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A R T I C L E S

SOMETHING OLD, SOMETHING NEW: REFRAMING THE INTEGRATION OF SOCIAL CAPITAL INTO STRATEGIC HRM RESEARCH

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Relationships drive numerous organizational capabilities. While this is generally acknowledged, many of the most widely used frameworks guiding research and practice in human resource management (HRM) do not explicitly incorporate social capital and social network factors in their designs, despite recognition that relationships are influential. In this paper, we argue for an explicit integration and application of social capital mechanisms in strategic HRM frameworks. We illustrate how a relationship lens can contribute to strategic HRM thinking at the individual level using extensions of the job characteristics model, at the group level by enhancing the design of effective work groups, and at the organizational level by augmenting the HR architecture. Further, consistent with the emerging co-evolution perspective on microfoundations of organizational outcomes, we propose that social capital and its development should be considered an input to HRM policies and practices, an element in implementation processes, and an outcome of HR activities. The proposed ideas both fill a gap in current strategic HRM theory and practice and challenge some of the basic assumptions guiding much of the work in this area. Implications for research and practice are discussed.

The integration of human capital and social capital is the engine of organizational capabilities. Work gets done by talented people working together (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Social capital is a prerequisite for many crucial organizational capabilities that lead to competitive advantage (Collins & Clark, 2003), such as sharing knowledge (Becerra, Lunnan, & Huemer, 2008), managing organizational behavior and motivation (Adler & Kwon, 2002), leveraging human capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), forming alliances (Chung, Singh, & Lee, 2000), and resolving complicated problems (Chang & Harrington, 2007). In addition, the traits and cognitions of individuals shape the networks in which they operate and the social patterns they develop and understand (Tasselli, Kilduff, & Menges, 2015), thus creating the context for organizational work.

The growing emphasis on social capital has fostered an expansion of the crucial role of human resources (HR) in managing relationships within and

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beyond the boundaries of organizations (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2003a, Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2003b). Calls for integrating social capital and social systems into strategic human resource management (HRM) frameworks are not new. A number of scholars have called for more robust integration of strategic HRM with social capital (Boon, Eckardt, Lepak, & Boselie, 2018, Colbert, 2004; Gittell, Seidner, & Wimbush, 2010; Hayton, 2005; Hitt & Ireland, 2002, Hollenbeck & Jamieson, 2015; Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2003a). The utility of social capital as an important instrument in the strategic HRM toolbox has been widely acknowledged (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Leana & Van Buren, 1999). Employment practices that encourage strong organizational norms, stable relationships, collaborative collective actions, and high levels of trust contribute to developing social capital (Leana & Van Buren, 1999). This, in turn, leads to a variety of benefits ranging from lower costs to increased flexibility to greater intellectual capital to enhanced innovation (Grant, 1996, Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade, & Drake, 2009; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Network-building HR practices such as mentoring, collective incentives, and performance appraisals have been shown to encourage top managers to develop social networks and lead to better organizational performance (Collins & Clark, 2003). Others have found positive links between HR systems, and configurations of human capital, intellectual capital, social capital, and competitive performance (Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000; Youndt & Snell, 2004). However, research that has developed explicit mechanisms to integrate social capital with widely used HRM frameworks has been limited.

Hitt and Ireland (2002), for example, presented a strong argument that a focus of strategic leadership needs to be the creation of intangible human and social capital. They effectively summarized the multiple contributions of internal and external social capital and explained that effective management of resource stocks—including human talent—is a crucial element for doing this, but stopped short of providing a specific framework or explicit guidance for human resource professionals. Likewise, Colbert (2004), who viewed strategic HRM as a complex-system extension of the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm (Barney, 1991), articulated the need for a stronger theoretical foundation, including clear explanations of the ways in which elements in a firm's social system interact and are integrated. He echoed Barney and others (e.g., Oliver, 1997; Peteraf, 1993) who explained how a firm's social system can be key to leveraging causal ambiguity and inimitability, thereby enhancing the competitive influence of HR practices and the resulting individual and organizational capabilities; however, he did not articulate the means to do this. Brass (1995) argued for the importance of focusing less on discrete human resources and more on the outcomes of personal relationships and social interactions. Similarly, Hayton (2005) presented a compelling case that human and social capital is essential for the learning processes that enable corporate entrepreneurship. He argued specifically that future HR research should explore ways in which HR systems foster social relationships and exchanges that facilitate knowledge creation and sharing. His model, however, did not go beyond using a general combination of social capital, trust, and organization citizenship behaviors as a mediating construct.

Both human capital and social capital have been shown to lead to strong performance (Youndt & Snell, 2004). Over time, HR research has expanded to consider social capital along with more traditional HR policies and practices as means to increase the competitive capabilities of firms operating as complex systems (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2003a). Yet, most HR research has remained focused on how HR practices might be shaped to develop and use social capital for competitive advantage. Leana and Van Buren (1999), for example, explored the role of strategic HRM in developing a firm's social capital, and argued that relationships facilitate the successful collective actions that enable firms to thrive. Following this theme, Gittell et al. (2010) discussed the performance benefits of relationships and argued that coordination is at its core a relational process; however, they focused more on how to attain relational coordination than on directly integrating social capital into specific HR policies, practices, and frameworks. Their study drew distinctions between relational coordination, which entails relationships across roles, and social capital, which is based more on personal ties. They reiterated the criticality of relationships, and argued that work practices need to be redesigned to nurture relationships, but focused on testing the associations among high-performance work systems (HPWS), relational coordination, and outcomes rather than developing explicit models that integrate social capital and HR decisions (Gittell et al., 2010).

A few studies have taken a more direct approach to blending social capital and strategic HRM perspectives. Kang, Morris, and Snell (2007), for example, identified ways in which the dimensions of social relations might contribute to entrepreneurial or cooperative organizational learning. They then proposed how this might lead to differences in core employees' relationships with internal and external partners. Collins and Clark (2003) empirically examined how top managers' social network patterns mediated the connection between HR practices and organizational performance. Along a similar theme, Evans and Davis (2005) developed a model illustrating how internal social structure characteristics such as bridging weak ties, reciprocity, and shared mental models might mediate the relation between HPWS and firm performance. Leana and Pil (2006) and Pil and Leana (2009) looked at the role of social capital in public schools. While their research demonstrated the importance of context in understanding the connections between social capital and performance, it did not specifically tie social capital ideas to strategic HRM models or practices. Clearly, these studies offer useful insights, but a gap remains in understanding how social capital can be integrated into strategic HRM activities, frameworks, and decisions.

In their recent article in a special issue of *Academy of Management Perspectives*, Hollenbeck and Jamieson (2015) contended that social capital and social network analysis has been greatly underutilized in strategic HRM research despite the potential for unique contributions to understanding complex organizational relationships. They argued that most HR research and practice has emphasized frameworks that focus on individual or job attributes and how they interact, which neglects an understanding of relationships between individuals. One expressed aim of their article was to trigger new lines of thinking and research that blend social capital and strategic HRM. Boon et al. (2018) argued that knowledge flows through social capital, and consequently also called for incorporating social capital perspectives more explicitly into strategic HRM models. Despite this, two recent studies using bibliometric methods have shown that social capital has not been a theme in HRM research (García-Lillo, Úbeda-García, & Marco-Lajara, 2017; Lee, Lin, & Huang, 2017). Our paper responds to these calls.

We propose that the explicit integration of a relationship perspective within the dominant conceptual models driving strategic HRM theory provides an extended, complementary, and particularly useful lens for developing and applying established HR frameworks. However, doing this requires rethinking familiar tools, techniques, and assumptions. The next sections offer examples of this rethinking.

