ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES:
TESTING FOR CAUSES AND THE LINKAGE WITH ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Roman Kofmann
400848

Supervisor: Prof. dr. S. Van de Walle
Second reader: Prof. dr. M. Fenger

Word Count: 25.502

12/20/2015
ABSTRACT
Social enterprises (SE) and the social economy in general have been recognized by national policymakers and the European Commission as solution to stagnating growth and social exclusion. Yet, little is known about these hybrid organizations with their multiple goals.
This study borrows organizational culture (OC) and the Competing Values Framework (CVF) from management and psychology literature to explore the culture guiding the operations of the most common form of SE in Europe, the so-called work integration social enterprise (WISE). Possible causes such as national conditioning, organizational size and organizational type on OC are tested for. Furthermore the linkage between OC and organizational effectiveness, the theoretical foundation of the CVF, is investigated.
Based on 67 surveys collected from top managers of German WISE, this cross-sectional study found out that the OC of WISE is steered towards integration and internal focus which makes clan and hierarchy values dominant. Regarding the causes of OC, type of WISE and organizational size does not significantly alter the OC of WISE in Germany but a significant difference on hierarchy cultures is found between East and West German WISEs. In new Länder the OC of WISEs is stronger on the hierarchy quadrant of the CVF than in the old Länder. Concerning the effect of OC on organizational effectiveness measures, the human relations theory and the open systems theory have been approved statistically whereas the internal process model and the rational goal model have not resulted in significant outcomes. Additional, strong OC does not lead automatically to higher performance.

Keywords: Work integration social enterprise, organizational culture, organizational effectiveness, hybrid organization, social economy
**ABBREVIATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaft (German for WISE)</td>
<td>BQG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Arbeit e.V.</td>
<td>BAG Arbeit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competing Values Framework</td>
<td>CVF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Trade and Industry of United Kingdom</td>
<td>DTI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Emergence of Social Enterprise in Europe’ Network</td>
<td>EMES Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>COM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Union</td>
<td>EU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Network of Social Integration Enterprises</td>
<td>ENSIE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Culture</td>
<td>OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument</td>
<td>OCAI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Enterprise</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Social Enterprise: A Tool to Fight Exclusion</td>
<td>ELEXIES Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Socio-Economic Performance of Social Enterprises in the Field of Work-Integration</td>
<td>PERSE Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Integration Social Enterprise</td>
<td>WISE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES

No.  Label                                                                                         Page
1    Major constructs of organizational culture and their number of dimensions and survey items  37
2    The nine hypotheses and their relation to organizational culture                              54
3    Cronbach’s alpha for the subscales of organizational culture, perceived employee satisfaction,  65
     perceived innovativeness, perceived financial and organizational performance
4    SPSS results of independent samples t-test between organizational seat (dichotomous) and      78
     organizational culture variables
5    Linear Regression Analysis with one model including the four culture types and their relation to  74
     employee satisfaction ($R^2 = .662$)
6    Linear Regression Analysis with one model including the four culture types and their relation to  80
     organizational innovativeness ($R^2 = .416$)
7    Linear Regression Analysis with one model including the four culture types and their relation to  81
     organizational innovativeness ($R^2 = .161$)
8    The hypotheses of the analysis, their variables, the performed test and the test statistics and the  83
     result (red = rejected; green = confirmed); alpha $\alpha = .05$

LIST OF FIGURES

No.  Label                                                                                         Page
1    The third sector and the welfare triangle (Pestoff, 2014, p.1414)                              16
2    Emergence of Social Enterprises in Europe (EMES) conceptual approach with economic, social and  21
     participatory pillars consisting of three indicators each
3    39 types of WISEs identified in ten European member states clustered according to their modes of  24
     work integration (Davister, Defourny and Gregoire, 2004, p.6)
4    The Competing Values Framework (adopted from Figure 3.1 in Cameron et al., 2006)              40
5    The Average Culture Plot with more than one thousand organizations using the Competing Values  43
     Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011, p.87)
6    The four German types of WISE and their affiliation to the organizational forms of state, market  44
     and non-profit sectors as hybrid organizations (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002)
7    Causal model with three possible causes and four possible effects of organizational culture       52
8    Pie chart on types of WISEs in percent ($n = 67$)                                               67
9    Pie chart on legal statuses of WISEs in percent ($n = 67$)                                      68
10   Organizational Culture of 67 German WISEs using the Competing Values Framework                 72
11   Organizational Culture of 17 municipality-owned German WISEs using the Competing Values       73
     Framework
12   Organizational Culture of 26 German WISEs organized by welfare organizations using the       74
     Competing Values Framework
13   Organizational Culture of 17 German WISEs based on local independent initiatives using the     75
     Competing Values Framework
14   Organizational Culture of 7 commercial German WISEs known as Socialbetrieb using the          76
     Competing Values Framework
15   Scatter plots of the linear regression models of organizational size on organizational cultural values  79
     of hierarchy (left) and clan (right) cultures.
# Table of Contents

**Abstract** .......................................................................................................................... 3

**Abbreviations** .................................................................................................................... 4

**List of Tables** ....................................................................................................................... 5

**List of Figures** ..................................................................................................................... 5

I. **Introduction** ...................................................................................................................... 9

   I.I **Research Question** ....................................................................................................... 10

   I.II **Relevance** .................................................................................................................. 11

   I.III **Thesis Structure** ......................................................................................................... 12

II. **Literature Review** ............................................................................................................. 15

   II.I **The Units of Analysis – Substantiating the Field of Inquiry** ........................................ 15

      II.I.I **Social Entrepreneurship – Is Conceptual Clarity Possible?** ....................................... 15

      II.I.II **Work Integration Social Enterprise – One Type or Many?** ................................... 21

      II.I.III **Work Integration Social Enterprises in Germany** ............................................... 26

   II.II **Organizational Culture** ............................................................................................... 31

      II.II.I **What is Organizational Culture?** ........................................................................ 31

      II.II.II **Empirical Approaches to Organizational Culture** .................................................. 33

