experts with respect to work role authenticity.

The desire to connect with people from one's self-assigned group is clearly identified in the social identity literature (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000; Ethier and Deaux, 1994). Group members will commit to the group much more when in-group identification is higher (Stets and Burke, 2000) and to achieve this committed group members will ingratiate themselves (Ethier and Deaux, 1994) by forming relationships and networks and contributing to group decisions (Turner et al., 1992). Stets and Burke (2000) argue that social identity researchers conceptualise groups as a collectives of similar people all of whom see each other in similar ways, hold similar views and demonstrate similar behaviours and, more importantly, these will be in contrast to out-groups, i.e. groups of people with different views. The willingness to connect to people across the organisation relates to perceiving the whole organisation as the in-group.

With a loading of 0.342, Comrey and Lee (2013) would contest that this item represents a poor statistical loading on the factor and should be dropped. Future research could reword this item perhaps being a little more specific about what the whole company represents.

8.4.3 Other considerations

Yacobi (2012) highlights that authenticity is a process of defining one's self in the context of a changing world which has no reality outside of the human mind. From the analysis of results in phase two, all networking and relationship building items, within both corporate authenticity and work role authenticity, joined within a single factor. The external action of networking, even within a group, may oppose the internal focus of authenticity. However, for some, their work role will involve the action of networking especially in organisations where the whole company could represent a global conglomerate, a country division or a regional hub. The sample contained 66.6% of people either in managerial or consultancy roles, who are more likely to identify with the brand, act in a corporately authentic manner and possibly, due to the necessities of their job role will regularly build networks across the company. With a relatively high proportion of respondents coming from management consultancies this is not unexpected as much of the consultant role is about building relationships in organisations where the relationship is formed around short consultancy assignments. The positive correlation between item "8.8 It is important to build networks with people across the company", and items that measure communication in WRA indicates, for this sample of respondents, that building relationships both within and without their team is a priority and they do not make any distinction between them.

Overall, the initial nine items measuring corporate authenticity gave an internally consistent outcome. By excluding three of the nine items the reliability was increased incrementally. However, some key elements of the corporate authenticity model were lost like the impact of internal politics, building networks across the whole company and tendency to present a positive view of the company despite acknowledging shortcomings.

8.5 Is work role authenticity (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?

WRA is a sufficient starting point for refining the measure to become a more cohesive concept and validate it using a larger population. Overall, these results indicate a multi-faceted measure with four components presented in Table 9: Initial Factor Analysis CA and WRA in chapter seven. This spread of factors prompted using an alternative statistical approach and parallel analysis was used to explore the results. Parallel analysis is explained in more detail in chapter seven – phase two results.

Six of the nine items loaded onto one factor. The following section discusses the reasons why three of the nine did not load onto that factor and the necessary changes needed, in the six remaining, to improve reliability.

8.5.1 Items not validated

7.7 (Topic One) At work I have clear boundaries of what I will and will not do

Managers and professionals generally have more ambiguity in their jobs and a higher expectation they will undertake additional tasks as required. Work role individuals will have relatively specific tasks and will want to retain them to maintain the situations they identify with (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018).

This item covers several theoretical positions. State authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) indicates that individuals gravitate towards tasks or situations they identify with. Most managers and professionals must work across a wider range of situations than some who has a more specific work role. This would help them to feel more authentic across a wider range of situations. Work role individuals will have relatively specific tasks and will want to retain them to maintain authenticity in the situations they identify with.

This item has a negative loading with other items in a component of WRA which indicates that it is more suggestive of themes within CA. The item could be used

within CA, reworded to fit better with WRA or re-analysed with a larger and more representative sample.

7.8 (Topic One) Improving the quality of my work is important to me

This item has strong correlations with two other items in WRA that cross-load with several other WRA components. With the removal of these cross-loading items 7.8 would be singularly within a component thus further dispersing WRA. Whilst the respondent sample could have impacted on this item it was anticipated that people with high WRA would be focused on doing a good job. Possible scenarios to explain this include employees being more focused on delivery targets rather than quality targets. Goal fit (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) allows for self-directed and self-determined goals but does not stipulate these will be focused on quality. The pressures of work, especially in the chef agency, may dictate that quality is secondary to delivery.

Ashforth and Mael (1989) identify the need for individuals to build relationships with their social group. Employees who are thought to be highly competent will be regarded as an asset to the group and thus become a highly regarded member of the group which increases their feeling of belonging (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). For the individuals, gravitating to situations that they identify with gives enhanced feelings of authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) and denote a Horizon of Significance, where their actions contribute both to the individual and the group (Taylor, 1991).

7.9 (Topic One) I take more pride in my job than I do in working for the company
The authentic focus of work role individuals, on their job (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) in preference to their organisation should prompt more pride in their work achievements than organisational achievements. Managers and professionals are more connected to the company by virtue of their position and social group (Ashforth and Mael, 1989).

This item cross-loaded with four different components within WRA. This indicates that the wording of the item may be confusing or creating some conflict. Comrey

(1988) warns against asking respondents questions they may not wish to answer. This item could fall into that category as respondents are asked to choose between pride in their job and pride in the company. Comrey (1988, p. 757) argues, "More likely is a response that is evasive, distorted, random or blatantly false." The checks to assess content validity (Coolican, 1993) presented in the previous chapter were a way to avoid such issues with wording.

8.5.2 Changes to the six-item factor

7.3 (Topic Three) I come to work mainly for the pay

This item was included despite the theme having relatively little coverage in phase one. The notions of CA and WRA in many ways assume some sort of authentic connection, either with the organisation or with the job. Authenticity (Bialystok, 2014; Guignon, 2008) and social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) are the main theories linking employees to the company or to the job. This item was presented to introduce the notion of an individual who had neither WRA nor CA and treated work as a basic financial transaction. Welch and Jackson (2007) note that this could be because of a lack of effective internal communication which is confirmed in the phase one discussion.

This item cross-loaded onto three factors in WRA and the main factor in CA. Many of the respondents were not salaried, professionals working as associates in consultancies are paid per day and the chefs in the sample are also paid per assignment. This may increase their focus on the financial transaction. This cross-loading highlights the item for being excluded from the final scale as suggested by Comrey (1988).

Item 7.6 (Topic Two) Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority

This item meets the loading refinements of Comrey and Lee (2013) but the loading is negative. The expectation was for team/technical expert networking to supersede whole company communication as they work to ingratiate themselves into their work role group (Stets and Burke, 2000). It was anticipated to have a positive correlation with the other items, as WRA relationships tend to be concentrated more on the team or discipline. However, this was not the case. This could be due to the composition of the sample as explained above.

The wording of the item may have impacted on respondent choices. The possible choices available may have been reduced to either building relationships across the company or not building any relationships. The checks to assess content validity (Coolican, 1993) presented in the previous chapter were a way to avoid such issues with wording.

Indeed, to include this item in the final set and improve internal consistency, it was necessary to reverse the scoring which, effectively, turns this item into "Building relationships across the whole company is a priority". This makes this item closer to CA rather than WA.

To retain this item in further analysis it was necessary to reverse score it and achieve a more reliable measure. This need is likely to be due to a high proportion of managers and professionals in the sample who will see companywide relationships as the norm.

8.5.3 Final scale of WRA

Following these changes an estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha was 0.628, using work role authenticity items 7.1, 7.2, 7.4, 7.5, 7.6r. Even with these changes the scale does not meet the requirements of a reliable measure but does give some trends from which to review the construct of WRA.

The final corporate authenticity scale consisted of 5 items:

7.1. I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me

7.2. I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company

7.4. I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team

7.5. I like to build a network of technical experts inside and outside my company

7.6r Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority

Further analysis indicates that these five items account for 36.5% of the total variance created by WRA.

8.6 Are the questionnaire items measuring work role authenticity and corporate authenticity measuring two discrete concepts?

For CA and WRA to be considered as separate factors the expectation would be a low correlation between them. WRA has a significant positive relationship with CA ($r=0.56$, $p<0.01$) which produces a dependent or co-variate relationship. In simplified practical terms, someone scoring high on WRA would also score high on CA and vice versa. However, this research is fundamentally based on the premise that CA and WRA operate as discrete variables, hence one could score high on WRA and low on CA and vice versa. The reasons for this are partially due to theoretical foundations of authenticity linking CA and WRA and issues with the sample. Each are discussed below.

Respondents answer two individual questionnaires one focused on CA and one on WRA. This research is based on the premise that individuals can identify, to some extent, as authentic members of both groups and their scores will indicate which they feel more authentic towards. The co-dependent relationship reported above will make high scores on one form of authenticity coupled with low scores on another difficult.

The highly positive correlation will prompt results on one to follow the general direction on the other. Hence, increasing scores on WRA will prompt increasing scores on CA and vice versa.

The use of self-report questionnaires brings some challenges as they rely on the self-awareness of individuals to understand the instructions and make considered and honest replies about their current situation rather than an aspirational context. This could have an impact on self-fit, when a specific environment activates the most default, or accessible aspects of the self (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018), as respondents could choose specific parts of their context that have a greater self-fit. The concept of in-group and out-group bias (Stets and Burke, 2000) is a factor in understanding how preference towards a group can be enhanced. Ethier and Deaux (1994) argue that associating with a group will prompt an enhancement of group typical behaviour. In the workplace CA or WRA behaviour would be enhanced but this is unlikely to have impacted responses to an online questionnaire.