WHAT WE KNOW AND WHAT WE NEED TO LEARN

Social capital has been defined at three different levels: individual, group, and organizational. Adler and Kwon (2002: 23) defined social capital as "the goodwill available to individuals or groups." At the *individual* level, "social capital lies in the structure and content of the actor's social relations. Its effects flow from the information, influence, and solidarity it makes available to the actor" (Adler & Kwon, 2002: 23). *Group* social capital is the "configuration of a group member's social relationships within the social structure of the group itself, as well as in the broader social structure of the organization to which the group belongs, through which necessary resources for the group can be accessed" (Oh, Chung, & Labianca, 2004: 861). Leana and Van Buren (1999: 538) defined *organizational* social capital as "a resource reflecting the character of social relations within the organization; it is realized through members' levels of collective goal orientation and shared trust, which create value by facilitating collective action." The multilevel and multidimensional attributes of social capital provide a useful bridge among various levels of strategic HRM policies, practices, and perspectives.

Integrating social capital and human capital into strategic HRM theory and practice is crucial for at least two reasons. First, human capital reflects an individual's *ability* while social capital captures an individual's *opportunity* (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Burt, 1997). For example, in his study of families and primary education, Coleman (1988) demonstrated that the level of human capital possessed by a parent was irrelevant unless there was sufficient social capital to put the human capital to use. Similarly, in organizations, simply possessing human capital is insufficient to guarantee its effective application. Second, the reciprocal interplay between social capital and human capital is complex, so these elements should be studied in conjunction rather than in isolation (Tasselli et al., 2015). Social capital is an important mechanism for unleashing and amplifying human capital (Carpenter, Li, & Jiang, 2012). In addition, human capital is often an antecedent of social capital (Oh & Kilduff, 2008). Research on expert power has shown that knowledge, skills, abilities, and other attributes (KSAOs) may affect an individual's influence and power over others (Tsai, 2001). Likewise, social capital is often an antecedent of human capital (Balkundi, Kilduff, & Harrison, 2011). One's social connections provide access to new KSAOs since individuals tend to seek out relationships with more knowledgeable others. The reciprocal, mutually reinforcing interactions between these two elements suggest that social capital is a key element for designing effective HR systems. Yet, as noted, much of the research and practice focused on designing effective HR systems has focused almost exclusively on human capital while giving only lip service to social capital.

Influential research generally either bridges gaps or challenges assumptions of existing scholarship (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). This paper does both. First, we address gaps in the strategic HRM literature. We provide some concrete examples of effective mechanisms for doing this. In addition, this paper challenges a primary assumption at the foundation of much HR theory and research. HR practices often assume that the primary intent of HR functions, such as recruitment, selection, motivation, and training and development, should be to develop individual human capital. Research has suggested that this is necessary but not sufficient (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Both individual and collective talents and activities are needed for strong organizational performance. HR practices contribute more to organizational capabilities if human capital and relationship factors are explicitly integrated with human capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Burt, 1997; Tasselli et al., 2015).

Despite substantial research explaining the value of social capital, as we noted in the introduction, there has been relatively little work that specifically integrates a relationship orientation into the established models and frameworks that guide much HR practice and theory. Therefore, while social capital and social network concepts are often accepted as important factors to consider, there has been little guidance regarding how to actually undertake this consideration through HR practices or policies. Our paper takes a preliminary step toward closing this gap and challenging prevailing boundaries.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. We begin with a brief overview of the ways in which social capital perspectives influence the conceptualization of strategic HRM frameworks and theory. Next, we discuss three prominent HR models, which we use as vehicles to illustrate how they could become more powerful explanatory tools and mechanisms for HR action if a relationship orientation is explicitly integrated within these conceptualizations. We illustrate how a relationship perspective contributes to HR activities at the individual level through extensions of the job characteristics model (JCM) (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), at the group level by enhancing themes for designing effective work groups (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993), and at the organization level by integrating relationship factors within the HR architecture (Lepak & Snell, 1999). These models were chosen because they are familiar and well-researched; however, we use them as illustrations and do not suggest that they are the only HR models that might benefit from being reframed to explicitly integrate social capital. We conclude with a discussion of implications for strategic HRM theory and practice.

HOW DOES A RELATIONSHIP PERSPECTIVE ENHANCE STRATEGIC HRM MODELS?

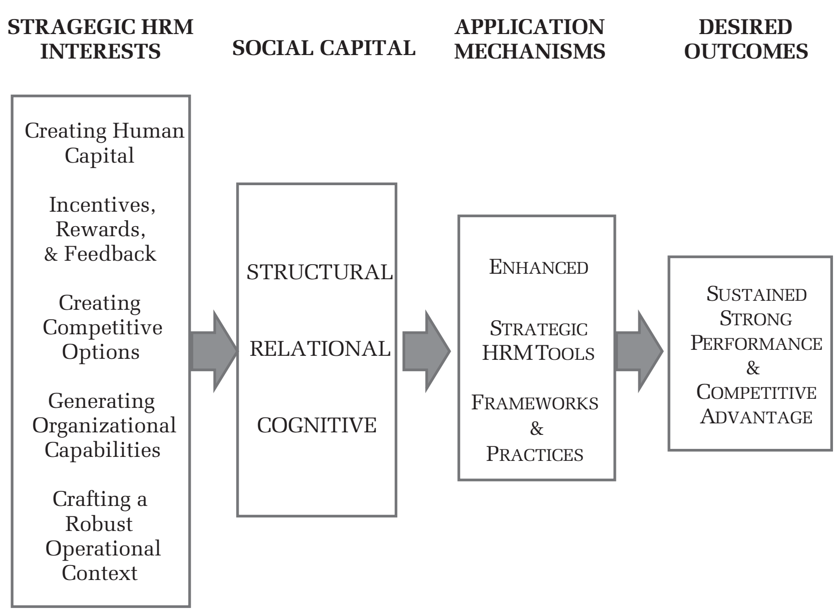
Wellman (1983) articulated five basic principles that are useful for understanding how relationships influence HR frameworks and practices and ultimately contribute to competitive advantage. First, behavior is best predicted by the web of relationships in which people are embedded. Understanding ties with other people—both inside and outside the organization—is critical to explaining why employees act or fail to act. Second, relationships among actors should be emphasized rather than focusing only on the characteristics of the actors themselves. This suggests that strategies designed to influence the degree of rapport, bonding, affinity, and breadth of interactions between and among employees (Greenhalgh, 2001) are a crucial element in HR activities. Third, organizational units, and therefore the employees within them, are interdependent. While interdependence among actors and processes is usually acknowledged, it is not often integrated directly into HRM frameworks and models. Fourth, understanding a social system requires more than merely aggregating dyadic ties. This is similar to the general systems theory premise that nested systems not only incorporate the characteristics of their subsystems but also develop new patterns and attributes that reflect their expanded complexity (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). The interactive and emergent processes by which collective systems are formed depend extensively on social relationships and types of aggregation patterns used to create cohesive systems (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Finally, levels of analysis (e.g., individuals, groups, units, organizations) often have fuzzy rather than rigid boundaries, and social relationships help define the spillover and explain the consequences of multilevel activities. Reconceptualizing boundaries suggests a way to reframe the appropriate scope of strategic HRM activities and models. These five principles are consistent with many of the theoretical underpinnings of a social network perspective (Katz, Lazer, Arrow, & Contractor, 2004; Kilduff & Brass, 2010a).

Relationships are an essential link between HR activities and organization performance. Three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive) interact to shape the way in which relationships influence organizational activities (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). HR practices such as work design, reward structures, and training and development activities drive the structural, affective, and cognitive characteristics of interpersonal relations and ultimately lead to value creation (Kaše, Paauwe, & Zupan, 2009). Relationships are crucial for learning and for transmitting knowledge effectively because of their influence on power, control (Adler & Kwon, 2002), and trust (Leana & Van Buren, 1999). Social capital is tied to competitive advantage since it is causally ambiguous and path dependent, making it difficult for rivals to imitate or appropriate (Barney, 1991).