      II.II.III **The Boundaries of Organizational Culture** ......................................................... 35

      II.II.IV **Multidimensional Constructs of Organizational Culture** .................................... 36

      II.II.IV **The Competing Values Framework** .................................................................... 39

      II.II.VI **What Kind Of Organizational Culture Might German WISEs Have?** ................... 43

      II.II.VII **Where Might This Organizational Culture Come From?** .................................... 45

   II.III **Does Organizational Culture Lead To Organizational Effectiveness?** ...................... 47

      II.III.I **Human Relations Theory** ..................................................................................... 48

      II.III.II **Open Systems Theory** ......................................................................................... 48

      II.III.III **Internal Process Model** .................................................................................... 49

      II.III.III **Rational Goal Model** ....................................................................................... 49

      II.III.IV **Balanced Organizational Culture and Organizational Effectiveness** .................. 50

   II.IV **Conclusion** ............................................................................................................... 50

III. **Methodology** ................................................................................................................ 54

   III.I **Research Design** ....................................................................................................... 55

   III.II **Operationalization** .................................................................................................... 56
III.II.I ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ................................................................. 57
III.II.II ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS MEASURES ........................................... 58
III.II.III DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS ............................................................. 60
III.III SAMPLING ........................................................................................................ 60
III.IV DATA ANALYSIS .............................................................................................. 62
III.IV VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY .......................................................................... 63
III.V CONCLUSION ..................................................................................................... 65
IV. ANALYSIS ............................................................................................................. 67
IV.I DESCRIPTION OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ....... 67
IV.II ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF GERMAN WISEs ............................................. 69
IV.III CAUSES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE .................................................... 77
IV.IV EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE .................................................... 79
IV.V CONCLUSION ..................................................................................................... 82
V. DISCUSSION .......................................................................................................... 85
VI. CONCLUSION ...................................................................................................... 90
VI.II LIMITATIONS ................................................................................................... 91
VI.II PROPOSITIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH ..................................................... 92
REFERENCES ........................................................................................................... 95
APPENDIX 1 .............................................................................................................. 100
APPENDIX 2 .............................................................................................................. 101
APPENDIX 3 .............................................................................................................. 102
APPENDIX 4 .............................................................................................................. 110
I. INTRODUCTION

Social enterprises (SE) are becoming more and more important for the public authorities to deal with social exclusion, environmental pollution and economic stagnation. Yet, research on these organizations has only recently produced conceptual clarity (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008; Hoogendoorn, Pennings & Thurik, 2010; Felício et al., 2013) which is why empirical insights are just accumulating now.

Social enterprises are hybrid organizations with multiple goals (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2004; Doherty, Haugh & Lyon, 2014) and include many forms of which the work integration social enterprise (WISE) is the most common in Europe (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008; European Commission, 2011; Nyssens, 2014). WISEs reintegrate vulnerable risk groups into the labor market through productive activity and vocational training.

In Germany, four overarching types of WISEs are identified (Davister, Defourny & Gregoire, 2004) and all of them are utilized by the state as conveyor belt for active labor market programs since the late 1980s (Nyssens, 2014). This close cooperation with public authorities has made WISEs in Germany to string puppets in respect to their social and economic objectives (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2006). The managers of WISEs want to integrate the beneficiaries in a qualitative and individualized manner, whereas public employment centers care particularly about statistics rather than the needs and wishes of the socially excluded. Is this tension between the interest of the WISEs and the public authorities also mirrored in the organizational culture of these organizations?

In this study organizational culture (OC) is reduced to espoused values that are shared by the members of the organization that have proven to work well in solving “the problems of external adaptation and internal integration” (Schein, 1984, p.3). The linkages between OC and type of WISE (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002), national conditioning (Hofstede, 1980; Dickson, Kwantes & Magomaeva, 2014) and organizational size (Daft, 2012) are investigated for German WISEs.

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) is considered to be an appropriate construct to visualize culture in a three-dimensional model. Supporters of the functional perspective on OC assert that OC is a crucial factor deciding whether an organization is effective or not (see Denison & Mishra, 1995; Gregory et al., 2009; Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Grabowski et al, 2014).
The CVF has been constructed with the theoretical underpinning that organizational effectiveness measures are related to certain sets of cultural values. These sets manifest themselves in four culture types: hierarchy, clan, adhocracy and market cultures. Although this theoretical supposition has been proven in many studies (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), in a meta-analysis of 84 empirical studies into this linkage, Hartnell et al. (2011) found out that there is mixed support for this relationship. Are organizational culture values contradictory as proposed by Cameron and Quinn (2011) or can they be complementary and not be particularly bound to one organizational culture type (Hartnell et al., 2011)? Investigating German WISEs, this study also looks at this linkage.

To put it in a nutshell, this thesis aims to solve three problems. First, this study attempts to overcome the conceptual gridlock in social entrepreneurship research by adding empirical insights to this nascent field. Second, organizational culture of German WISEs is explored for the first time. Filling this research gap, future inquires into this subject can learn from the weaknesses and strengths from this pioneering work. Finally, general theoretical suppositions of previous studies are tested on OC as dependent and independent variable. This adds more flesh to the bones to the heated debate about the importance of OC as tool for researchers but also as instrument for managers and practitioners. Additionally, future research could focus more narrowly and rigorously on one particular linkage.

The following section presents the main research question and its sub-questions.

I.1 Research Question
The research question is threefold and is worded in the following way:

What kind of organizational culture do German work integration social enterprises have and how is this organizational culture affected by the type of organization, the organizational size and national conditioning on the one hand and linked to organizational effectiveness measures on the other?

The first descriptive part is looking at OC of German WISEs as such. The strength of particular values is going to be presented visually in the CVF. Is it skewed towards one particular type of OC and which particular values might have led to this tendency? The second part of the question looks at some theoretically derived causes of OC which are type of WISE, national conditioning
and organizational size. Since SE and WISE are no ordinary organizations that can be classified as public, private and non-profit sector entity, the results can be very surprising. Finally, the last explanatory part looks at the linkage between OC and organizational effectiveness measures. Whether this question is relevant as a whole, is discussed in the following section.