State authenticity (Sedikides et al., 2019) determines how authentic we feel in different situations or with different groups based on self-fit, goal fit and social fit (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018). This common base for authenticity naturally brings some overlap as both corporate and work role authenticity have the same conceptual foundation which creates issues when we are exploring the impact of each on communication channels. This overlap would not account for the wide spread of factors identified by the rotated component matrix or the tightly grouped items within corporate authenticity. By reverse scoring scale items in WRA to build internal consistency two of the five items measuring WRA became positively correlated with items in the CA scale. This then created an overlap between CA and WRA.

With a strong correlation between CA and WRA it is difficult to assess whether the observed effect is due to CA or WRA as discussed earlier. In general, the multiple regression, discussed later in this section, failed to identify any significant single effect from either CA or WRA which indicates they operate as a pair rather than individually. As emphasised at the beginning of this chapter the modifications made to WRA, to attempt to increase internal consistency, reduced the extent to which it

measured the whole breadth of the three topics identified in phase one. In WRA, three of the five items represent topic two, WRA, team and technical relationships, which biases the whole scale away from the practical elements of the role. The other three items needed to be reverse scored to calculate internal consistency which, in some cases, has reversed their meaning away from a work role orientation to a corporate view.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the sample did not achieve a normal distribution or a significant number of respondents. The sample contained more people in older age groups and more people reporting their job type as professionals and managers. An older age profile brings with it some potential effects. Older people may be less inclined to accept the idiosyncrasies of organisational life and may have more of a fixed view of what they like and don't like. Conversely, their wider range of experience may prompt a have a wider scope of 'self-concept fit' (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) as they feel more at home in a larger number of situations. Equally, younger people may be more inclined to accept organisational issues as part and parcel of being in the first stage of their career. High numbers of managers and professionals may prompt results that indicate more company-wide relationships as they may have broader spheres of influence and must interact with higher numbers of teams. People in lower level jobs like administration, care and leisure are more likely to have to focus on their own job for the benefit of their internal customers. A larger and wider sample will help to clarify this unexpected relationship.

8.7 Openness to internal communication channels

This research uses openness to internal communication as a dependent variable which is impacted by CA and WRA. Internal communication in this research is split into email, face-to-face, intranet and social media which represents the most used forms of internal communication (Melcrum Ltd, 2011). The context for this research is the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) where CA and WRA are regarded as two stakeholder groups and internal communication is measured using the four channels above. Intranet use has been included even though it is regarded as an outdated mode of communication (Grossman, 2019). Two of the cases use company intranets.

For each form of communication, a questionnaire was developed that initially contained four items, two oriented towards WRA and two oriented towards CA. The difficulty in developing one questionnaire for each form of internal communication was ensuring that there was the least amount of overlap between the four questionnaires especially since they are all measuring internal communication.

Prior to discussing each of the four internal communication questionnaires it was important to factor analyse all 16 items, four for each channel of communication, to ensure that any outlying items or overlapping items were identified and considered.

8.7.1 Email Is openness to email communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?

The results indicate the questionnaire measuring openness to email is reliable and therefore positively answers the first research question.

Of the four items originally designated to measure openness to email one was discounted, "9.a.4. I use email to help build better team relationships". This item loads onto two factors that are not represented by the other three items that measure openness to email. This can be seen in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC which is in the previous chapter.

The final openness to email scale consisted of the following items with an estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha of 0.711:

9.a.1. I use email to find out about what my company stands for and its values

9.a.2. Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging

9.a.3. I use emails to help me to learn more about my job

8.7.2 Is openness to face-to-face communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?

The results indicate the questionnaire measuring openness to face-to-face communication is reliable and positively answers the first research question.

Three of the four items originally selected to measure face-to-face communication converged onto one factor. The fourth item "10.4. Discussing the pressure of work, with my colleagues, makes it more manageable". This item loads onto two factors that are not represented by the other three items that measure openness to face-to-face communication and was therefore left out of the final questionnaire. This can be seen in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC which is in the previous chapter.

The final openness to face-to-face communication scale consisted of the following items with an estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha of 0.796:

10.1. I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company

10.2. Face-to-face training events help me to build my wider company network

10.3. Talking to my peers in person helps me to understand and deal with internal politics

8.7.3 Is openness to intranet communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?

The results indicate the questionnaire measuring openness to intranet communication is reliable and positively answers the first research question.

All four original items converged onto one factor however two of these also loaded onto factors focused on face-to-face and social media communication. The item "11.a.2. Looking at information on the intranet gives me a greater sense of belonging in the company" was discounted. The reason for discounting this item was it had a strong relationship with another factor, face-to-face communication. By removing this item, the possibility of overlapping factors is reduced leading to a more defined measure. This can be seen in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC which is in the previous chapter.

The final openness to intranet communication scale consisted of the following items with an estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha of 0.770.

11.a.1. The company intranet is my first stop for company information

11.a.3. I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and processes that affect my job

11.a.4. Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job

8.7.4 Is openness to social media communication (as defined by questionnaire items) a reliable concept?

The results indicate the questionnaire measuring openness to social media communication is reliable and therefore positively answers the first research question.

Three of the original items converged onto one factor with some overlap with the openness to email questionnaire. The original four items provided an internal consistency, using Chronbach's Alpha of 0.684 which is below an acceptable level. By deselecting item "13.1. When I post about work on social media, I feel like I am representing the company", Chronbach's Alpha increases to 0.726 which is an acceptable level and supports the research question. This can be seen in Table 7: Initial Factor analysis IC which is in the previous chapter.

The final openness to social media communication scale consisted of the following items with an estimate of internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha of 0.726:

13.2. I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on social media

13.3. I follow industry experts on social media to learn more

13.4. I use social media to keep in touch with colleagues

8.8 Relationships between variables

The second part of this discussion focuses on the relationships between these concepts, namely, do corporate authenticity and work role authenticity impact on employee's openness to internal communication comprising email, face-to-face, intranet and social media?

8.8.1 CA, WRA and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media

The relationships between CA, WRA and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media partially answer the research questions. A variety of strengths of relationships exist between CA, WRA and communication channels. The high correlation between CA and WRA determines that one cannot differentiate, to a significant degree, between their impact on communication channels.

As previously discussed, results involving relationships with WRA can only be considered speculative given the unreliability of the WRA scale.

Table 17: Relationship Between Corporate Authenticity, Work Role Authenticity and Communication Channels

Order of strength	1	2	3	4
WRA	face-to-face (r=0.523, p<0.01),	email (r=0.318, p<0.01)	social media (r=0.309, p<0.01)	intranet communication (r=-0.249, p<0.112)
CA	face-to-face (r=0.555, p<0.01)	email (r=0.360, p<0.01)	social media (r=0.304, p<0.05)	intranet communication (r=-0.091, p=0.568)

Both CA and WRA positively correlate with, in order of strength, face-to-face, email and social media and negatively correlate with intranet communication.

With a high correlation between CA and WRA there is unlikely to be any significant difference in their relationship with email, face-to-face, intranet and social media. As a result, this section will discuss the results in tandem.

8.8.2 Overall

Relationships between CA, WRA and face-to-face, email and social media communication are all significant. This indicates that higher scores on CA and WRA relate to higher scores on these channels. This answers the research question in the affirmative.

From a strategic perspective, most organisations already have access to email and face-to-face communication. These results indicate that internal communication strategists would benefit by investing in more interactive channels that encourage two-way communication (Grunig, 1992) like social media.

8.8.3 Face-to-face

CA and WRA have a positive relationship with openness to face-to-face communication. McQuail (2000) describes attention as essential for any communication. Before content transfer can take place, one must attend to the message. Face-to-face communication offers many different cues to facilitate attention above and beyond the message, like body language and tone of communication. One of those, enhanced by the 'in moment' aspect of face-to-face communication is the opportunity to easily and quickly participate in a two-way discourse which improves the quality of relationships with stakeholders (Grunig, 1992). Sharing values and beliefs is essential for influencing stakeholders (Welch and Jackson, 2007) and is made easier by face-to-face communication as even the way we present ourselves can gives clues to our values.

Compared with phase one, where there was relatively less discussion about face-to-face communication compared with email, respondents rated being more open to face-to-face communication than email. This may have been a result of a different sample in phase two or might be that face-to-face communication is so commonplace that it is not thought of as noteworthy in phase one, as discussed previously. The items used to measure face-to-face communication focus on finding more about the company, building wider company networks and using peers to helps understand and deal with internal politics. These fit with the four dimensions

of internal communication proposed by the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) discussed previously.

8.8.4 Email

Email is the primary method of communication for two of the three cases in phase one and openness to email has a positive relationship with CA and WRA. The exact number of respondents in phase two using email as the primary channel is not known but is assumed to be most as questionnaires were distributed by email. In phase one, respondents commented on the overuse of email and how it detracted from the attention emails received as interviewees did not know if the message was important or not. This reduction in attention could be responsible for email being second in strength to face-to-face communication.