We propose that strategic HRM frameworks are more likely to generate desired performance outcomes if they explicitly incorporate the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as well as relevant network characteristics into their conceptual design and application strategies. This logic is depicted in Figure 1.

Despite acknowledging the importance of social capital and interpersonal ties, the most widely used strategic HRM frameworks have not explicitly incorporated a relationship orientation. We selected three frameworks to illustrate this omission and demonstrate how reframing them to explicitly include social capital and social network concepts might contribute to strategic HRM research. Based on their wide citation rates and use, these three frameworks have demonstrated particular value for both research and theory development and for organizational practice. Since strategic HRM involves multilevel concepts, we chose one framework used at the individual level of analysis (the JCM), one at the group level (designing effective work groups), and one at the organizational level of analysis (HR architecture) to illustrate our thinking. These models were chosen because they are familiar and well-researched. As noted, we use them as illustrations and do not suggest that these are the only HR frameworks that might benefit from being reframed to explicitly integrate social capital. In the sections that follow, we briefly describe each model and then explain how social capital can be used to enhance them.

FIGURE 1
Overview of Relationship Perspectives on Strategic Human Resource Management



REFRAMING ESTABLISHED HRM MODELS FROM A RELATIONSHIP PERSPECTIVE

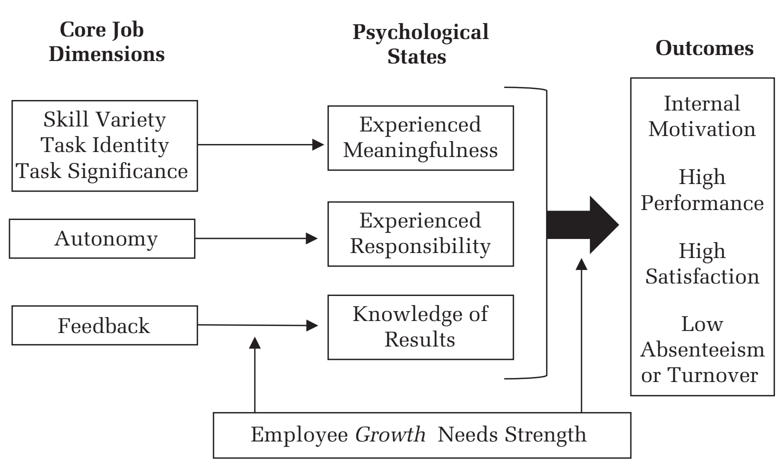
Job Design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976)

Job design is the process of structuring work to maximize performance and worker satisfaction, thereby improving both effectiveness and affect. Mechanisms such as job enlargement, job rotation, and job enrichment all emphasize the task and functional elements of work. In the JCM, five core job dimensions are adjusted to make work more meaningful, increase a worker's sense of personal responsibility, allow more discretion, and increase an employee's knowledge of the effectiveness of their efforts. Hackman and Oldham (1976) argued that skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback are job design characteristics that motivate employees toward desirable outcomes. By using many skills (i.e., *skill variety*), completing a whole product or service (i.e., *task identity*), and understanding the importance of their job to others (i.e., *task significance*), individuals ascribe meaning and value to their work. *Autonomy* allows individuals to determine when and how they work, which creates a sense of responsibility and accountability for what they do because they have significant control over their job. *Feedback* from supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, and most importantly from the job itself provides knowledge of effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) and enables employees to improve over time. Research has shown that employees with well-designed jobs realize higher internal work motivation, higher job performance, greater satisfaction with work, and lower absenteeism. The strength of these relationships is moderated by an individual's *growth needs strength* (i.e., a strong desire for personal growth and development [McClelland, 1987]). Since not all employees have strong growth needs, it is not possible to increase internal work motivation for everyone (Champoux, 1980; Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Oldham, 1976; Pierce, Dunham, & Blackburn, 1979). This framework is depicted in Figure 2.

The JCM has received a great deal of empirical support (Champoux, 1980; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Kelloway & Barling, 1991; Oldham & Fried, 2016; Spector, 1985). A meta-analysis of nearly 200 studies determined that the relationships between job characteristics and psychological outcomes are stronger than the relationships between job characteristics and behavioral outcomes (Fried & Ferris, 1987). In a comprehensive meta-analysis of the JCM, Humphrey et al. (2007) found that all five of the job characteristics were positively related to job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, internal work motivation, and organizational commitment.

Job design incorporating a relationship perspective. We argue that a social capital perspective offers an additional means to motivate employees by designing jobs to augment relationship or affiliation needs as well as growth needs. Social capital (e.g., Adler & Kwon, 2002; Burt, 1992; Coleman, 1990; Hansen, 1999; Hansen, Podolny, & Pfeffer, 2001; Maurer & Ebers, 2006; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Portes, 1998; Schneider, 1987) and social network (e.g., Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004; Granovetter, 1973; Kilduff & Brass, 2010a; Zhou, Shin, Brass, Choi, & Zhang, 2009) perspectives have

FIGURE 2
Individual Job Design Using Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model

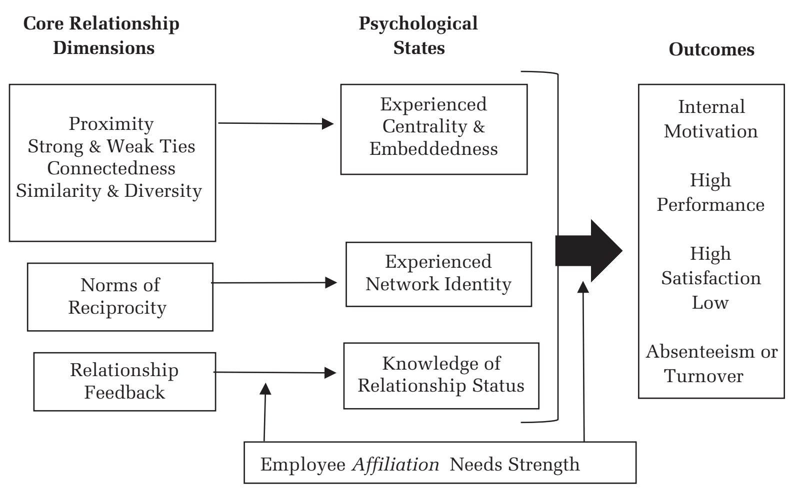


built on stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997) to argue that people have intrinsic needs, such as affiliation (McClelland, 1987) and belongingness (Maslow, 1943), that involve relationships with other people in the workplace. Consistent with this, Oldham and Hackman (2010) acknowledged the limitations of their JCM model regarding the lack of social context. Kilduff and Brass (2010b) provided additional support by suggesting how social network theory can influence the components of the JCM model (e.g., how density influences autonomy). We advance these works by integrating a relationship perspective that addresses both social and motivational domains (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). The framework in Figure 3 illustrates how jobs can be designed to capture important dimensions that promote psychological states leading to structural, cognitive, and relational elements of social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

The core relationship dimensions (analogous to core job dimensions) include proximity, strong and weak ties, connectedness, similarity and diversity, norms of reciprocity, and feedback. *Proximity factors* include designing jobs to consider physical, temporal, and psychological closeness to facilitate interactions. Proximity makes it easier, and therefore more likely, that interpersonal relationships will develop (Brass et al., 2004). Creating both *strong and weak ties* that reach inside and beyond the borders of an organization helps develop deep social capital and extend the range offered by structural holes (Burt, 1992). Designing jobs that offer sufficient *connectedness* to avoid feelings of isolation yet adequate distance to prevent employees from becoming overwhelmed by interaction requirements facilitates effective social network patterns (Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001; Hansen et al., 2001). Employees benefit from balancing sufficient *similarity* in attitudes, culture, structural position, identity, values, and goals as a basis for trust and collaboration but adequate *diversity* among these same factors to enable nonredundant ties and a variety of information sources (Granovetter, 1973). Creating norms of reciprocity facilitates the expectation that people will respond favorably to each other and try to avoid harm.