I.II RELEVANCE

The social relevance is best expressed by the public expenditure of Germany for active labor market programs that are largely carried out by WISEs. Since 1991, the Federal Republic is spending twenty-four million Euro per year for active labor market integration of vulnerable groups through paid vocational training or the so-called ‘one-Euro job’ whereas merely fifteen million are spent on passive unemployment benefits (Wüllenweber, 2012). The social economy in the European Union, including WISEs as major player, makes up ten percent of the whole economy and offers paid jobs to over eleven million Europeans (European Commission, 2011).

It is socially relevant for three groups of stakeholders of WISEs. The results are most crucial for the managers of German WISEs, who can use the method and the results to evaluate the OC of their organization. Which values does their organization share with the population of German WISEs and which values makes the organization special? The CVF is used regularly as management instrument to understand the internal values of an organization, but not yet in SE and WISE. Second, policymakers can motivate their policy proposal with the results of this study. If all types of WISEs are similar in terms of their organizational culture, then there is evidence for WISEs to be a homogeneous group with at least similar value sets. Germany has not yet enacted any legislation to exempt SEs from taxes with special legal status, changed public procurement rules in advantage for SEs, and created new funding venues for them. The results of this study can provoke further debate about the role of SEs in general and WISEs in particular. Finally, external partners of WISEs such as public administrators can better understand what drives the management board of WISEs. Knowing the guiding values of their every-day business operations can help to overcome misconceptions about for instance the social impact.

The subject of this study is scientifically relevant because it combines two concepts that have not been put together yet. On the one hand, there is the nascent field of social entrepreneurship that is still lacking sound and theory-based research and on the other, there is organizational culture which is in many respects well elaborated and researched (see Barbara & Schneider, 2014). Both
Concepts can mutually assist each other: SEs and their distinctive organizational characteristics can be explored with OC. In the same vein, extending OC to SE can further validate the theoretical background of the concept. Especially on the linkage between OC and organizational effectiveness measures, this thesis offers fresh insights into a debate that has recently been heated up by Hartnell et al.’s (2011) findings.

I.III Thesis Structure

After introducing the topic, the problem statement, the research question and the relevance, the following chapter is devoted to the literature review.

First, a discussion about the concept ‘social enterprise’ (II.I.I) and ‘work integration social enterprise’ (II.I.II) is presented. A broad and a narrow definition are provided at the end. This section ends with a description of WISEs in Germany (II.I.III). Second, OC as concept is reviewed. Since the concept is fairly complex, a mere conceptualization is considered insufficient (II.I.II). Two schools of thought are presented as means to deal with culture of organizations (II.I.III) followed by a section discussing the boundaries of this seemingly all-encompassing concept (II.I.IV). Thereafter, one particular way of the functionalist school of thought and its major constructs of OC are critically shed light on (II.I.IV) and the choice for the CVF is motivated is then illustrated in the following section (II.I.V). The subchapter ends with a discussion on the OC of German WISEs (II.I.VI) and its possible causes (II.I.VII). The three possible causes ‘type of WISE’, ‘national conditioning’ and ‘organizational size’ constitute the first four hypotheses. The third and final subchapter of the literature review deals with the linkage between OC and organizational effectiveness measures (II.III). The respective theoretical foundations for each quadrant or type of OC are presented separately with a hypothesis at the end of each section. These are human relations theory (II.III.I), open systems theory (II.III.II), internal process model (II.III.III), and rational goal model (II.III.IV). Finally, the argument of strong and weak cultures is included in the final section of this subchapter (II.III.V) introducing the final hypothesis. A conclusion summarizes the essence of each section of the literature review (II.IV).

The six subchapters of the methodology are research design (III.I), operationalization (III.II), sampling method (III.III), data analysis (III.IV), validity and reliability (III.V) and a summary of the whole chapter (III.VI).
The chapter about the analysis of the gathered results has five subchapters, in which the second (IV.II), third (IV.III) and fourth (IV.IV) are concerned with the three sub-questions of the research question. The first subchapter offers a description of the sample (IV.I) and the last summarizes the descriptive and empirical findings (IV.V).

The interpretation of these results is offered in the following chapter (V.). The final chapter is the conclusion, consistent of general summary of findings (VI.), propositions for future research (VI.I) and limitations (VI.II).
II. LITERATURE REVIEW

II.I THE UNITS OF ANALYSIS – SUBSTANTIATING THE FIELD OF INQUIRY

II.I.1 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP – IS CONCEPTUAL CLARITY POSSIBLE?

As the name indicates, work integration social enterprises are closely linked to social entrepreneurship and social enterprises. The former refers to the process of creating and maintaining a venture whereas the latter focuses particularly on the characteristics of these organizations. It is fundamental to review what social enterprises are to grasp the role of work integration social enterprises within this large field of inquiry.

During the past two decades of research on social enterprises from different disciplines agree that these organizations are characterized mainly by their dual (and sometimes triple) mission of financial sustainability and social (and environmental) impact often referred to as double (or triple) bottom line or the three Ps (People, Planet and Profit). As a result of this multiple organizational objectives, social enterprises are considered to be hybrid organizations (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008; Doherty, Haugh & Lyon, 2014; Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2004; 2006; Pestoff, 2014).

Hybrid organizations “allow the coexistence of values and artifacts from two or more categories” (Doherty, Haugh & Lyon, 2014, p.418) where categories mean the organizational templates of private, non-profit and public sectors. Organizations of the private sector adhere to market principles, are profit oriented by generating revenue from their products and services and are owned by shareholders who govern it according to their capital ownership. Public sector organizations seek public benefit, receive their resources through tax revenues and are owned by the state and its citizens. Finally, non-profit sector organizations have a social and/or environmental mission for a targeted affected group, finance themselves through membership fees or donations and are owned by members who govern the organization through a democratically elected board. A clear adherence to one category increases organizational legitimacy (Doherty, Haugh & Lyon, 2014).