Welch and Jackson (2007) highlight the need for top-down internal communication from senior leaders creating a sense of belonging. The results of phase two indicate that, regardless of whether one is trying to encourage belonging in CA or WRA employees, respondents are less open to email than face-to-face communication. As already highlighted above, face-to-face communication give a better opportunity to create a two-way discourse which is better for developing belonging (Grunig, 1992). With an overuse of emails selective attention may quickly label emails as irrelevant and switch attention to channels perceived to have more value (Chelazzi et al., 2013).

Interviewees in phase one describe a shift away from emails both in work and social life, even when the organisation promotes email as a central channel of internal communication. It should be noted that 93% of respondents said they use email at work. The comments made by interviewees in phase one expressing concern about control of social media and the desire to use email as a paper trail to allow for a lack of trust between recipients are two possible reasons why organisations are reluctant to move away from email. However, to build belonging, commitment and loyalty (Welch and Jackson, 2007) it is important that internal communication is attended to (McQuail, 2000) and creates a dialogue (Grunig, 1992).

8.8.5 Social media

Openness to social media has a positive relationship with CA and WRA. In phase one interviewees confirmed that social media was sparsely adopted by the three cases. Only one was making full use of multiple social media channels in an informed way with segregated and identified audiences. The others were using limited channels to direct one-way communication internally and externally. Despite this limited use, openness to social media is indicated to have a significant correlation with both CA and WRA.

One of the benefits of social media is the range of different channels each with a different demographic. This creates audience segmentation, different stakeholder groups (Welch and Jackson, 2007) and gives the best opportunity to gain attention (McQuail, 2000). The chef agency demonstrates this, in phase one, by using Facebook to contact chefs but switches to Twitter to contact venues and clients whereas the pharmaceutical company use Instagram when interacting with schools.

If organisations use multiple channels of social media they can attempt to account for selective attention (Chelazzi et al., 2013) by presenting a slightly modified message on each social media channel. This allows internal communicators to target specific groups using social media channels, for example 67% of ages 18-29 use Instagram which, within the corporate message, could create attention in this group, whereas 51% of ages 50-65 use Facebook (Khoros, 2020), so a tailored version of the corporate message could be presented here. The same approach could be used to further engage CA and WRA groups.

The control and security issues highlighted in phase one that reduce the adoption of social media in organisations will need some resolution before this versatile channel can be fully exploited.

8.8.6 Intranet

No significant correlation exists between CA, WRA and intranet use. Use of the intranet was confined to two of the three cases and one of these was at the start of a redesign as it was thought the intranet was not fit for purpose. The chef agency used cloud storage when they needed to archive materials rather than invest in an intranet.

The main issue with intranet use appears to be the lack of two-way interaction that has been highlighted as critical for effective internal communication (Grunig, 1992). The pharmaceutical company described in phase one the introduction of Google+, an interactive suite of work tools, has increased attention and engagement more than any previous intranets and conversely, they send a weekly email to direct employees to relevant material on the intranet. Another issue, as the local council explained in phase one, much of the information on the intranet cannot be guaranteed to be up to date and old versions of policies are not removed because of a lack of resources.

These findings support the assertion that, at best, intranet use should be limited to archiving resources rather than as an interactive tool (Grossman, 2019) to cultivate belonging (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

8.8.7 Authentic membership of which group (CA or WRA) has more influence on openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media communication?

Overall, results suggest that CA has a significant positive influence on openness to email and face-to-face communication over and beyond that of WRA. Neither CA nor WRA have a significant influence on social media. Neither CA nor WRA have a significant influence on intranet communication.

This acknowledges the possibility of alternative stakeholder groups, based on individual preferences, that can enhance the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007). By establishing common communication needs in each, internal communicators can speak to each group in a

paradigm that leverages these needs for better communication effectiveness. This will increase feelings of belonging to the group (Stets and Burke, 2000) and provide enhanced attention with communication needs being met as individual messages become more 'in tune' with the groups and are more likely to be attended to (McQuail, 2000). Given this, leaders will need to consider how best to engage WRA employees.

8.8.7a Email

CA has a significant positive influence on openness to email communication compared with WRA. Combined, CA and WRA account for an estimated 17% of the variance in openness to email communication.

Particular attention should be given to CA when using email to communicate internally. CA individuals are more likely to be open to emails and ensuring that emails are written to align with CA which will increase attention and improve communication (McQuail, 2000) and increase opportunities for two-way communication (Grunig, 1992).

8.8.7b Face-to-face

CA has a significant positive influence on openness to face-to-face communication compared with WRA. Combined, CA and WRA account for an estimated 29% of the variance in openness to face-to-face communication.

CA employees are more likely to be open to face-to-face communication. They want communication to address corporate needs, which fits with corporate communication in the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007). They are more open to meetings where they can find out more about the company, face-to-face training events to help employees build their wider company network and talking to peers to better understand and deal with internal politics.

8.8.7c Social media

Neither CA nor WRA have a significant positive influence on openness to social media communication. Combined, CA and WRA account for an estimated 8% of the variance in openness to social media communication.

Taking CA and WRA individually, we can observe that neither CA nor WRA, when taken as an individual variable, have a significant impact on openness to social media communication.

This result confirms no impact of attending to CA and WRA when using social media for internal communication in increasing attention (McQuail, 2000). This research has taken social media as a single variable rather than surveying individual channels. This was a deliberate choice to reduce the number of items in the questionnaire and make it more accessible to respondents. One possible impact of this is to reduce the possible variance by analysing an aggregate of social media where individual social media channels carry more variance.

Social media brings opportunities to use a wider range of media more easily like photographs, video and interactive comments that afford more opportunity to adjust the tone and content to appeal to the communication needs of CA and WRA groups and increase attention (McQuail, 2000). Social media tools are understood by many employees which makes adopting social media tools easier.

8.8.7d Intranet

Neither CA nor WRA have a significant positive influence on openness to intranet communication. Combined, CA and WRA account for an estimated 6% of the variance in openness to intranet communication.

Taking CA and WRA individually, we can observe that neither CA nor WRA, when taken as individual variables, have a significant impact on openness to intranet communication.

With the intranet being used for storing policy documents or news items it is understandable that the amount of variance is negligible, at best. With insufficient

resources for managing company intranets, reported in phase one, openness to intranet communication is unlikely to improve.

In the next section, final conclusions will be drawn and implications and recommendations will be set out.

9.1 Chapter nine - conclusion

The previous chapter presented the findings from phase two which was the quantitative phase of this study. This chapter combines the findings from both phases and refers to the literature and the research questions to address the key focus of this study. Contributions made by this study to both theory and practice are highlighted together with limitations and areas for future research.

9.2 Overview of main conclusions

The key findings from this research are best examined by returning to the questions that underpin this research. This research addresses the issue of whether CA and WRA influence openness to different channels of internal communication (IC) in organisations. The research questions form two groups as explained below.

The first group of research questions help to answer, what is the composition of corporate authenticity, work role authenticity and openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media and how do we measure them?

This research aimed to establish a definition of work role and corporate authenticity to help fill the gap in the literature concerning a lack of stakeholder groups based on individual preferences (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Using qualitative analysis of interviews with internal communication specialists it can be concluded that CA and WRA comprise two stakeholder groups. Quantitative analysis provided strong reliability for the measure of CA and although reliability for WRA was reduced, this approach provides new insight into measuring authenticity.

Using qualitative analysis of interviews with internal communication specialists, four measures of openness to internal communication channels, namely, email, face-to-face, intranet and social media were designed to address the gap of whether different types of media meet the needs of different stakeholders (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Analysis of quantitative data comprising questionnaire responses from a mixed group concluded that these are reliable measures of openness to IC channels.

The second group of research questions help to answer, do corporate authenticity and work role authenticity influence employee's openness to internal communication comprising email, face-to-face, intranet and social media based on the questionnaires used?

By analysing responses to CA and WRA and openness to internal communication questionnaires this research has shown how levels of openness to varied communication channels differ depending on the stakeholder group. Thus, concluding that CA and WRA influence which communication channels those stakeholders are more open to. Internal communicators could use this new insight to manage internal communications.

9.3 What encompasses work role and corporate authenticity?
This research established an opposing position to many theories of authenticity (Guignon, 2008; Bialystok, 2014) based on social identity theory (Stets and Burke, 2000) and the notion of a scale of authenticity rather than a binary distinction between authentic and not authentic.

Using the findings from interviews with IC professionals, this research established that interviewees define authenticity in terms of ordinary descriptions of authenticity, referred to by Bialystok (2014) and Guignon (2008). They used words like honest, truthful and being true to oneself. They stated that, although they had intuitive feelings about authenticity, they found describing it, in any level of detail, difficult. This reflects the myriad of philosophical perspectives presented in chapter two that makes it difficult to articulate a concise description. For example, Rousseau describes essentialist views of authenticity as a division between inner and outer self (Bialystok, 2014). The inner self is seen as innate and authentic and outer self is influenced by society and creates the inauthentic self, as we try to conform or live up to other's expectations (Bialystok, 2014). Existentialist philosophy takes an alternative approach proposing that it is the journey of life that fashions the self and we are "what we make of ourselves in the course of our quest

for self-definition" (Guignon, 2004, p. 69). Both essentialist and existentialist views agree that the self is a work in progress, a life-long project, and not a, fixed from birth, and enduring identity (Guignon, 2004; Bialystok, 2014).