Combined, these four factors (proximity, strong and weak ties, connectedness, and similarity and diversity) lead to a psychological state of experienced *centrality* and *embeddedness* that promotes a variety of desirable intermediate outcomes such as resource acquisition, perceptions of legitimacy, influence, power, and engagement (Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001; Yang, Lin, & Peng, 2011). Building further on the structure of the JCM, as *norms of reciprocity* become firmly established, individuals are expected to experience strong *network identity*. Network identity results from a shared sense of purpose and interdependence among work group members (Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000). This identity reinforces rules of behavior enabling relational coordination (i.e., the management of interdependencies among individuals who perform tasks) and cooperation (Gittell, Weinberg, Pfefferle, & Bishop, 2008). Feedback remains important, but rather than feedback from the job regarding task accomplishments the relevant feedback is centered on relationship issues such as *rapport* (trust, disclosure, empathy, respect, acceptance), *bonding* (allies, collaborators, mutual gain),

FIGURE 3
Enhancing Job Design Using a Relationship Characteristics Model



breadth of relationships (scope and duration), and *affinity* (liking, common interests, attraction). These attributes provide a clear understanding of an individual's *relationship status* (Greenhalgh, 2001).

Centrality and embeddedness, network identity, and knowledge of relationship status, in turn, are positively related to desirable psychological (e.g., internal motivation and satisfaction [Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001]), and high performance (Collins & Clark, 2003; Leana & Pil, 2006; Uzzi, 1996, 1997) lower absenteeism and turnover (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993; Shaw, Duffy, Johnson, & Lockhart, 2005), outcomes. The strength of the connections between relationship-oriented job design factors, psychological states, and desirable outcomes is expected to be influenced by the strength of an individual's *affiliation needs* (McClelland, 1987) and concern with belonging to a cohesive group or social network.

In their meta-analysis of motivational, social, and contextual work factors, Humphrey et al. (2007) showed that social characteristics (e.g., task interdependence, feedback from others, social support, and interaction outside the organization) explained an additional 24% of the variance in turnover intentions, 40% of the variance in organizational commitment, and 44% of the variance in the six satisfaction outcomes (i.e., job, growth, supervisor, coworker, compensation, and promotion satisfaction). These social characteristics reflect an employee's interpersonal ties, the extent to which an employee is connected to the firm, norms of reciprocity within the network, and feedback from others. A meta-analysis on leader–member exchange (LMX) theory (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012), which focuses specifically on the relationships between supervisors and employees, found that positive perceptions of supervisor–subordinate relationships (i.e., high LMX) are moderately related to turnover intentions, overall organizational citizenship behaviors, and job performance. The relationships between LMX and general job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervisor, and employee empowerment were much stronger. These findings support the value of explicitly integrating social capital characteristics into models of job design.

The original JCM focuses on structural and psychological elements of job design but neglects to consider the social context in which work takes place. Effective workplace communication, sensemaking, judgment, and practice are situated activities that reflect the social context in which they occur (Barge & Oliver, 2003). Studies of high-reliability organizations and organizations that deal with high levels of complexity and volatility have demonstrated the importance of community, situated learning, and relational skills that enable nuanced information to be shared (Bigley & Roberts, 2001; Weick & Roberts, 1993). Even in less complicated workplace environments, the experience of work is strongly influenced by relationships with others. This phenomenon was illustrated in Donald Roy's classic 1959 study of workers in a machine shop in Chicago (Roy, 1959). As Okhuysen, Lepak, Ashcraft, Labianca, Smith, and Seensma (2013) pointed out, work comprises both content and context.

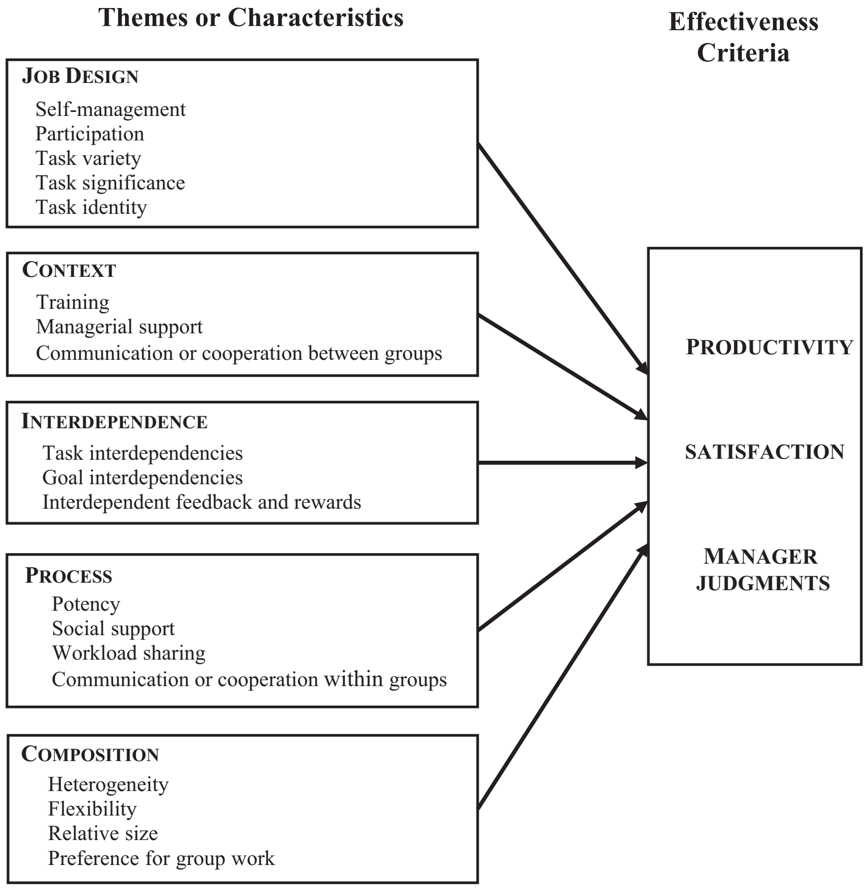
Designing Effective Work Groups (Campion et al., 1993)

As a consequence of demands for specialized expertise, skill diversity, agility, and quick action, many organizations are shifting from designing individual jobs embedded in functional structures to more complex settings that rely on teams and work groups (Devine, Clayton, Phillips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Although work groups and teams have the potential to boost productivity and satisfaction among employees, research has also shown that group work can potentially lead to negative outcomes, including low productivity (Whyte, 1955), poor decisions (Janis, 1972), and conflict (Alderfer, 1977).

Campion et al. (1993) conducted a comprehensive review of the literature and identified five sets of thematic team characteristics related to team effectiveness: job design, team composition, contextual factors, task interdependence, and process. They proposed that by designing work groups to incorporate particular job, group, and organizational characteristics (see Figure 4) the production–satisfaction dilemma can be overcome, leading to higher employee satisfaction, greater productivity, and better managerial judgments or perceptions of employee effectiveness.