Instead of perceiving the non-profit sector as a stand-alone group, Pestoff (1992, 1998, 2008, 2014) and other researchers believe that within the logic of welfare provision this sector is at the crossroads between state, market and local community. This is visualized in Figure 1 below. The
third sector and the different types of social enterprises are no homogenous group since many organizations are closer to one particular triangle end. For example, self-help groups are closer to the community corner, organizations with public-private partnerships are closer to the state, and financially self-sustaining third sector organizations can be allocated closer to the market sphere. One major force driving organizations to adhere to multiple organizational logics is coined co-production (Ostrom, 1999; Pestoff, 2014). Co-production implies that recipients of welfare provisions are included in the production of the public service and thereby becoming co-producers themselves. Other related concepts such as co-management (referring to formal coordination between third sector organizations, the private and public sector) and co-governance (including third sector organizations into the policymaking cycle) are also reinforcing the establishment of hybrid organizations.

![The third sector and the welfare triangle](https://example.com/figure1.png)

Figure 1: The third sector and the welfare triangle (Pestoff, 2014, p.1414)

Beyond defining social enterprises broadly as hybrid organizations with multiple objectives, academia, policymakers and practitioners have not yet come up with a narrow conceptualization
and a common understanding on what this ‘new’ type of entrepreneurship exactly is (Felício et al., 2013). In fact, institutionalized annual conferences, research networks and meta-analyses reviewing empirical articles on social entrepreneurship reveal that different schools of thought dominate the debate. Hereby, transatlantic differences and national institutional circumstances shape distinct types of social organizations that are set up by entrepreneurs with a social entrepreneurial spirit (Defourny & Nyssens, 2008). Furthermore, social entrepreneurship attracts a global audience because prominent social entrepreneurs like Mohammad Yunus and umbrella organizations like Ashoka, Schwab Foundation or Skoll Foundation advertise that innovative ideas can function as blueprints for other comparable environments. On the other hand, related concepts such as ‘third sector’, ‘social economy’, ‘community economy’, ‘solidarity-based economy’, and ‘social innovation’ have evolved locally and defused on the continent or remained in their national realm. For instance, ‘economía solidaria’ is a term frequently used in Latin America to describe financially self-sustainable organizations with primary social or environmental mission whereas in francophone European countries the term ‘économie sociale’ has been chosen long before social entrepreneurship gained momentum in 1990s.

Literal translations of social enterprise into for instance German (‘Sozialunternehmen’) invokes a different connotation because these organizations are neither new nor specifically innovative, work closely together with the public sector and enjoy a common benefit status (‘Gemeinnützigkeit’) that protects them indirectly from free market competition through tax relief. Next to other factors, these institutional and linguistical obstacles have hindered social entrepreneurship research to overcome its embryonic conceptual stage and provide empirical evidence based on theory.

Since Defourny and Nyssens’ (2008) article on commonalities and differences between conceptual models in Europe and in the United States of America, future contributions have embraced and refined their discussion on three schools of thought (see e.g. Hoogendoorn, Pennings & Thurik, 2010). The Belgian scholars argued that different welfare models as proposed by Esping-Andersen (1990) prompted a diverse development of social enterprises across the European continent. Each welfare model reinforced different forms of co-production, co-management and co-governance (Pestoff, 2008).
In countries with conservative welfare models (e.g. Germany, France, Belgium), social enterprises emerged as not-for-profit private organizations which work closely together with public agencies to provide so-called second labor market programs for citizens without access to the conventional labor market. Although the associations, or nowadays referred to as ‘work integration social enterprises’, existed long before active labor market policies have been introduced, this policy instrument has prompted the entrepreneurial spirit of these organizations, which worked even closer with public employment offices together. On the other hand, these organizations are striving for more autonomy from their public partners, especially in financial terms, and thus they paid increased attention to income generating activities next to public funds.

In countries with a social-democratic welfare state (e.g. Sweden, Norway, Finland) social enterprises developed from a co-operative spirit based primarily on culture, leisure and representation of one particular group such as for instance farmers. However, these movements spilled over to cover welfare programs that were intentionally excluded from public schemes. Therefore, social enterprises substitute the state where no welfare is provided, whereas in conservative welfare systems social enterprises compliment public schemes.

The United Kingdom is treated as a special case, because the welfare model is oftentimes perceived to be liberal on the one hand but has several social welfare programs with universal coverage on the other. Social enterprises emerged from charities with a high voluntary basis that have proven to provide social services in the most efficient way vis-à-vis public, private and not-for-profit organizations. Thereby, they have been usually contracted by the state through a competitive process to carry out the social service.

Finally, in southern European countries the development of social enterprises is mainly the result of absent welfare provisions that led to bottom-up movements to counteract long-term unemployment and missing elderly care, which could not be solved within family structures anymore. These organizations split from traditional co-operatives because they covered the social needs of a broader community and not only the ones’ from their members. The first law on the legal status of social enterprises has been introduced in Italy in 1991. In a nutshell, social entrepreneurship in Europe is diverse but still has social welfare provision and close links to the public sector in common. Furthermore, social enterprises evolved from a preexistent third sector.
To capture the full spectrum of social enterprises, a broad and inclusive conceptualization is required. The authors introduced ‘ideal type’ characteristics of social enterprises, the so-called EMES approach, which will be discussed later on in this part.

Scholars from the U.S. perceive social entrepreneurship from another perspective. The ‘earned income’ school of thought focuses particularly on income generating activity in its conceptualization of social enterprises. Defourny and Nyssens (2012) differentiate between ‘commercial non-profit’ definitions and ‘mission-driven business’ approaches. The former identifies non-profit organizations that introduced commercial activities and management techniques from the private sector to survive on-going cuts in public funding and increasing competition in their operating field as social enterprises. These types of organizations support their primary social mission with new income streams. The latter, however, is broader and includes for-profit organizations with a social mission like fair-trade firms, micro-credit banks and sometimes large corporations with social responsible production and/or service are counted as social enterprises. The primacy of the social mission is left for interpretation here, but Yunus (2010) clarifies that such business do neither make losses nor do they produce dividends for their shareholders.