This research concluded that interviewees needed context to fully describe authenticity as outlined in chapter four. For example, describing, someone who feels authentic being a (*insert job role*) or someone who feels authentic as an employee of (*insert case organisation*). It became clear that this contextual approach was beneficial in helping participants envision and articulate examples of colleague behaviour much more clearly and generated a much richer vein of information about authenticity, especially work role and corporate authenticity.

Garnett (2013) uses autonomy to describe the internal jigsaw of some elements that truly represent the self and some that are less indicative of who one is. Stets and Burke (2000) support this view proposing that our identity is made up of characteristics hewn from different social groups. Each social group membership carries a set of optimal characteristics which, for one to feel fully authentic in that group, must be attained. Social identity serves two functions, one, to order the social environment so that one can define others and place them in a social group and two, so one can use the social classification to define oneself within the social environment. Thus, one has a personal identity and a social identity which can comprise membership of many social groups (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) For example, an individual could be a parent, a researcher and a musician and feel different levels of authenticity within each identity. Schmader and Sedikides (2018) assert that, if social identity is an important source of information, about the fit between individuals and a context, then individuals who hold natural membership, of this social group, will enjoy an authentic experience and those in a different group, may feel inauthentic.

Using the findings from phase one fieldwork, this research has concluded that corporate authenticity contains several themes like feeling one belongs, identifying with a bigger entity and mutual loyalty and respect, all of which concur with identity and social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000;

Taylor, 1989). Conversely, work role authenticity has a stronger focus on one's job, that is, doing a good job, wanting to improve, working unsociable hours and taking pride and having passion for one's job. These findings are reported in more detail in chapter five.

This research concludes that these findings fit with the State Authenticity as Fit to Environment (SAFE) model of state authenticity proposed by Schmader and Sedikides (2018). More information about the SAFE model can be found in chapter two. The table below outlines which aspects of CA and WRA fit with the three areas of the model.

Table 18: Mapping of Corporate Authenticity and Work Role Authenticity onto SAFE (State Authenticity as Fit to Environment) Model of State Authenticity

Area of SAFE model		Corporate Authenticity	Work Authenticity
Self-concept	The fit between self-values and the broad aspect of the situation.	Feeling one belongs. Identifying with a bigger entity like a brand. Accepting the façade. Mutual loyalty and respect.	Taking pride in job. Having passion for job.
Goal fit	The existence of institutional structures or norms in the environment that afford (rather than impede) one's internalized goals.		Doing a good job. Wanting to improve. *Working unsociable hours. *Having clear boundaries.
Social fit	Degree to which other people in the current	Relationships across the company.	Relationships with team and experts.

| | environment accept and validate a person's sense of who they are. | Internal politics. Feeling cared for. | |

* Depends if unsociable hours afford or impede internal goals

9.4 Measuring work role authenticity and corporate authenticity

This research established a measure of authentic membership of two groups in an occupational setting, namely CA and WRA based on the findings above.

Yacobi (2012) proposed authenticity as an absolute without partial values and with a lack of definable points which makes authenticity impossible to measure. However, essentialists and existentialists agree this is a life-long project with a goal of becoming an authentic entity (Bialystok, 2014; Varga and Guignon, 2016) or as Warren Bennis describes it, close to the source (Bennis, 2013).

However ambiguous the goal, this presupposes a journey to become authentic which, logically, identifies a measurement of convergence, or lack of, between one's behaviour and that goal. A scaled measurement of authenticity is useful when one requires to make comparative statements between the different stages of development when growing into one's identity or adopting a new one, by virtue of becoming a member of another social group.

This measure was validated with 72 respondents of an online questionnaire and the results were analysed. More details of the process and the sample can be found in chapter four and the results in chapter seven. From the results gained, this research concludes that the questionnaire measuring corporate authenticity meets the requirements of a reliable measure of authenticity. This marks a step forwards in the measurement of authenticity, as it develops a basis for measuring the authenticity of multiple identities based on membership of various occupational

groups. These groups can be considered stakeholder groups as defined within the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007).

9.5 What encompasses openness to email, face-to-face, intranet and social media?

This research builds on the stakeholder approach to internal communication (Welch and Jackson, 2007) and establishes a link between communication channels and authenticity based audiences.

Grunig and Hunt (1984) discuss leaders assigning employees different 'publics', each with differing needs, and support the adoption of genuine dialogue between them. Ruck (2015) argues that the practical implications of working with different publics is under-explored especially considering communication practices were highlighting the benefits of including employees more.

Phase one fieldwork involved interviewing 14 internal communication professionals. In addition to authenticity, interviewees described their use of face-to-face, email, intranet and social media. The choice to include this specific set of channels was motivated by industry research (Melcrum Ltd, 2011) and academic research (Mishra, Boynton and Mishra, 2014) that both indicate these are the most popular internal communication channels. Channels of social media used, per case, was collated but as social media was treated as a single variable this information was not used. From a practitioner perspective, Grossman (2019) challenges organisations to review the purpose of their corporate intranet site. With the uptake of social media tools, many companies are integrating different products to spark and continue discussions, e.g., Google+, which changes the whole emphasis of the corporate intranet. Where the intranet used to be used as a source of up to date communication and, in some cases, gave the opportunity for discussion, Grossman (2019) highlights that the best use for an intranet today is a receptacle of archived resources.

Welch and Jackson (2007) propose the stakeholder approach to identify different publics (Grunig and Hunt, 1984) which includes dimensions to make internal communication more efficient. Welch and Jackson (2007) highlight gaps in the literature comprising the use of different stakeholder groups to those originally proposed and what channels of communication are suitable for different stakeholder groups, given that new types of jobs are being introduced into the job market. The literature does not address stakeholder groups defined by individual preferences rather than organisational structures.

This research concludes that CA and WRA provide two new stakeholder groups which can be integrated into the stakeholder approach (Welch and Jackson, 2007) and used to manage internal communication or, as in the case of this research, can help to identify which channels of IC are more effective in creating openness.

McQuail (1987, cited in Windahl, Signitzer and Olson, 1992) identifies four filters that either enhance or impede the flow of messages. One of these is attention, McQuail (2000) argues attention is the most important part of any communication process. Without attention knowledge transfer, two-way feedback, decoding and even chatbot interactions cannot take place. Graf and Aday (2008) highlight the possibility that people with strong WRA membership are likely to spend more time looking at job relevant communication rather than corporate info, unless care is taken to make corporate content attractive enough to garner attention from WRA employees.

This research concludes that attention to different channels of communication is critical for efficient internal communication and takes the position that openness to different channels precedes attention, especially where two-way communication is concerned.

9.6 Measuring openness to face-to-face, email, intranet and social media communication

Four short questionnaires were designed to measure openness to internal communication channels. One was designed for each of the four channels, namely face-to-face, email, intranet and social media and each had four items covering both CA and WRA oriented situations.

This measure was validated with 72 respondents of an online questionnaire and the results were analysed. More details of the process and the sample can be found in chapter four and the results in chapter seven. From the results gained, this research concludes that the questionnaires measuring openness to face-to-face, email, intranet and social media communication, meet the requirements of a reliable measure of openness to internal communication channels. This lays a foundation for developing other questionnaires to measure openness to other internal communication channels.

9.7 Relationships between variables

The second research question reads, "Do corporate authenticity and work role authenticity influence employee's openness to internal communication comprising face-to-face, email, intranet and social media?"

Having established measures of WRA, CA and openness to communication channels it was important to explore the relationships between these variables. As previously noted, the questionnaire measuring WRA did not meet the requirements for reliability and will need more work to reword items so they have a more cohesive fit.

CA and WRA both had a significant positive influence on face-to-face, email and social media communication based on the questionnaires used.

This research concludes that there is an influencing effect of CA and WRA across openness to face-to-face, email and social media respectively. WRA had a higher influence on openness to email and social media compared with CA. The reasons for this are not clear and future research could further investigate this. CA and WRA had equal influence over openness to face-to-face communication.

The combined influence of CA and WRA on openness to face-to-face communication is 32% of the variance, in openness to email communication it is 18%, openness to social media is 10% of the variance. More details of the process and the sample can be found in chapter four, the results in chapter seven and the discussion in chapter eight.

Overall, this research concludes that CA and WRA have influence on openness to face-to-face, email and social media communication but no or negative influence on openness to intranet communication and answers the research question.

9.8 Contributions of the research

9.8.1 Contributions to theory

The literature reviews in chapters two and three outline the existing models and theory relating to authenticity (Guignon, 2008; Bialystok, 2014) and internal communications (Welch and Jackson, 2007). Whilst Guignon (2008) and Bialystok (2014) capture some of the complexities of identity and authenticity they pay less attention to the authenticity of group membership. State authenticity (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018) goes some way to explore how authenticity can vary, within the individual, depending on the situation using the SAFE (State Authenticity as a Fit to Environment) model. This research has added to the theory by making the link between the authenticity of group identity and membership of multiple social groups guided by social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Stets and Burke, 2000) which allows for several social identities, towards which, one can be more or

less authentic. Included in this research are two of these groups namely work role and corporate authenticity.