In this model, the design of effective work groups begins with job design including factors from the JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Second, a group's interdependence is seen as crucial for functioning effectively. A group must incorporate interdependent goals, tasks, and feedback to ensure it is more than just a division of work to accomplish a project or task. As we will discuss, this signals the importance of relationship factors. Third, group composition considers the extent to which group members are heterogeneous or homogeneous, how flexible they are, the size of the group, and whether the

FIGURE 4
Campion, Medsker and Higgs (1993) Themes for Designing Effective Work Groups

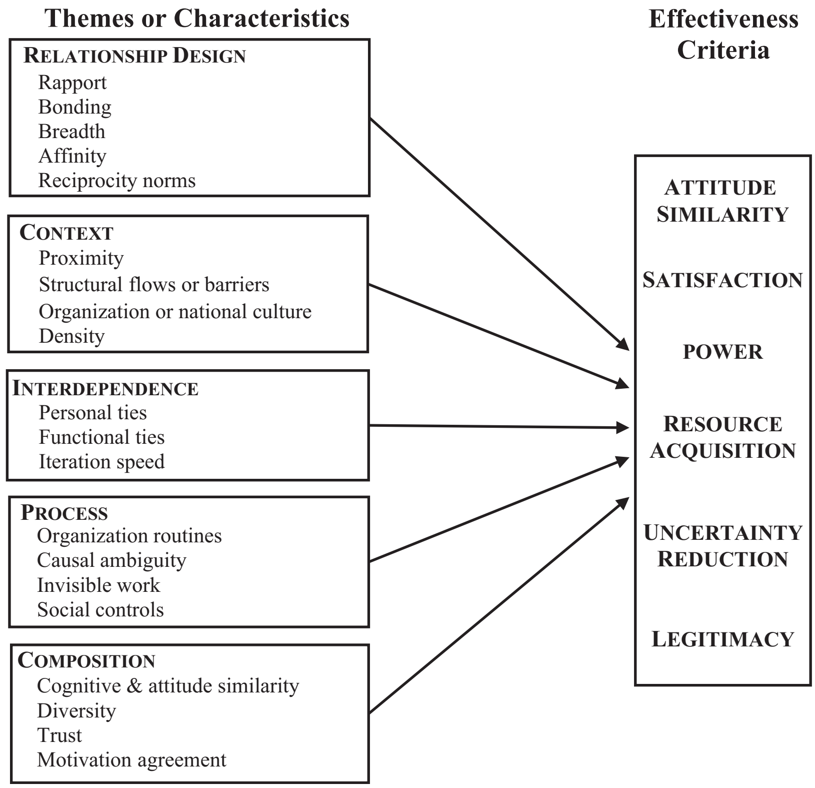


individuals comprising the group have a preference for working collectively. Fourth, context considers how characteristics of the work situation, such as managerial support or high communication or cooperation, facilitate or hinder group productivity. Finally, process recognizes that groups must believe they have the skills and abilities necessary to fulfill the task requirements, have positive social interactions and social support, and share the work in ways that are equitable, fair, and beneficial to all group members.

Using an administrative sample, Campion et al. (1993) found that participation, managerial support, and process variables (i.e., potency, social support, workload sharing, communication, and cooperation) contribute to employee productivity, satisfaction, and managerial judgments. A follow-up study used a professional sample to test the generalizability of the first study (Campion, Papper, & Medsker, 1996). The same variables were statistically significant in predicting satisfaction, employee judgments, manager judgments, and performance appraisals. However, interdependence (i.e., task, goal, and feedback) also emerged as a statistically significant variable affecting employee satisfaction, employee judgments, and performance appraisals. Overall, input condition (context and team composition), design factors (job design and interdependence), and process factors all matter, but process factors (including social support, communication, and cooperation) have the strongest influence on effectiveness (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006).

Designing effective work groups incorporating a relationship perspective. In the original model, five themes provide a foundation for designing work groups to achieve high levels of productivity and satisfaction, as well as positive managerial judgments of work quality and customer service. As shown in Figure 5, we propose that these same five themes can be focused on social capital and social network issues to suggest mechanisms and features that

FIGURE 5
Relationship Themes for Designing Effective Work Groups



provide a basis for designing work groups to achieve effective relationships and social capital.

Rather than a dominant focus on the task characteristics and work flow factors examined in the original framework, we suggest incorporating characteristics and interactions that distinguish relationship factors of job design as well. Specifically, work groups can be designed in ways that address the antecedents of rapport, bonding, appropriate breadth, affinity, and reciprocity. Similarly, we propose expanding the theme of interdependence beyond workflow factors such as tasks, goals, feedback and rewards to consider social network factors such as personal ties, functional connections, and the interdependence that stems from frequent, rapid interpersonal interactions. Group composition dimensions might be enlarged to include cognitive and attitude similarity (Brass et al., 2004), as well as absorptive capacity (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990) and cognitive agility (Chang & Harrington, 2007), thereby enhancing the ability of work groups to both offer new insights and accept divergent perspectives. Relevant context variables might include network factors such as proximity, structural flows and barriers, national and organizational culture similarity, and the density of network structures within and between various work groups. Multilevel research has suggested that higher-order systems provide both constraints and incentives that influence behavior in their embedded subsystems (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Interactionist perspectives have consistently argued that individual behavior is particularly sensitive to situated conditions (Schneider, 1981). Teams and groups are the social context that influences the behaviors, interactions, choices, and talents of individual members (Hackman, 1992). Incorporating these factors into the design of work groups provides a viable mechanism for shaping how work gets done in organizations. Finally, process issues might be expanded to reflect factors that are related to the need for complex social interactions such as intricate organizational routines (Nelson & Winter, 1982), causally ambiguous capabilities (Reed & DeFillippi, 1990), invisible work and collaboration (Cross, Borgatti, & Parker, 2002), and socially derived controls on group behavior (Kirsch, Ko, & Haney, 2010).

Explicitly focusing on relationships emphasizes the process factors that enable team members to resolve key task demands through dynamic interactions and team development (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Social capital and relationship factors are integral for shaping the ways in which groups manage interactions with the larger systems in which they are embedded (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005). Social ties are particularly beneficial to consider because, in addition to influencing team effectiveness, relationship factors are ripe for managerial intervention. Relationships offer viable leverage points for shaping group climate, mental models, and transactive memory (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Relationships influence motivation at both group and individual levels of analysis (Marks et al., 2001). Team trust, an important outcome of deep social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002), is related to conflict resolution (Simons & Peterson, 2000), team efficacy (Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beaubien, 2002), and collective learning (Argote, McEvily, & Reagans, 2003).

In addition to effectiveness measures such as productivity, satisfaction, and customer service associated with the original model, social capital and social network effectiveness measures are useful to assess. These might include outcomes such as an ability to capitalize on diversity, resource acquisition, learning capabilities, decisiveness, uncertainty reduction, and an enhanced ability to establish legitimacy. As Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006) explained, the most effective work groups are able to combine and coordinate their cognitive, motivational or affective, and behavioral resources through effective and adaptive social processes. Often, such teams rely on relationships to navigate complicated conditions as well to as evolve and adapt to emerging situational demands.

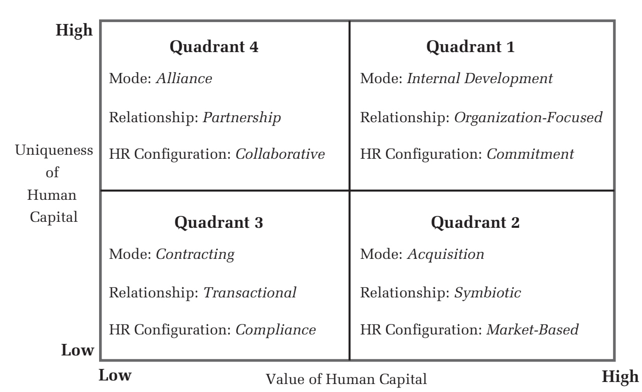
In summary, consistent with our reconceptualization of the model designed by Campion and his colleagues (1993), empirical research on groups and teams (Campion et al., 1993; Campion et al., 1996) has shown that process variables (i.e., potency, social support, workload sharing, communication, and cooperation within the team) as well as interdependence variables (i.e., task, goal, and feedback interdependence) are valuable for enhancing employee satisfaction, managerial judgments, and performance appraisals. Relationship factors reflect many of the multilevel systemic characteristics that influence group performance, and help explain the ways in which group dynamics and performance features emerge. When groups operate as sets of individuals performing independent tasks—despite being labeled as teams—performance is undermined rather than enhanced (Steiner, 1972). It is the social connections that make a difference. Taken together, these findings support the idea of augmenting the original groups and teams model to explicitly incorporate factors that facilitate the ability of individuals to form effective relationships while working collectively with others in an organization.