The other American led conceptualization of social enterprises is called ‘social innovation’ school of thought. Central to this group of concepts is the social entrepreneur, who is presented as change maker or change agent. Such individuals innovatively combine resources to counteract market failure. These heroic social entrepreneurs are perceived from a Schumpeterian perspective and their ventures are often highlighted from an outcome rather than income point of view.

Two years later, Hoogendoorn, Pennings and Thurik (2010) argued that social entrepreneurship in Europe can be divided by two schools of thought as well. The Dutch management scholars reviewed 31 empirical articles on social entrepreneurship and divided them according to Gartners’ framework on venture creation (individual, organization, environment, and process) and four identified schools of thought.

The so-called ‘Emergence of Social Enterprise in Europe’ (EMES) approach as applied by Defourny and Nyssens (2008) is based on an ‘ideal type’ definition of social enterprises in a
Weberian understanding. This approach is mainly applied by members of the EMES research network established in 1996 with the goal to identify social enterprise across member states of the European Union. Although social enterprises in the United Kingdom are also covered by the EMES approach, the authors argue that they are still distinctive from the social enterprises on the European continent and the two American schools of thought.

The UK approach is special because social enterprises enjoy the greatest institutionalization worldwide (Nicholls, 2010). The government led by Tony Blair established a social enterprise unit within the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), introduced the ‘Community Interest Company’ legal status especially designed for social enterprises in 2004, and mainstreamed all issues concerning social enterprises through the establishment of the Ministry of the Third Sector in 2006. The DTI worked out the following definition for social enterprises:

“A social enterprise is a business with primarily social objectives, whose surpluses are principally reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximise profit for shareholders and owners” (Department for Trade and Industry, 2002, p.8)

One major finding of their review is that the ‘Earned Income’ approach (here called Enterprise School) and the UK approach are used in the majority of empirical writings whereas the EMES approach tends to be underrepresented in empirical studies. It should be noted, though, that the ‘social innovation’ concepts are often inseparable from the ‘earned income’ school in general and the ‘mission-driven business’ subgroup in particular (see Defourny & Nyssens, 2012).

The fourth and final school of thought is the EMES approach as mentioned above. It is a conceptual composition of three sets of criteria that allow the placement of single organizations within a galaxy of social enterprises (Defourny, Hulgard & Pestoff, 2014). Instead of narrowing social enterprises down to income, outcome or extent of institutionalization as proposed by the latter three schools, the EMES approach is rather a toolkit of social, economic and participatory criteria as illustrated in Figure 2 below. This three-dimensional perspective will now be applied on work integration social enterprises. This process is crucial because the findings of this study should only be generalized to social enterprises with similar definitional characteristics.
III. WISEs as ‘conveyor belt’ (Nyssens, 2014, p.214). A new wave of WISEs was founded that were tailored to the policy targets and their respective target group. This close cooperation offered not just better access to subsidies but furthermore gave WISEs political weight as interest representation or lobby organizations. In the 1990s, some countries even decided to introduce a legal status for WISEs.

During that time, many WISEs started to adopt a more entrepreneurial spirit to increase their revenue from their goods and/or services sold as means to be less reliant on public subsidies. Through this process, they regained their autonomy from public bodies, because following the
strict guidelines of the Labor Offices could have a negative effect on their innovativeness (Nyssens, 2014). It could be argued that ‘new public management’ (Hood, 1991) and the social investment paradigm in social policy increased the number of WISEs and their professionalization. For instance, changes in public procurement procedures increased competition among WISEs and the focus on labor market participation of women offered new venues for WISEs to operate. However, in many countries with corporatist tradition, changes only appeared slowly and less efficient WISEs continued to receive substantial public subsidies because tendering remained an issue of trust.

Today, WISEs remain an important social service provider in many European countries, nonetheless descriptive research has not generated much empirical evidence. This phenomenon is common for social entrepreneurship research where some qualitative case studies and very few quantitative research designs can be found. This part reviews the literature on WISE and presents their organizational characteristics. Finally, their characteristics are portrayed through the EMES ‘ideal type’ toolkit.

Since the late 1990s is the European Commission financing research projects on social enterprises which are carried out by the EMES research network. Among these projects, the so-called PERSE project and ELEXIES project target particularly organizations covering the field of work integration. Both projects covered the same time period (2001 to 2004 and 2002 to 2003 respectively) but had different scopes. Under ELEXIES, descriptive knowledge about the characteristics of WISEs in twelve member states of the EU has been collected and a database and national profile has been created. PERSE focused particularly on 160 WISEs from 11 member states that have been studied more in-depth on their economic and social performance. Both projects revealed that WISEs are a very heterogeneous group. Major differences are found concerning their legal status, their resource acquisition, the type of employment, the importance given to vocational training, their governance structures, and to what extent they ensure that vulnerable people are transferred into labor market in a sustainable way (Spear & Bidet, 2003).

Davister, Defourny and Gregoire (2004) analyzed the findings from ten countries from the PERSE project and found over 39 types of WISEs including four particular German types. These scholars and other members of the EMES research network (see e.g. Nyssens, 2014) argue that these 39 types can be clustered in four categories of WISEs based on the mode of work
integration adopted by these social organizations. The clusters and the positioning of these 39 types of WISEs are illustrated in Figure 3 on the following page.

The first cluster (bottom of Figure 3) comprises WISEs that offer open-ended employment contracts to mentally or physically handicapped individuals and in Sweden and Finland also to socially excluded individuals. This oldest form of WISEs, also referred to as sheltered workshops, receives long-term subsidies from the public sector and their status is oftentimes recognized and thereby protected from competition. However, the produced goods or services offered are sold on the market and over fifty per cent of financial resources come from this productive activity. The number of volunteers is rather low among WISEs of this cluster.