Much of the literature surrounding authenticity takes the view that one is either authentic or inauthentic. Yacobi (2012) proposed authenticity as an absolute without partial values and with a lack of definable points. Some researchers have tried to construct a measure of authenticity for the use of the general public (Wood et al., 2008) however, none exists within an organisational setting. This research contributes to the theory with a positively focused scaled measure of authenticity. At any point on the scale, one is, to some extent, authentic and from a developmental perspective, able and encouraged to develop oneself, towards optimal group behaviour. This supports the view that people aspire to reach optimal behaviour to distinguish themselves from out-groups, ingratiate themselves with the in-group and build commitment (Ethier and Deaux, 1994; Stets and Burke, 2000).

The notion of audience segmentation is prevalent in the literature (Grunig and Hunt, 1984; Grunig, 2005; Kalla, 2005; Welch and Jackson, 2007; Karanges, 2014) as is the need to customise internal communication to improve attention (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). Welch and Jackson (2007) make a call for alternative stakeholder groups, to add to their model, and this research adds to the theory by exploring the influence of two new stakeholder groups, namely CA and WRA, on openness to four channels of internal communication. The thing that sets these stakeholder groups apart from the others in Welch and Jackson's stakeholder approach (2007), is that they are formed on the basis of individual preferences rather than organisational structures. This provides another layer to the stakeholder approach and could be further developed by adding other individually based models of segmentation. The final contribution to theory, made by this research, is the addition of varied internal communication channels, added to the stakeholder approach, to explore the extent to which different stakeholders influence different channels. Welch and Jackson (2007) identify a gap in the literature about the types of communication media and whether different types of media are suitable for meeting differing

needs of different employee, or stakeholder, groups. They go on to propose that, with new types of employee roles appearing, to manage the changing face of the workplace, there is a need for further research into the extent to which employees have different internal communication preferences. This research concludes that CA and WRA have an influence on the channels that employees are open to. Further detail is presented above or in chapter eight.

9.8.2 Contribution to practice

This research has made two main contributions to practice. The first is the development of measures of CA and WRA and the second is the development of four measures of openness to channels of internal communication. These contributions and the impact of them on internal communication practice, employee development and career management follow.

9.8.3 Measures of CA and WRA

Using qualitative analysis of interviews with 14 internal communication specialists it can be concluded that CA and WRA comprise two stakeholder groups. The characteristics of each stakeholder group are broadly split into three topics.

For WRA the three topics are, topic one - doing a good job, taking pride, wanting to improve and having a clear picture of one's work role, topic two - team and technical relationships and topic three - politics and organisational pressures, working unsociable hours and seeing work as a basic financial transaction.

For CA the three topics are, topic one - group belonging, feeling cared for, building company wide relationships and internal politics, topic two - company loyalty, mutual respect and wanting to be trusted as a representative of the company and topic three - identifying with the brand and accepting the negative aspects of the brand

More detail about these stakeholder groups can be found in chapter six. Quantitative analysis of 72 respondents provided strong reliability for the measure of CA and although reliability for WRA was reduced, the approach provides new insight into measuring authenticity.

9.8.4 Practical outcomes

People and team development are important aspects in organisational life. CA and WRA can be used for career counselling for example exploring whether someone is more work role or corporately authentic, which may indicate preference for a technical role over a general management role. Further, scaled authenticity could be of use in coaching or counselling if an individual perceives dissonance between their current self-assessed state and what they, or their social group define as authentic. This could be used as the basis for a development plan for the individual or the team if a full team has been assessed.

Measuring CA and WRA could be utilised by internal communicators and line managers to form a picture of the team or department and use this to choose the best route to target internal communications, develop corporate engagement or develop strategies to engage these individuals more effectively in corporate communication.

The use of CA and WRA gives an opportunity to establish the relationship between employees and the organisation vs employees and their work role groups. This will allow for more directed communication from corporate sources and line managers and targeted communication based on work roles.

9.9 Measures of openness to face-to-face, email, intranet and social media channels of internal communication

Using qualitative analysis of interviews with 14 internal communication specialists and quantitative analysis of 72 respondents, questionnaires were designed with a small number of questions to assess openness to communication channels in different circumstances. Some circumstances are work role related and some

corporately oriented. All four questionnaires were found to be reliable measures of openness to their respective channel.

9.9.1 Practical outcomes

The management and measurement of internal communications is paramount in developing effective communication strategies. These four questionnaires could provide more detailed mapping of the channels specific audience segments are open to which could inform internal communication strategy. For example, if most people in a sales department are most open to social media communication, the strategy of communication in that department, from a corporate and line management perspective, would be best achieved by utilising social media channels. Careful planning and monitoring could enhance the effectiveness of this strategy, as could making incremental changes to the channel or aspects of the message like frequency or length.

Measuring openness to different channels of internal communication can direct critical information, like health and safety, to the most effective channel, in terms of the channel most employees are open to. This is rather than posting information on the intranet, or other storage, without clear measurement of whether the message has been internalised. These four questionnaires can support internal communicators to develop more detailed user guidelines for the use of different communication channels. This will prompt more effective use of available channels and achieve better results providing organisations have a reliable way to measure effectiveness.

9.10 Research limitations
This research has some limitations that must be acknowledged to ensure that readers appreciate the boundaries of the study.

9.10.1 Construct validity

Construct validity is often measured by correlating new measures with other scales measuring the same or similar things and contrasting measures (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). For example, when designing a new numerical reasoning test, one might correlate results with another numerical reasoning test and a numerical estimation test. The expectation is that the new numerical reasoning test will correlate more strongly with the other numerical reasoning test and less strongly, or not at all, with the numerical estimation test.

This process helps one ascertain that the new test measures what it is supposed to rather than another concept.

One issue facing this research and subsequently creating limits to its applicability, is the originality of these two concepts. Comparative measures of how an individual perceives how authentic their group membership is do not exist. However, the author accepts that measures like work motivation, organisational identity or general authenticity could have been used to further explore construct validity.

The main limitation this brings is the jingle jangle fallacy which is explored below.

9.10.2 Jingle jangle fallacy

The jingle jangle fallacy consists of two potential types of error when designing new measures. The jingle fallacy occurs when two constructs are given the same name but are different constructs. The jangle fallacy is when two constructs are given different names but actually measure the same thing. (Gonzalez, MacKinnon and Muniz, 2021).

In this research, the jangle fallacy could be a potential limitation as WRA has a relatively high correlation with CA ($r=0.56$, $p<0.01$). The potential limitations concern how independent CA and WRA are. For example, with a high correlation

between these two concepts an individual scoring high on WRA would also score high CA.

Vazire (2014) presents two considerations when assessing the presence of the jingle jangle fallacy.

1, The strength of the correlation between the two constructs. Vazire (2014) proposes a rule of thumb. She uses an upper correlation factor of 0.60 before she is concerned about the jingle jangle fallacy. Vazire (2014) comments that this rule of thumb is not straight forwards to apply and must also consider the reliability of each measure. She explains that, "a measure's reliability, roughly speaking, is the theoretical upper limit to how strongly it can correlate with other measures" (2014, p. 1). If each measure has a reliability of 0.60 and a correlation factor of 0.6 there is more of a possibility that they are measuring similar, if not the same, concept.

In this research, WRA had an internal consistency of 0.63 whereas CA had an internal consistency of 0.89. If we take Vazire's (2014) rule of thumb the possibility of CA and WRA being subject to the jingle jangle fallacy is remote. However, this does not consider the lack of construct validity, addressed below.

2, The second point made by Vazire (2014) involves the theoretical underpinning of the concepts and measures. She entertains the possibility that part of the process of measurement could be flawed which inaccurately indicates a jingle jangle fallacy.

In this research, there are two issues around the process of measurement that could impact on measures of correlation. Firstly, the relatively small sample size could have impacted on the internal consistency, of both measures, and the correlation between them. Secondly, the criterion measure of CA and WRA is self-report and therefore subject to the level of self-awareness of participants.

Suggestions of how to account for these limitations can be found in the following sections covering the future research agenda.

9.10.3 Criterion validity

The use of self-report questionnaires encompasses a range of limitations including response bias and socially desirable responses. As this study collects respondent attitudes, rather than behavioural observations, it relies on accurate self-perceptions.

One of the main limitations of using a questionnaire, designed to measure a new concept, is criterion validity, which is the extent to which "a measure agrees with a gold standard (i.e., an external criterion of the phenomenon being measured)" (Bellamy, 2015, p. 9). In the case of questionnaires, criterion validity compares responses to future performance or to those obtained from other, more well-established surveys (Fink, 2010).

There are two main types of criterion validity assessment. Firstly, concurrent validity, where a new measure is tested against an independent criterion or standard. Secondly, predictive validity, where a measure is tested against a future standard (Bellamy, 2015).

Fink (2010) offers an example, "to establish the concurrent validity of a new survey, the survey researcher can either administer the new and validated measure to the same group of respondents and compare the responses, or administer the new instrument to the respondents and compare the responses to experts' judgment" (2010, p. 155).