HR Architecture (Lepak & Snell, 1999)

By integrating transaction-cost economics, human capital theory, and the RBV of the firm, Lepak and Snell (1999) created an HR architecture framework that orchestrates a variety of important decisions for attracting, nurturing, and retaining human capital. Using the value and uniqueness of human capital as key dimensions, they generated four quadrants (see Figure 6) that specify the distinct relationships, modes of operation, and HR configurations that bring particular kinds of KSAOs to an organization and enable a firm's human capital to be effectively deployed.

The HR architecture provides a fundamental tool that enables a firm to assess its acquisition and use of human capital. Based on the logic of the model, workers who are both valuable and unique (i.e., Quadrant 1) will have beneficial, idiosyncratic, firm-specific knowledge; therefore, firms should strive to generate strong organizational commitment among these individuals. In Quadrant 2, human capital is valuable but not particularly unique (i.e., it is widely available in the labor market). Under these conditions, organizations and employees have interdependent relationships since the necessary KSAOs can be acquired fairly easily. When human capital has both low value and low uniqueness, the nature of the employee–employer relationship is

FIGURE 6
Lepak and Snell's (1999) HR Architecture



transactional and workers are expected to comply with specific requirements and expectations (i.e., Quadrant 3). In the fourth quadrant, human capital is highly unique but not high in value given the firm's strategy, and so is best managed using a partnership orientation in which employees and the organization collaborate and form either temporary or permanent alliances. Managing employees differently based on what they bring to the organization allows a firm to effectively leverage its human capital.

In the original formulation of Lepak and Snell's (1999) HR architecture, two dimensions were proposed (strategic value and uniqueness) to produce four categories of human resources or capital (*knowledge workers*, *job-based employees*, *contract workers*, and *alliance partners*). According to this typology, an organization will have different ties and relationships with employees depending upon their strategic value and uniqueness. Organizations benefit from having the strongest ties and closest relationships with employees who have high strategic value and high uniqueness (i.e. *knowledge workers*). In contrast, organizations will have the weakest ties and most tenuous relationships with employees who have low strategic value and low uniqueness (i.e. *contract workers*). In between these two types are *job-based employees* (high strategic value and low uniqueness) and *alliance partners* (low strategic value and high uniqueness). Organizations have somewhat weaker ties and less close relationships with these employees than with knowledge-based employees, but have stronger ties and closer relationships with them than with contract employees. This typology has implications for human resource investments and HRM practices. According to Lepak and Snell (2002), knowledge-based employees receive the greatest human resource or capital investments, while contract workers receive the least. The authors further hypothesized that different human resource practice configurations are associated with each employee category.

In their empirical analysis of the model, Lepak and Snell (2002) found support for some of their major premises. Across the two dimensions, value and uniqueness, human capital value was higher for knowledge-based (i.e., Quadrant 1) and job-based (i.e., Quadrant 2) employment than for contract work (i.e., Quadrant 3) or alliances (i.e., Quadrant 4). For the job-based employment mode, organizations were more likely to use a *productivity-based HR configuration*. Under contractual work arrangements, organizations were more likely to construct *compliance-based HR configurations*. Finally, *collaboratively oriented HR configurations* were more likely to be used for human capital alliances (Lepak & Snell, 2002). These findings suggest that organizations do mobilize and deploy their employees differently based on the value and uniqueness of the human capital they bring to the firm.

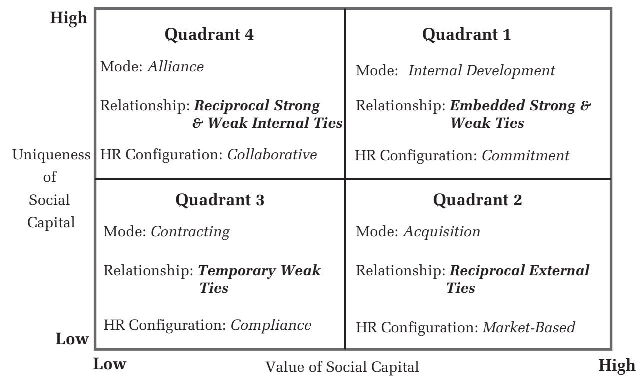
HR architecture incorporating a relationship perspective. We propose that, similar to our extensions of the prior two frameworks, adopting a social capital and social network perspective can augment the original HR architecture by adding an enriched understanding of human capital value and human capital uniqueness in terms of the ways in which employees develop and leverage relationships with each other. Lepak and Snell (1999 :35) defined strategic value as "the ratio of strategic benefit to customers derived from employee skills relative to the costs incurred." From a relationship perspective, value could be defined as the ratio of social capital benefits derived from network position and embeddedness relative to the constraints that are created. Similarly, strategic uniqueness is defined as human capital that is idiosyncratic and firm-specific (Lepak & Snell, 1999). From a relationship perspective, strategic uniqueness could be defined as established trust and reciprocal norms within a defined, firm-specific, social network. In this way, strategic value would not only capture strategic benefits to customers arising from particular knowledge and skill configurations; value could also be measured in terms of the social capital and relationship benefits that result from an employee's position in the social network, the cognitive benefits this generates, and the employee's embedded relationships with other employees or with customers.

The main focus of the original HR architecture is human capital. Social capital is neglected in determining strategic value or uniqueness. Consequently, social capital does not play a role in categorizing or segmenting human resources for different types of HRM and treatment. Consider, for example, an accountant working in a manufacturing firm—an employee categorized by Lepak and Snell's (1999) typology as a job-based employee. Because accounting knowledge, skills, and abilities are strategically valuable, but not unique, the original model recommends less HR investment and less concern about retention. After all, such an employee, while valuable, can be easily replaced in the labor market. Now, assume that the same accountant has particularly strong social capital with important suppliers, distributors, or customers. Their value would likely be much greater and warrant greater concerns about retention. Likewise, it would seem to be in the organization's best interest to facilitate the employee's social capital development—provide them time to cultivate their relationships, resources to travel and meet with people in person, etc. While a useful typology, the HR architecture in its current form undervalues some employees—like the example of the accountant—whose human capital may have high strategic value and low uniqueness but whose social capital may have both high strategic value and high uniqueness. Considering social capital suggests that an organization might benefit from a reconsideration of both an employee's value as well as how they should be managed from a human resource perspective.

Another benefit of taking a relationship perspective on the HR architecture is that it expands how HR can influence employee contributions to strategic capability and broadens the range of activities in HR's arsenal (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2006). Rather than a narrow view of HR's boundaries (i.e., the traditional functions of recruitment, selection, training and development, compensation, and performance management), we argue for an expanded view that requires rethinking bundles of HR practices to include social as well as human capital considerations. Let us take our accountant as an example. As we described earlier, a "relationship HR bundle" of practices for them might include a monetary budget and time away from their core work activities to have social as well as professional interactions with major customers. As in the Chinese practice of *guanxi*, the development of deep social capital that is beneficial to the business relationship takes both time and resources.