The second cluster (right side of Figure 3) consists of WISEs that employ risk groups such as young, low-qualified, women or ethnic minorities. They offer stable jobs that are considered economically sustainable in the medium term. These firms are considered to profit from employing these individuals and thus receive temporal and over time decreasing subsidies to make up the costs from training them. Therefore, organizations from this cluster are more market-oriented and do not depend on volunteers.

The third cluster (left side of Figure 3) of WISEs employs vulnerable workers without a formal employment contract. The aim is to (re-)socialize them and offer them an occupational activity. Despite the informal character of their employment, the status of these workers is protected and rewarded though non-financial means such as food or housing. These WISEs are not market-oriented and consist of a lot of volunteering.

The last group (top of Figure 3) of WISEs combines temporal employment of vulnerable people with a training contract. The employment is oftentimes based on the required time to obtain the desired qualification. The importance of public subsidies differs significantly here. Some WISEs are fully dependent on them while others operate almost independent from them. These forms of WISEs have a transitional function and thus focus particularly on young and long-term unemployed individuals. Figure 3 shows that many WISEs combine modes of integration and are thus placed where the clusters overlap. The most frequently combined mode of integration is temporal employment and training plus self-financed permanent positions for beneficiaries. For concrete names and origin of the abbreviations used in Figure 3 see APPENDIX 1.
On the economic and entrepreneurial dimension of the EMES approach, the diversity between the types of WISEs is very clear. The majority of WISEs continuously produces or/and sells their service, but this activity has not always the same importance (Davister, Defourny & Gregoire, 2004). The reliance on resources from the market and the focus on training and occupation of target groups are influencing the role of productive activity in WISEs. The economic risk of WISEs is thus dependent very much on their reliance on the market as well. However, many WISEs finance themselves through a resource mix of municipal, federal and European funds.
(European Social Fund (ESF) and European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)) next to income generated through their services and goods sold. Some WISEs with environmental and cultural mission next to their work integration mission also collect membership fees to remain economically sound. Finally, paid work is found in all WISEs. Although voluntary staff is oftentimes present especially among guidance and management positions, there are always hired individuals with regular wages. The recipients of their work integration measures are also paid either financially or in form of housing, food and other tangible goods to satisfy their basic needs. In some cases, these recipients fulfill the conditions for unemployment benefits by following their training or occupation in the WISE.

The social dimension of the EMES approach shows that WISEs always have the collective interest in mind when providing jobs and training opportunities for vulnerable groups. Furthermore, many WISEs have multiple social objectives as for instance recycling of waste, creating a platform for the neighborhood or offering childcare and housing for the deserving. All these additional quasi-public goods (Nyssens, 2014) are combined with the integration of target groups into productive activity. Profit distribution is indeed limited or even constrained fully by the legal status most WISEs opt for, which are mainly non-profit, foundations or cooperatives (Davister, Defourny & Gregoire, 2004). Finally, the initiative to establish the WISE came either from an individual (or a group) somewhat connected or part of the target group or from the local public authorities initiating the organization but leaving considerable autonomy to the board.

Finally, the participatory and governance dimension of the EMES approach illustrate that on the one hand WISEs are indeed not ruled by capital shareholders and enjoy mainly a high degree of autonomy but on the other they offer only limited degree of participation for their target groups. Many WISEs are run by boards that include not only managers but also trainers and other social workers. These boards apply the ‘one person, one vote’ system and elect their representative in a democratic way. This decision-making system offers a high degree of autonomy but the range of possible decisions is constrained by public and private partners essential for their financial survival and training and occupational positions for the ‘users’ of WISEs. Concerning the limited participation of workers or ‘users’, Davister, Defourny and Gregoire (2004) argue that the condition of certain recipient groups, the sometimes temporal stay of them, and the tight
conditions of the public authorities does hamper the empowerment process. The following part will present the different forms of WISEs in Germany.

II.III WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES IN GERMANY

The landscape of possible social enterprises in Germany has to date not been analyzed as one coherent sector but was split into groups of organizations that share similar objectives and legal frameworks (Birkhölzer et al., 2015). Using the EMES approach, Birkhölzer (2015) identified fourteen groups which can further be separated in older and younger social economy movements.

Older social economy movements include traditional associations, co-operatives, foundations and welfare organizations that emerged during the industrialization. The younger movements date back to the 1970s and consist of volunteer agencies, socio-cultural centers and, among others, work integration social enterprises. Interestingly, integration enterprises and work integration enterprises are perceived as two separate groups. The former includes sheltered workshops and newer membership-based organizations for handicapped individuals that are embedded in particular umbrella organizations and receive additional public funding (‘Minderleistungsausgleich’). Contrary, work integration social enterprises are targeted towards unemployed individuals who are at-risk of social exclusion and need guidance and training to find employment in the primary labor market. The next part discusses the various forms of WISEs, excluding integration enterprises, in greater detail.

The establishment of WISEs in Germany has been triggered by structural and technological shifts in the industry sector during the 1980s and 1990s (Bode Evers & Schulz, 2004; Birkhölzer, 2015). Massive suspension of staff, in for instance mining in the Ruhr area or shipbuilding in Bremen and Hamburg, led the trade unions to initiate organizations devoted to the temporal employment and training of these individuals (‘Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungs- gesellschaften’, shortly BQG). Not just trade unions initiated these BQGs but also municipalities, welfare organizations and dedicated individuals or collectives launched projects to absorb the painful transition towards the service economy. The German reunification gave further impetus to the extension of these BQG to the new eastern Länder where every second employable individual lost his or her job over night (Birkhölzer, 2015).
By that time, public authorities implemented active labor market policies (‘Arbeitsbeschaffungsmaßnahmen’) and incorporated the BQG into their schemes. However, the state understood their role to be merely a bridge to the primary labor market and not as entrepreneurial organizations with at least some core permanent staff. Furthermore, the state allowed these BQG to produce quasi-public goods and services only that were neither offered on the market nor from public authorities. This restriction is known as the ‘additional fields’ clause (‘Zusätzlichkeitsklausel’). At the end, many of these WISEs closed down in this legal and financial straight jacket created by the state. However, policymakers interpreted this as a sign for the ineffectiveness of financing time-limited jobs for the unemployed and decided to reform the labor market policy fundamentally.