Bellamy (2015) cites the general lack of gold standards, when testing criterion validity in questionnaire based methods. This concurs with previous limitations as the originality of these two concepts does not provide for comparative measures of authenticity.

9.10.4 Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) is the spurious variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). CMV is more likely to be a concern when self-report questionnaires are used to collect data at the same time and from the same participants (Field, 2018). Some scholars think that CMV is overrated with some defining it as an urban myth (Chang, van Witteloostuijn and Eden, 2010).

Sources of CMV are varied and include the use of a common rater, the context for the questionnaire items, and "the data for both the predictor and criterion variable are obtained from the same person in the same measurement context using the same item context and similar item characteristics" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 885).

Podsakoff et al (2003) describe four potential solutions to reduce the impact of CMV. These are explored, in more detail in 9.11.4.

9.10.5 Generalisability

The study utilised three cases in phase one, two cases continued to phase two and were joined by several smaller cases plus a larger general group. It is recognised that the representativeness of the sample is compromised thus generalisability of the findings is not claimed. Whilst the original research design allowed for comparison between cases, the sample size, per case, is not enough to facilitate such comparisons.

The space internal communications occupied, in each of the cases, varied to a large degree. One case was rebuilding their internal communication proposition, after successive CEOs, one had just taken a conscious decision to focus on social media and the third was in a heavily regulated sector that influenced external and internal communication.

The researcher established contact with each of the organisations either through prior relationships or relationships facilitated by professional contacts. This brings benefits and drawbacks. It quickly establishes credibility with participants, but the pre-existing knowledge of some organisations carries a potential to impact on the phase one interviews and subsequent content of phase two questionnaires.

9.11 Directions for future research

This research is the start of a journey into better understanding of authenticity and its relationship with social identity and internal communication, and it raises questions that could be addressed by further research.

9.11.1 Construct validity

Measures of work role and corporate authenticity do not have directly comparative measures, with which to explore construct validity. Future research could use associated measures like work motivation, organisational identity or general authenticity to further explore construct validity. This would help to improve the credibility of CA and WRA and further develop the items and topics contained within.

9.11.2 Jingle jangle fallacy

The jingle jangle fallacy occurs when two constructs are given different names but appear to measure the same thing, represented by high correlations between them (Gonzalez, MacKinnon and Muniz, 2021).

The two key considerations for future research are:

Firstly, increasing the sample size to a minimum of 120 (Kline, 2011) which will provide a better measure of internal consistency, of both measures, and a more accurate correlation calculation between them. In addition, a larger sample size would allow for SEM which will confirm, or otherwise, the key relationships identified within this study.

Second, the criterion measure of CA and WRA is self-report and therefore subject to the level of self-awareness of participants. For future research, the inclusion of an external evaluation of authenticity by peers or a manager would be useful to provide better exploration of construct validity and refinement of measures.

Further to the notion of external evaluation, a 360 degree process could be of use to offset the issues of social desirability/bias/subjectivity. This type of process brings multiple perceptions from peers, manager and self. As this type of process helps to create a check between subjective perceptions it cannot be considered a fully objective measure. Other sources of data could be useful to indicate how these measures impact on practice or communication performance but this would further add to the complexity of the measure.

9.11.3 Criterion validity

Structural changes in the research design would have been useful to either reinforce self-report data collection with other methods or take a longer-term perspective by measuring authenticity over time, using a longitudinal design.

To account for limitations in criterion validity, future research could use a variety of methods for measurement. For example, manager reports, peer reports or 360 processes could provide an addition to self-report. This would take the place of expert views, proposed by Fink (2010) and allow comparisons to be drawn between a respondent's self-perception and an external view.

Alternatively, a longitudinal structure could be used which would offer a future (predictive) measure to compare against respondent scores in this study. As the 360 process provides comparisons between different perceptions of these concepts by different people, so comparing one's perception now with one's perception in the future also provides two distinct perspectives.

Issues surrounding state vs trait concepts could impact on criterion validity. State concepts are guided by the situation and may influence responses at a given time. Trait concepts are more long lasting and less likely to change over time. The concept of authentic group membership is likely to have a degree of variability

depending on the group and how authentic one feels as a member. This could be explored further in future research.

9.11.4 Common Method Variance

As highlighted in 9.10.4 Common Method Variance, Podsakoff et al. (2003) describe four potential solutions to reduce the impact of CMV. The first two avoid CMV by designing the data collection such and three and four deal with CMV using post data collection statistical analysis. These are presented below with reflections on this research and potential changes for future research agendas.

1, Using other sources of information for some of the key measures – this research relies on self-report which attracts several limitations that are discussed earlier in this chapter and in section 8.6 p. 292 of this thesis. CA and WRA are based on internal perceptions of one's authenticity with respect to group membership. As such, an external rating, from manager, peers or reports is incongruent with the philosophical position of CA and WRA. Nonetheless, it is a useful way to ensure minimal impact of CMV and is useful in supporting criterion validity. Chang et al. (2010), proposes where it is not possible to obtain data from different sources, gathering data at different times is sufficient to reduce the possibility of CMV. Future research would benefit from having a second perspective and measure of CA and WRA, perhaps from a manager or peer, and/or a second completion of the questionnaire in the future.

2, Ensuring the design and execution of the questionnaire encourages 'honest' responses – explain "respondents should be assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the study, that there are no right or wrong answers, and that they should answer as honestly as possible". The questionnaire designed for use in this research, presented in appendix 1, has clear statements confirming confidentiality and anonymity (p. 333), asking for respondents' own views and confirming there are no right or wrong answers (p. 335).

Future research should continue to include the type of statements highlighted above.

Chang et al. (2010) go on to suggest that questionnaire items must not be ambiguous, vague, verbose or contain unfamiliar terms. The initial questionnaire design (Appendix 6) was reviewed in line with Chang et al. (2010) by peers, professional researchers, and practical internal communication specialists. This design was modified in line with that review and the final questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1. Future research could review the items with a broader range of individuals, especially if the intention is to use the questionnaire with non-English speakers.

Podsakoff et al. (2003) also comment on the use of randomised items and different scale end points and item formats for the predictor and the criterion measures. Ordering items in a less structured manner was initially considered but dismissed. As these are novel concepts, respondents will be less familiar with them and therefore, the more accessible the questions are the better. This is because higher subject numbers are essential in exploratory research. For the same reason, scale end points and item formats were standardised. Future research may consider using randomised questions and different approaches to scoring and scaling.

3, CMV is more likely to constitute a problem where theoretical models are overly simple (Chang et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). This solution argues that models should be complex enough not to be part of respondent's cognitive map. Podsakoff. et al. (2003) highlight that the obvious conclusion is that the interpretation of results is also made much more complex. Chang et al. (2010, p. 180) highlight "As a result, the remedy of overcomplexity could be worse than the disease of CMV". With more respondents, future researchers could focus on the six topics and 16

factors within CA and WRA to make the overall model as complex as possible. This could reduce the impact of CMV.

4, Chang et al. (2010) describe several, post data collection, statistical tests that can account for the errors induced by CMV. They refer to several different statistical approaches. Many researchers will use Harman's Single Factor test to assert that their research is not unduly impacted by CMV (Chang et al., 2010). They describe the method as loading all items from each construct into a single factor analysis to see if one factor accounts for most of the variance. If it does not the claim is that CMV is not an issue. Podsakoff et al. (2003) explain this claim is incomplete as Harman's test is insensitive and does not provide a guideline to what percentage of variance is acceptable. With a larger sample, future research could consider the merits of adopting statistical approaches to assess the impact of CMV.

Chang et al. (2010) highlight the best practice approach of using multiple remedies to review the impact of CMV, however they warn against the assumption that the sources of CMV can be accurately identified and validly measured.

9.11.5 Generalisability

The sample in this research has been collected from companies based in the UK with individual respondents spread out throughout the UK. The data collected does not include geographical location as this is not the main focus of this study. Similarly, ethnicity was not the main focus and ethnicity data has not been collected. This naturally provides some limitations as to the geographical generalisability of these results. The relationships discussed may not be applicable to other cultures and countries and care should be taken to ensure that a more diverse sample is engaged, especially if policy depends on the outcomes of this research. With the small sample size in this exploratory study, it was not possible to attain a diverse sample and the mixed methods design makes this a less important consideration.

Future research could focus on building a larger and more diverse sample and exploring differences between varied groups and allow for comparison between cases.

9.11.6 Miscellaneous areas for future research

Other avenues for further research could seek to formalise a model of multiple identities and authenticities within an individual. This could be of interest, where individuals feel incongruent identities hinder or enhance their potential. Addressing this in different contexts like occupational, clinical and educational psychology, coaching, career guidance and performance management, would be of benefit.

This research led to some uncertainty of whether networking, as an external factor, moderates authenticity rather than being an integrated component of WRA or CA. This would present an interesting avenue of future research.

One area of future study is the definition, mechanism and impact of internal politics on group cohesion and internal communication. Particularly, where social media is the communication channel of choice.

Further research could investigate the impact of video conferencing on corporate and work role authenticity, especially compared to physical face-to-face communication.

One avenue for further study would be research into the specific mechanism between individually selected groups, selective attention and the impact on internal communication. This could explore whether social media helps to increase attention and group cohesion or, alternatively, does it create distractions and reduce attention or encourage behaviour that will detract from cohesion.