As suggested in Figure 7, we propose that the uniqueness and value of social capital can be overlaid on the uniqueness and value of employee KSAOs, adding a useful dimension to the overall architecture. By explicitly considering social capital and network factors, organizations may be able to realize the benefits of designing their employment relationships to capitalize on unique relational and interpersonal characteristics. For example, it could be beneficial to create and nurture both strong and weak ties for those employees with the most unique and valuable social capital, such as a charismatic leader who bridges a number of crucial structural holes. It could also be useful to nurture these types of bonds among employees with valuable and unique knowledge and skill-based human capital, since embeddedness is often a key element preventing human

FIGURE 7
A Relationship Perspective of the HR Architecture



capital erosion (Campbell, Coff, & Krycynski, 2012). Likewise, it might be useful to develop mechanisms that enable temporary weak ties for employees whose social network contributions are not unique and are of lower value, such as recruiting volunteers for community service activities. Interpersonal relationships are essential for developing certain kinds of knowledge-in-practice that depend on learning through experience, and for leveraging unique talent and intuitive know-how in an organization (McIver, Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, & Ramachandran, 2013). This suggests that the ability to leverage and benefit from the valuable and unique KSAOs employees bring to an organization is closely related to the interpersonal bonds they develop. Additional advantages could be realized from crafting reciprocal relationships inside or outside an organization for employees whose social network contributions are either low in value but highly unique (such as connections to a particular external agent) or high in value but broadly available (such as a network for recruiting future employees).

Rethinking and expanding Lepak and Snell's (1999) HR architecture has the potential to change how we think about employee value as well as redefining the purview of HRM. For example, in the knowledge-based quadrant, part of HR's role is to build stronger ties among employees as well as stronger ties to the organization. Relationship HR bundles for employees in this group might include establishing communities of practice. Wenger (1998) defined communities of practice as groups of people who share a passion for something they do and a commitment to learn how to do it better as they interact regularly. Communities of practice cluster around activities such as problem solving, requests for information, seeking experience, reusing assets, coordination and synergy, discussing developments, documenting projects, visits, and mapping knowledge and identifying gaps. It is hard to classify communities of practice in traditional HR terms; they do not fit neatly into a functional category, yet they play an important role in human and social capital development both within and between organizations.

The empirical support for Lepak and Snell's (1999) HR architecture model is consistent with our reconceptualization of this model. Empirical analysis supports the benefits of using differential configurations for each of the types of human capital found in organizations (i.e., commitment-based, market-based, job-based, and collaborative-based) (Lepak & Snell, 2002). Naturally, the relationships to engender these different levels of commitment should vary as well. According to Coleman (1988), human capital should be accompanied by social capital; employees who have the knowledge and expertise (i.e., human capital) are useless unless they have the complementary relationships to apply those skills in useful ways (i.e., social capital).

INTEGRATING THE RELATIONSHIP-ENHANCED MODELS

As discussed, these three frameworks for HR theory and practice have been powerful tools for understanding crucial ways in which human resource activities can contribute to an organization's success. While each of these models acknowledges the importance of various relationships, none explicitly and comprehensively integrates social capital or social network thinking into their components. We propose that doing so would enable each of these models to be even more powerful tools for understanding and influencing organization performance.

Including a relationship perspective in these tools can create ties to current research in strategy and organization theory. A resource dependence perspective argues that much of the structure and action repertoire influencing individual, group, and organizational behavior is driven by an agent's position in exchange networks and the resulting power relationships these create (Davis & Marquis, 2005; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Consistent with this, research has found that, particularly in the knowledge economy, high levels of human capital are necessary but far from sufficient for achieving or sustaining a strong competitive position (Dess & Sauerwald, 2014). Deep social capital and effectively designed social networks are essential elements that leverage human capital to create organizational capabilities (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2003b). Social connections have been shown to be a source of emotional attachment that binds employees to an organization and to each other (Campbell et al., 2012). Relationships facilitate knowledge transfer, sensemaking, innovation, and collaboration (Gooderham, Minbaeva, & Pedersen, 2011; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Research has highlighted the importance of understanding the complicated interplay between formal organization policies and practices and informal social structure characteristics (McEvily, Soda, & Tortoriello, 2014). We suggest that social interactions not only enhance our ability to stimulate individual-, group-, and organization-level performance as explained in our prior discussion of relationship augmented frameworks, but also offer a means to integrate HRM policies, practices, perspective, and activities across levels of analysis and across research domains.

We argue that social relationships and social networks provide useful mechanisms for bridging levels of strategic HRM issues, similar to the way in which social and psychological relationships provide a vehicle for bridging levels of organization learning (Crossan, Lane, & White, 1999). As Davis and Marquis (2005) proposed, a mechanism-oriented approach to theorizing focuses on identifying and understanding interacting parts that produce collective outcomes not inherent in any of the pieces. Mechanism-based theory emphasizes explanation and problem-solving. We contend that integrating social capital and social network theory with strategic HRM tools provides an explanation for how and why certain strategic HRM activities work and offer mechanisms enabling established strategic HRM frameworks to effectively address a broader range of problems.

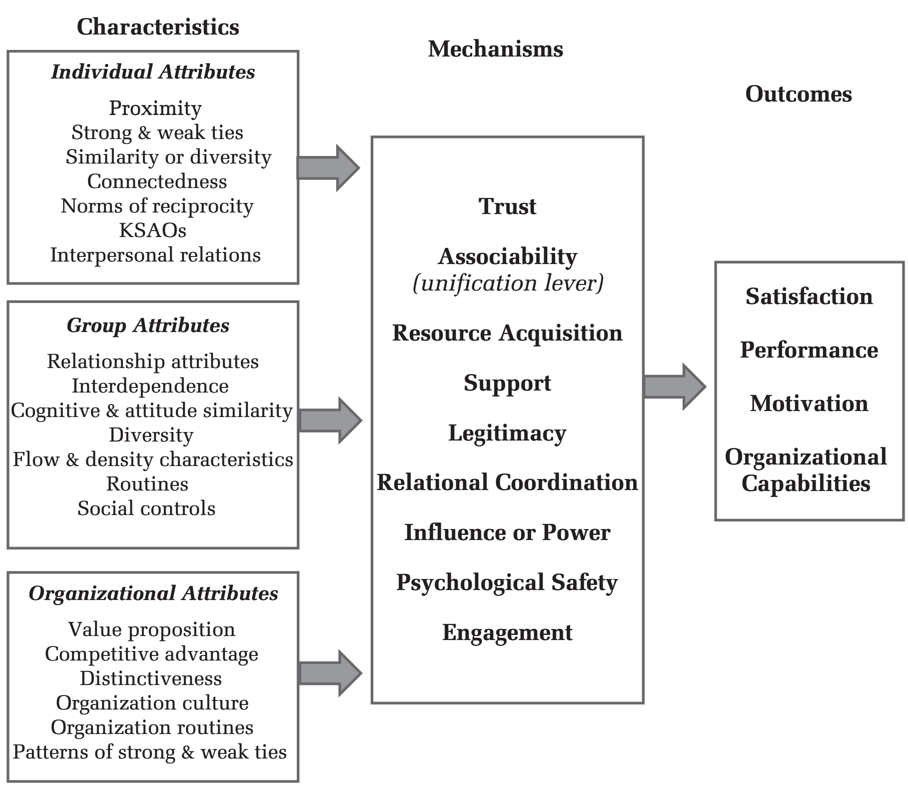
Some aspects of social capital and social network theory present relatively parallel constructs and phenomena at different levels of organizational analysis. Structural holes (Burt, 1992), implications of centrality (Freeman, Roeder, & Mulholland, 1979), and status distinctions (Bonacich, 1987), for example, operate in similar ways at individual, group, and organization levels (Moliterno & Mahoney, 2011) and thereby reinforce certain types of interactions and consequences. In this way, social bonds created among individuals can enable trust and information sharing from one person to another. Social bonds within and among groups facilitate knowledge transfer and collaboration among team members and across teams. Individual, group, and multigroup social connections facilitate organizational engagement, reduce turnover, and foster a strong commitment to organizational objectives.