The Hartz reforms of 2004 split the beneficiaries of unemployment benefits according to their status as transitional or long-term unemployed. If an individual failed to find a job within the time span of one year, they are considered long-term unemployed and lose a considerable amount of their entitlements. Next to this new legal differentiation between short and long-term unemployed, the reforms paved the way for the creation of a permanent second labor market by introducing the so-called ‘one-Euro jobs’. Jobs with public utility were created and individuals with the long-term unemployed status were requested to take up these jobs as a new income source next to their unemployment allowances which would be further reduced as punishment for non-compliance. WISEs have been rediscovered as instruments to create these jobs within their structures or forward these individuals to other organizations (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2006). Through these profound changes, WISEs lost even more autonomy and leverage to offer meaningful jobs and training for their clientele. This policy shift might brought back WISEs as instrument for the labor market programs, but their weakness to resist external pressures towards isomorphism (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2006) has made them to string puppets of the Federal Labor Office.

As can be seen in Figure 3 on page 24, the European research projects revealed four German organizational types - three types that offer transitional employment and on-the-job training and one type that creates permanent self-financed jobs. Among the former ones are the municipality owned corporations for employment and training (‘kommunale Beschäftigungsgesellschaften’, short KB), the employment centers of welfare federations (‘Beschäftigungsgesellschaften von
WOHLFahrtsverbünden’, short BW), and the employment agencies of local and independent
initiatives (‘Beschäftigungsgesellschaften von lokalen, unabhängigen Initiativen’, short BLUI).
The ‘Sozialen Betriebe und Genossenschaften’ (SBG) literally translates social firms into
English but is a very special initiate in a few Länder to combine the funding of both small and
medium-sized enterprises (SME) and the work integration of vulnerable groups. In the following,
the characteristics of each of these four types are highlighted.

The KBs have the biggest impact vis-à-vis the other three types since these organizations offer
the most jobs outside the primary labor market (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002). The municipalities
own the organizations and request them to enact local policy initiatives. Yet, their management
boards are de facto autonomous from external shareholders. If they are economically viable, they
opt for company with limited liability (‘Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung’, GmbH) and if
that is not the case, they chose association (‘eingetragener Verein’, e.V.) as legal form. One
example for this type is Zukunftswerkstatt Düsseldorf GmbH where local long-term unemployed
are provided with short-term jobs as kitchen staff in canteens of public facilities, as garbage men
for recyclable paper or as service staff in public bike rental outlets. Next to their work integration
mission, the subsidiary company of the city Düsseldorf functions as an advisory center for
especially women and their challenges to reconcile family and work. Furthermore, the
organization exercises their political weight in the city by coordinating political activities such as
the Equal Pay Day or by representing the interests of their beneficiaries in other ways (see annual

Another important type in the field of work integration is BW. They are either within the
structures of major welfare associations like Deutscher Caritasverband, Paritätische
Wohlfahrtsverband, Diakonisches Werk, Deutsches Rotes Kreuz or Arbeiterwohlfahrt and operate
there as sub-units or as subsidiaries with certain freedoms. In general, these welfare associations
and especially the five above are delivering the majority of social services in Germany (Heinze,
Schneiders & Grohs, 2011). The BW share many similarities with the municipality owned KB
like their mode of integration and training offered but have also key differences. First, they seek
to reduce poverty and not just long-term unemployment since many of them are associated with
the Church. Walking hand in hand with this, they also have considerable voluntary human
resources that can be mobilized through their strong network. Finally, this type of WISE
generates more financial resources through their economic activity which makes them more autonomous from the state. However, they opt for the legal status as association (e.V.) and have to reinvest their revenues into their mission. One prime example for BW is the Diakoniewerk Arbeit & Kultur seated in the Ruhr area that has been portrayed by Bode, Evers and Schulz (2006) in detail. The organization recently gained its formal independence from the protestant Church. They implement public employment programs like the ‘one-Euro job’ with a fixed-term employment contract but do not accept vulnerable people forced by the public labor office to take the offer. Their field of operation is very big and ranges from selling recycled goods and distributing food (‘Tafel’) to managing cultural events for elderly, organizing events in their premises and lobby for the interests of their workers. The new labor market policy has created not just tensions between the organization and the public authorities but also between private firms and the WISE. On the one hand, the management board of Diakoniewerk Arbeit & Kultur sees its social mission endangered through the accountancy and efficiency driven public programs and on the other, the organization faces hostile position from competitive private firms which react sensitive towards the growing importance of the productive activity of the WISE. To ease the tensions, the management board makes extensive use of their social capital and network capabilities. Bode, Evers and Schulz (2006) argue that these tensions of this BW type of WISE are representative for many WISEs in Germany.

Organizations based on local grass root initiatives emerged as a solution to a social problem that was not tackled by the state, yet. For that reason, BLUI are different from the other two types that complement rather than substitute the state and have work integration as primary mission. Work integration is a means for BLUI to achieve their primary social goal oftentimes linked to environmental or cultural issues. The committed group running the oftentimes preferred legal form as association (e.V.) relies heavily on the surrounding civic engagement and social capital. This type often encounters uncertainties regarding stable allies and well established players in their field of activity (Bode & Graf, 2000; Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2004). Therefore their financial resources are not as institutionalized as in the former two types but are rather bound to their base of supporters and the contract partner for a specific integration service. In the majority of cases, the mode of integration is indeed temporary but Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002) also found organizations that employed marginalized people on a permanent basis. A good example for this type is Nutzmüll e.V. from Hamburg. The organization was founded in 1984 by a group
of citizens and has the primary mission to recycle goods and resell them again. By now, the association employs 250 long-term unemployed on the provisional basis of a ‘one Euro job’ within their six recycling projects (see http://www.nutzmuell.de/).