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11.1 Appendices

Appendix 1 – Final questionnaire version

Internal communication and authenticity

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Page 1: Internal Communication and Authenticity

You should treat CJUK as the company or the organisation, where those terms are used, rather than the venue you are currently working at.

Some information for you before you start

Thanks for taking part in my research study. In the following paragraphs there is some information about what you need to do and to help you to decide whether you would like to be involved or not. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or you would like more information. Whilst I cannot promise the study will help you personally, the information I get from the study will be used to help understand how to improve communication at work.

What I am hoping to achieve

Throughout my working career I have noticed that some people really like reading through company information and others prefer to focus on their job. This survey aims to explore different channels of communications inside an organisation, what influences how well these channels work, and how you perceive them. The key question this piece of research will answer is whether people who feel more connected to their Work Role e.g. Engineer, Social Worker etc. are open to different types of internal communication compared to those who feel more connected to their organisation e.g. an employee at company 'x'.

What if I have questions?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should contact Kevin Rodgers who will do his best to answer your questions (kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk).

You have rights

You may decide to stop being a part of the research study at any time without explanation. You have the right to ask that any data you have supplied to that point be withdrawn/destroyed. You may decide not to continue participating in the study at any time by informing Kevin Rodgers (kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk).

Confidentiality/ Anonymity

The data I collect will be stored on a password protected computer system to which only I will have access. Any personal information (e.g., name, age, level etc.) will not be linked back to your responses and any further use e.g., presentation at conferences, publication, etc. will not be linked to you personally.

For further information you should contact Kevin Rodgers who will do his best to answer your questions (kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk). If you feel you need to speak to someone else, you can contact Dr Ian Ashman, Faculty Head of Research and Governance (i.ashman@mmu.ac.uk).

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Internal communication and authenticity

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Page 2: General Information about you

1. Which of the following groups best describes your age?

- ○ 16-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or older
- ○ Prefer not to say

2. Which of the following describes how you think of yourself?

- ○ Male
- ○ Female
- ○ Prefer not to say

3. Which of the following best describes the hours that you work?

➕ More info

- ○ Full time
- ○ Part time
- ○ Ad-hoc (Zero hours contract or employed when needed)
- ○ Other

4. Which of the following groups best describes your job?

- ○ Senior Manager/Director
- ○ Professional
- ○ Junior or Middle Manager
- ○ Supervisor
- ○ Admin and Secretarial
- ○ Caring, leisure and other service
- ○ Technical
- ○ Semi-skilled
- ○ Routine or manual
- ○ Other

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Internal communication and authenticity

Page 3: How you feel and behave at work

The next two sections ask you about whether you feel more connected to your job or the organisation you work for. We refer to these as work role authenticity (more connected to your job) and corporate authenticity (more connected to your organisation).

This section asks you questions about Work Role Authenticity. Work Role Authenticity happens when you feel, for example, an authintic engineer, or an authentic chef. Some people would say they are content if they are doing their job, regardless of the company they work for.

There are no right and wrong answers to these questions. Just your personal view.

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

5. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please don't select more than 1 answer per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
I get on with my job despite internal politics affecting me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I perform my job well, even when under pressure from the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I come to work mainly for the pay	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get satisfaction from building relationships within my immediate team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to build a network of technical experts, inside and outside my company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Building relationships across the whole company is not a priority	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
At work, I have clear boundaries of what I will and will not do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Improving the quality of my work is important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take more pride in my job than I do in working for the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

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Page 4: How you feel and behave at work?

This section asks you questions about Corporate Authenticity. Corporate Authenticity happens when you feel that you feel connected to the company regardless of what you do for them. Some people would say they feel their values are similar to their company and tend to describe themselves as working for their company, rather than describing their actual job, e.g. I work for HMRC rather than I am an accountant.

There are no right and wrong answers to these questions. Just your personal view.

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

6. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please don't select more than 1 answer per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
I identify with what my company stands for and it's values	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't like getting involved in internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I present a positive view of my company even when it is not the whole truth	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel my company is loyal to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My company respects me as much as I respect it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get satisfaction from telling my friends positive things about my company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most people in my company care about me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is important to build networks with people across the whole company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a sense of belonging when at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

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Page 5: Using emails to communicate at work

7. Do you use **EMAIL** at work?

● Yes
○ No

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

a. This section asks for your views on using **EMAIL** for communication at work. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please don't select more than 1 answer per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
I use email to find out about what my company stands for and it's values	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use emails to help me to learn more about my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use email to help build better team relationships	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

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Page 6: Using Face to Face communication

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

8. This section asks for your views on **FACE TO FACE** communication at work. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please don't select more than 1 answer per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
I get satisfaction from meetings where I can find out more about the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Face to face training events help me to build my wider company network	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Talking to my peers, in person, helps me to understand and deal with internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discussing the pressure of work, with my colleagues, makes it more manageable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

66% complete

Page 7: Using the intranet

9. Do you have an **INTRANET** at work?

- ◉ Yes
- ○ No

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

a. This section asks you about your views on using the **INTRANET** for communication at work. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.Please don't select more than 1 answer per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
The company intranet is my first stop for company information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Looking at information on the intranet gives me a sense of belonging in the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and process that affect my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

77% complete

Page 8: Social Media Communication

10. Which types of **SOCIAL MEDIA** do you use at work or to find out about work? Please click on all that apply

☐ Linked in
☐ Facebook
☐ Facebook messenger
☐ Twitter
☐ You Tube
☐ Instagram
☐ Snap Chat
☐ Internet
☐ Google Plus or Google Apps

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

11. This section asks you about your views on using **SOCIAL MEDIA** for communication at work. Please don't select more than 1 answer per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
When I post, about work, on Social media, I feel like I am representing the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on Social media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I follow industry experts on Social media to learn more	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use Social media to keep in touch with colleagues	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

88% complete

Page 9: Other comments

12. If you have any comments about communication or authenticity that you feel have not been covered please feel free to write those here

By clicking the 'Finish' button below, you are consenting to participate in this study, as it is described in the participant information sheet on page 1. Your responses will be amalgamated with all the other participant's responses and are not retrievable.

‹ Previous   Finish ✓

Appendix 2 – Interviewee information sheet

Participant Information

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. Before you decide you need to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not to take part. Whilst we cannot promise the study will help you personally the information we get from the study will be used to contribute to the understanding of how to improve communication at work.

Aims of the research

This research project will explore how much individual personality traits affect openness to internal communication in organisations? The key question this piece of research will answer is whether people who feel more connected to their Work Role e.g. Engineer, Social Worker etc. are more open to different types of internal communication compared to those who feel more connected to their organisation e.g. an employee at company 'x'.

What if I have questions?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should ask to speak to Kevin Rodgers who will do his best to answer your questions (07838 159760 or kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk).

Participant Rights

You may decide to stop being a part of the research study at any time without explanation. You have the right to ask that any data you have supplied to that point be withdrawn/destroyed. You may decide not to continue participating in the study at any time by informing Kevin Rodgers (07838 159760 or kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk).

Confidentiality/ Anonymity

The data we collect will be stored on a password protected computer system to which only the principal researcher will have access. Any personal information (e.g., name, email, age, department etc.) will not be linked back to your responses and any further use e.g., presentation at conferences, publication, etc. will not be linked to individual participants.

For further information you should ask to speak to Kevin Rodgers who will do his best to answer your questions (07838 159760 or kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk). If you feel you need to speak to someone else you can contact the Research Director Dr Ian Ashman (i.ashman@mmu.ac.uk).

Appendix 3 – Interviewee consent sheet

An Investigation into the relationship between authenticity and openness to internal communication (IC) in organisations

Consent form

Issue	Respondent's initial
I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study " An Investigation into the relationship between authenticity and openness to internal communication (IC) in organisations"	
I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, and received satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted.	
I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research. Quotations will be kept anonymous.	
I give permission for the interview to be recorded using audio recording equipment.	
I understand that relevant sections of the data collected during the study may be looked at by individuals from Manchester Metropolitan University or from regulatory authorities, where it is relevant to my taking part in this research. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my responses.	

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree to participate in this study.

I agree to being contacted again by the researchers if my responses give rise to interesting findings or cross references.

☐ no

☐ yes

>   if yes, my preferred method of being contacted is:

>   ☐ telephone ……………………………………………………..

>   ☐ email ……………………………………………………….

>   ☐ other ……………………………………………………..

Participant Name:		Consent taken by:	
Participant Signature:		Signature:	
Date		Date	

Appendix 4 – Researcher interview guide

IC	How would you define what IC is? Who is responsible for IC?
IC Strategy	What is it? How did you agree on it? How often do you review it? Who is responsible for strategy?
IC Measurement	How do you know your comms are effective? How do you measure day to day?
Audience Segmentation	What different types of audiences have you identified that need to be communicated with? What different strategies do you have to reach these audiences? How do you make sure different audiences receive your message?
Platforms	
Social Media Facebook Twitter Instagram You Tube Snapchat ??	For what types of communication do you rely on face-to-face IC? Which social media platforms do you use? How do you decide which to use with which audience segment? Which provides most 2 way communication? Which have you discounted? Why? What type of IC do you use social media for? How do people access social media?
Face-to-face	For what types of communication do you rely on face-to-face IC? How do you monitor the effectiveness of face-to-face communication? With which audience segments is it most effective? What training do you offer to make it more effective?
Email	For what types of communication do you rely on email for IC? How do you monitor the effectiveness of face-to-face communication? With which audience segments is it most effective? What training do you offer to make it more effective?
Intranet	For what types of communication do you rely on your intranet for IC? How big a part does your intranet play in the IC strategy? What type of IC do you use your intranet for? How do people access the intranet?
Ethics	Who checks IC for appropriateness/fairness? How do they do this?