Other elements of social relationships operate more like nested systems (von Bertalanffy, 1968) and adopt distinct characteristics at each level but are shaped by the interactions that take place at other levels. So, for example, augmenting the social relationship aspects of job design influences individual performance and attitudes by providing new avenues for gaining knowledge of results, and enhanced task identity and task significance. Increased meaningfulness and greater knowledge of results can have a positive influence on group processes and outcomes. Augmenting social relationship elements in designing work groups can enhance the basis for relational and cognitive social capital among group members, increasing their ability to perform complex tasks and deal effectively with uncertainty. At the same time, it can provide a foundation for a more nuanced and comprehensive assessment of potential strategic value and uniqueness of a firm's human capital.

Figure 8 depicts this integrated, multilevel perspective of individual attributes generated through a relationship-oriented job design, group attributes developed through a relationship oriented group composition approach, and organizational attributes resulting from incorporating relationship factors into the HR architecture. Together, these individual-, group-, and organization-level characteristics lead to various mechanisms, such as trust, support, and relational coordination, that operate simultaneously at each of these levels. These mechanisms, in turn, contribute to important individual and collective strategic outcomes.

The web of relationships in which employees are embedded at multiple levels in an organization shape the structural, relational, and cognitive interactions and capabilities that are available (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The greater the interdependence among individuals, across various work groups, and between various levels in an organization, the more important these social ties and network factors become (Kostova & Roth, 2003). The greater the range and unpredictability of work that an organization

FIGURE 8
An Integrative Model of Relationship Influences on Individual, Group, and Organizational Level HR Practices



undertakes, the more important it is to design network characteristics to bridge structural holes, benefit from weak ties, and maintain strong interpersonal connections (Gittell, 2009). It seems reasonable to expect that deep social capital at one level can spill over to facilitate an ability to develop robust relationships at other levels. Likewise, serious deficiencies in social relationships or dysfunctional social networks at one organizational level are likely to create hurdles for strong performance at other levels. For example, excessive homogeneity within work groups can lead to groupthink and core rigidities (Leonard-Barton, 1992) that limit both individual cognitive analysis and organizational absorptive capacity (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). In contrast, strong transactive memory at one level can stimulate innovation and effective problem-solving at other levels (Lee, Bachrach, & Lewis, 2014).

Consistent with previous research (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006), we contend that developing a greater understanding of the ways in which relationships and social network characteristics shape individual behaviors and attitudes will contribute to enhanced individual performance. It will also enhance our understanding of how to design and orchestrate effective groups and collective processes. Moreover, we suggest that consideration of the ways in which relationships and network distinctions influence group behaviors and attributes will enhance our ability to achieve desirable organizational outcomes and capabilities.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

The three frameworks that were reexamined from a social network or social capital perspective in this paper were intended to illustrate the possibilities for expanding our understanding of important aspects of the strategic HRM domain. We did this by explicitly incorporating what we know about the importance of relationships into some of the most prominent models we use to advance HR theory and practice. Each of the frameworks we discussed has evolved over time by building on prior work in other areas. As such, the relational variations of these frameworks proposed in this paper have implications for managerial research in a variety of areas at multiple levels of analysis beyond HR.

The JCM emerged from the organizational behavior literature in the 1970s, but has its roots in earlier psychology research (e.g., Herzberg, 1968) dating back to the 1960s. More recent manifestations (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2007) have synthesized and extended our understanding of how the structure and design of jobs plays a critical role in shaping employee attitudes and the subsequent effects on job performance. A social capital and social network perspective provides a further extension to this stream of research blending organization behavior and HRM.

An interest in understanding effective group composition can trace its origins to psychology researchers studying small groups (e.g., Lewin, 1947; Sherif, 1967). The more recent version proposed by Campion and his colleagues (1993) developed from a large body of research intended to synthesize and extend our understanding of the multiple factors that play a role in group functioning and performance. A relationship perspective overlays an additional dimension to this stream of research.

Lepak and Snell's (1999) human resource architecture can trace its roots to labor economics and strategic management (Barney, 1991; Becker, 1962). Insights gained from bridging these research streams have led to considerable advances in strategic HRM theory. Extending the HR architecture to include social capital provides greater insight into human resource value.

Molloy, Ployhart, and Wright (2011) described system-level and disciplinary divides that constrain advancements in management thinking. The *system-level divides* are those that (a) separate work on individuals and groups from scholarship on organizations, (b) separate work on organizations from the study of economic and social systems, and (c) separate research on individual and groups from scholarship on economic and social systems. *Disciplinary divides* are differences in theories, paradigms, and research methods that separate various different scientific domains. Molloy and her colleagues (2011) provided an example that illustrates the importance of crossing divides for expanding understanding in the strategic HRM arena.

> Consider human capital. Scholars working from a psychological foundation are likely to view individual-level human capital as accumulating from psychological processes such as learning and individual differences in, for example, cognitive ability. In contrast, scholars operating with an economic lens are likely to view human capital as an investment decision (which is consistent with these scholars' views on other resources considered "capital"). Taking yet another perspective, those scholars working from a sociological perspective might consider one's career history and the structural positions or prominence of one's prior employers. (Molloy et al., 2011: 586)

What we argue in this article is that bridging across disciplines and levels and incorporating social capital and social network theory into the frameworks we use most frequently has the potential to move strategic HRM from a loosely connected set of theories, each of which explains part of the overall whole, toward one that is a more unified and integrated meso-level theory. The meso paradigm (House, Rousseau, & Thomas-Hunt, 1995) concerns the study of at least two levels of analysis, as well as articulating the processes by which the levels of analysis are related in the form of bridging, or linking, mechanisms. Since much of the HRM literature has been described from an individual level of analysis point of view (e.g., examining the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics that underlie effective job performance), bridging or linking through a social capital and social network perspective has the potential to expand our understanding by considering new variables (e.g., network centrality), explaining more variance in important outcomes (e.g., individual job performance and performance of collective routines), and enhancing our theories (e.g., explaining the interactions between human capital and social capital).

Similar to work in knowledge management and the behavioral theory of the firm, a multilevel perspective on strategic HRM recognizes that behaviors and activities typically originate with individual actions and choices, but that organization outcomes are the consequence of individuals working together to create collective results. As Kozlowski and Klein (2000: 55) explained, a work process often "originates in the cognition, affect, behaviors, or other characteristics of individuals, is amplified by their interactions, and manifests as a higher level collective phenomenon." They argued that integration activities leading to collective results vary in terms of the similarities or differences among individual contributions, whether interactions are stable and rather uniform or fluid and highly varied, and whether assimilation rules are generally linear and additive or configurational and synergistic. Therefore, some collective processes emerge through interactions that pool similar individual contributions and aggregate them in a fairly linear and straightforward manner. Kozlowski and Klein (2000) called this a *composition process*. Other collective actions develop through more complex, nonlinear, and idiosyncratic interactions. Kozlowski and Klein (2000) referred to these patterns as *compilation processes*. They illustrated the differences these patterns create in moving from one level to another by comparing the ways in which collective outcomes emerge in a skilled rowing team versus a symphony orchestra. The important consideration in terms of this paper is that both patterns depend heavily on the creation and utilization of social capital and each require different social network and relationship characteristics to be effective.

Expanding our view of strategic HRM to take relationships into explicit consideration, as we have argued in this paper is beneficial, opens up new avenues for considering just what is included in the domain, and the techniques and technologies that comprise strategic HRM, and offers bridges to related disciplines such as organization behavior, strategic management, and organization theory. If building relationships is a fundamental component in job design, group composition, and HRM systems—as we have argued—then failing to explicitly include social capital and social network factors in our more prominent models and tools provides unnecessary limits on the contributions HR can make to organizational success and competitive superiority.

In this paper, we have only scratched the surface of possibilities for how a broader perspective of the HRM domain could influence theory, research, and practice. We hope that our illustrations provoke new discussions and generate ideas for thinking outside conventional disciplinary boundaries. This expanded focus is intended to redraw the boundaries of HRM by exploring new ways of thinking about an "old" discipline.

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