Authenticity	How would you define what authenticity is? How important is it that employees behave authentically?
Definition	Give me some examples of people who you would describe as authentic? What do they do to appear authentic? Give me some examples of people who you would describe as inauthentic? What do they do to appear inauthentic? (filter into CA and WRA during analysis)
Impact Authenticity	How do you think Authenticity impacts on people at work? What would people do more/less of if they were more Authentic? How would this impact on performance? What would be the impact on relationships with managers? How do you think this would impact on how open individuals are to internal communication?

Appendix 5 – Coding or categorisation table

Appendix 6 – Original questionnaire design

Internal communication and authenticity

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Page 1: Internal Communication and Authenticity

Participant Information

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. Before you decide you need to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not to take part. Whilst we cannot promise the study will help you personally the information we get from the study will be used to contribute to the understanding of how to improve communication at work.

Aims of the research

This research project will explore how much individual traits affect openness to internal communication in organisations? The key question this piece of research will answer is whether people who feel more connected to their Work Role e.g. Engineer, Social Worker etc. are more open to different types of internal communication compared to those who feel more connected to their organisation e.g. an employee at company 'x'.

What if I have questions?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should contact Kevin Rodgers who will do his best to answer your questions (07838 159760 or kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk).

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Confidentiality/ Anonymity

The data we collect will be stored on a password protected computer system to which only the principal researcher will have access. Any personal information (e.g., name, email, age, department etc.) will not be linked back to your responses and any further use e.g., presentation at conferences, publication, etc. will not be linked to individual participants.

For further information you should contact Kevin Rodgers who will do his best to answer your questions (07838 159760 or kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk). If you feel you need to speak to someone else you can contact the Research Director Dr Ian Ashman (i.ashman@mmu.ac.uk).

Next >

Internal communication and authenticity

20% complete

Page 2: Consent to use your information

1. I have read the information presented on the previous page about the study " An Investigation into the relationship between authenticity and openness to internal communication (IC) in organisations"

○ yes

2. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, and received satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted.

○ yes

3. I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research. Quotations will be kept anonymous.

○ yes

4. I understand that relevant sections of the data collected during the study may be looked at by individuals from Manchester Metropolitan University or from regulatory authorities, where it is relevant to my taking part in this research. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my responses.

○ yes

5. I agree to being contacted again by the researchers if my responses give rise to interesting findings or cross references.

⊞ More info

○ yes
○ no

a. Please enter your email or mobile number if you are happy for us to contact you

[   ]

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Internal communication and authenticity

40% complete

Page 3: General Information about you

6. What is your age?

- ○ 16-24
- ○ 25-34
- ○ 35-44
- ○ 45-54
- ○ 55-64
- ○ 65 or older

7. What is your gender?

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

8. Do you work

➕ More info

- ○ Full time
- ○ Part time
- ○ Ad-hoc (Zero hours contract or employed when needed)
- ○ Other

9. Is your company:

- ○ Private sector
- ○ Public sector
- ○ Other

10. Occupation type

- ○ Senior Manager/Director
- ○ Professional
- ○ Junior or Middle Manager
- ○ Supervisor
- ○ Technical
- ○ Semi-skilled
- ○ Routine or manual
- ○ Other

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Internal communication and authenticity

Page 4: How you feel and behave at work

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

> In work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
I identify with my company's brand	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I dislike being involved in internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have clear boundaries of what I will and will not do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I perform my job well even when under pressure	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I present a positive view of my company even when it is not accurate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am passionate about working for my company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Working unsociable hours is acceptable if it gets the job done	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer to build relationships within my team than across the whole company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have mutual respect for my company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy telling my friends positive things about my company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy feeling I have done a good job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get on with my job despite the internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My organisation cares about me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is important to build company wide networks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Improving the quality of my job is important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am passionate about doing my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a sense of belonging when at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel my company is loyal to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I come to work solely for the pay	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take more pride in my job than working for the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Internal communication and authenticity

80% complete

Page 5: How you feel about different types of communication at work

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

12. This section asks for your views on using **emails** for communication at work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
I use email to find out about the brand of my organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Email helps me to find out about internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use emails to help me to learn more about my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I avoid emails because I'm more interested in the pay	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Building a company wide network is helped by using email	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Receiving emails from the company gives me a sense of belonging	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use emails to communicate what I will and will not do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Building team relationships is helped by using emails	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

13. This section asks for your views on **face to face** communication at work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
Talking to my peers helps me to deal with internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discussing the pressure of work with my colleagues makes it more manageable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can accept some of the negatives aspects of my company by talking with my peers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy company meetings where I can find out more about the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to tell my manager about a job well done, face to face	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer to speak face to face when telling people what I will and will not do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Meetings with my manager make me feel the company cares about me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Face to face training events help me to build my wider company network	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. This section asks you about your views on using the **Intranet** for communication at work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
The company intranet is my 'go to' place for company information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Looking at information on the intranet gives me a sense of belonging to the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use the intranet to find out about the new procedures and process that affect my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use the intranet to show the company what a good job my team does	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Having access to the intranet helps me to identify with the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The intranet helps me to balance the public image of the company with what is actually happening	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Having access to the intranet helps me to do a better job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use the intranet to suggest improvements to my job or department	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

15. This section asks you about your views on using **Facebook and Facebook Messenger** for communication at work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
I use Facebook and messenger to keep in touch with my team	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Facebook lets me connect with technical experts inside and outside of the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I post, about work, on Facebook I feel like I am representing the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Facebook allows me to find out about who is getting promoted	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Facebook groups allow me to ask questions and develop my skills	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use Facebook to keep updated on job opportunities in the industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Using Facebook and messenger gives me a chance to interact with company-wide colleagues I may never meet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I 'like' my company's posts and follow them on Facebook	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

16. This section asks you about your views on using **Twitter** for communication at work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
Twitter is my go to way of finding out about the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I make sure I follow my company on Twitter	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I follow industry experts on Twitter to learn more	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Twitter gives me a chance to quickly vent about organisational pressures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Twitter gives me an opportunity to have a 2 way conversation with the company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Receiving messages, from my company, on Twitter makes me feel I belong	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I tweet about my pride and passion for my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use Twitter to keep in touch when working unsociable hours	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?

17. This section asks you about your views on using **other Social Media** for communication at work

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree	Not applicable
I use social media to gain up to date information about my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social media is useful to get opinions from people who are more experienced doing my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social media helps me to find out about internal politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I build my wider company network using Social media	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social media enables me to keep in touch with my team when I work unsociable hours	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use Social media posts to tell people what I'm doing at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use social media to find out about job opportunities at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social media about the company gives me a sense of belonging	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Finish ✔

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Internal communication and authenticity

100% complete

Final page

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

If you are interested in a brief summary of the findings, available from January 2021, please send an email to kevin.rodgers@stu.mmu.ac.uk

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Appendix 7 - Non-significant trends

Although these relationships are not included in the main thesis, the results of this study highlighted several non-significant relationships which could indicate trends for future research. These relationships are presented below with explanatory narrative.

WRA has a non-significant negative correlation with intranet communication.

Work role authenticity negatively correlates with intranet communication (r=-0.249, p<0.112). This correlation, although non-significant highlights a trend for high work role authentic employees to dislike intranet communication. The presence of a negative correlation indicates that the higher on the work role authenticity scale an individual is the less they will be open to intranet communication.

CA has a non-significant negative correlation with intranet communication.

Corporate authenticity negatively correlates with intranet communication (r=-0.091, p=0.568). This relationship is not significant. The presence of a negative correlation indicates that the higher on the corporate authenticity scale an individual is the less they will be open to intranet communication.

Intranet communication had a negative correlation with openness to face-to-face and social media communication

Intranet communication had a negative correlation with openness to face-to-face (r=-0.220, p=0.161), and social media (r=-0.236, p=0.142) communication. These are not significant relationships but highlight a trend for high openness to face-to-face and social media communication to predict less openness to intranet communication. Email communication has a non-significant negative correlation with intranet (r=-0.012, p=0.940).

Impact

Higher scores on WRA/CA relate to lower scores on intranet communication. This is not a significant relationship but does indicate a trend for employees to move away

from intranet communication, as previously discussed, and as highlighted by Grossman (2019).

WRA has non-significant influence on openness to email communication. This could partially be the result of a non-symmetrical distribution, as discussed earlier or could be a general lack of openness to email resulting from overuse, highlighted in phase one. Alternatively, emails could be inclined to communicate corporate themes to which WRA individuals/employees are less attentive.