The fourth type common in Germany is the SBG which offers permanent self-financed jobs to risk groups. This type plays a minor role because their number is very limited and bound to a public initiative from a few Länder such as Lower Saxony, Thüringen and Saxony (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2004a). The legal form of this type is for-profit (*GmbH*, ‘Aktiengesellschaft’, *AG* and in some cases *eingetragene Genossenschaft, eG*) since the idea behind the literally translated ‘social firms’ is to launch an economically promising venture with financial support of the state for an incorporated social mission. The firms oblige themselves to employ and train vulnerable individuals and in turn receive public start-up funding decreasing over a course of four years. At the end of this public subsidization, the firms have to prove their competitiveness on the market without further public aid. This way the public authorities make sure that vulnerable individuals are transferred into the primary labor market through meaningful work and the firms may tailor the training of these individuals to their needs. However, it remains unclear whether these firms continue to have a social mission after the subsidization phase (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002) and how long the tenure of the vulnerable people is. Furthermore, social capital and voluntary workers, if any are present at all, function only as means to increase profitability. Going through a number of databases from umbrella organizations, I was not able to find a good example for this type of WISE. The *fairKauf eG* comes closest to a SBG because it combines strong economic activity with work integration and training of marginalized long-term unemployed. The WISE restores donated goods like furniture or clothes in their workshops and sells them in a central department store. Collecting, restoring and selling are activities undertaken by the vulnerable people who are trained at the same time. After a probationary period and completed vocational training, many of these individuals have the chance to continue their work through a further two years contract.

Now that the landscape of WISEs in Germany has been portrait, the literature review continues with organizational culture.
II. II  ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

II. II. I  WHAT IS ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE?
‘How things are around here” is a phrase that is often heard as response to the question what the culture of an organization is. It is the social glue that binds the members of an organization together and gives meaning to a venture (Schein, 2010; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Furthermore, it is the institutionalized way problems are solved and organizational effectiveness and competitive advantage is ensured (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). However, organizational culture goes undetected and taken-for-granted most of the time until it is challenged or rigorously analyzed.

Although the concept has been analyzed very early in the 1940s by for instance Whyte (1948) focusing on the norms and values that guide social relationships in restaurants, it was the seminal paper of Pettigrew (1979) that caught the attention of a wide audience beyond anthropologists (Detert, Schroeder & Mauriel, 2000; Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011; Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013; Schneider, 2014). For the Professor on Strategy and Organization at the University of Oxford, OC is the product of an entrepreneur imprinting concepts like symbol, language, ideology, belief, ritual and myth on his venture and its members. Especially for business and management schools, OC offered a new lens to study organizations from a human interaction perspective rather than from a mere economical standpoint. However, Jung et al. (2009) stress the fact that Pettigrew solely coined the term whereas the following three bestsellers opened the topic to a broader non-academic management audience: Ouchi (1981) Theory Z, Peters and Waterman (1982) In Search for Excellence, and Deal and Kennedy (1982) Corporate Cultures. The former authors labeled it corporate culture, which became a commercial synonym to OC, while some others refer to it as enterprise culture (Zerwas, 2014).

After more than three decades of organizational culture studies, there is neither agreement on what the concept is nor how it should be investigated (Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013). One reason for this disagreement is that culture itself has no fixed definition (Alvesson, 2010). After reviewing various definitions, Detert, Schroeder & Mauriel (2000) conclude that OC is a long-lasting and autonomous phenomenon that consists of a combination of artifacts (such as symbols, rituals, practices, etc.), beliefs and values, and underlying assumptions shared by the organizational members. Further they summarize that the concept is holistic, socially
constructed, historically determined, found at different levels and within different features of organizational life (see p.851).

Since the 1980s, interdisciplinary interest in the overarching construct organizational culture has grown rapidly and has produced more than 4,600 scientific articles (Hartnell, Ou & Kinicki, 2011). The most commonly used (Jung et al., 2009) is the one by Schein (1984) for whom organizational culture is:

“[…] a pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaption and internal integration and that have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.” (Schein, 1984, p.3)

This definition clarifies several important aspects of OC that have been ignored before. First, culture is not static but a dynamic process led by a balancing act of external acceptance and internal compromise to find the best solution to obtain the organizational objectives. Second, as long as the members share common history, culture is relatively stable because it is the property of a group independent of the group size. Applied on organizations, this means that all members have preexisting basic assumptions before they enter an organization stemming from for instance nationality, sport clubs, educational backgrounds or departmental subcultures. These new member has thus to adapt to the organizational basic assumptions and align them with his or hers so that they do not interfere with the collective pattern. This process implies that OC can be taught. Finally, OC is somewhat a solution to a set of problems that are reoccurring in the everyday life of the organization. Similar to Pettigrew (1979), Schein (2009) believes that leaders can steer this dynamic process to ensure that it is congruent to the organizational objectives.

To understand what is meant with ‘pattern of basic assumptions’, Schein (1984) developed a three-level model that arranges the cultural manifestations from clearly visible to tacit and difficult to distract. OC manifests itself in (1) visible artifacts, (2) espoused justifications and (3) unconscious tacit assumptions. Artifacts are easily observable and oftentimes tangible. This includes the buildings, rooms, dress codes, decorations and the general behavioral climate. On an
outsider or new member, these artifacts have an immediate impact but they do not offer any explanations why they are there. The meaning of artifacts is mirrored in the espoused values of an organization, the second level of this model. One can either go and ask questions to members of the organization or review official documents referring to the image the organization seeks to implement. These documents or conversations will reveal the intent of for instance an open space office or the formal dress code of an organization. Oftentimes, big organizations offer introductory books for new employees to ensure that they familiarize with the values behind the artifacts. However, espoused values and artifacts do not always align well. These inconsistencies can only be revealed through the most crucial level of organizational culture manifestation, namely the shared tacit assumptions. These unconscious assumptions are the result of the personality of the founding team and leader, who bring in their previous values and norms into the new venture. If the organization is successful in obtaining their goal, new members will share this behavior and ‘working style’ through a joint learning process. In essence, shared tacit assumptions can be analyzed by investigating the background and personality of the leader or entrepreneur and the required technology to carry out the tasks to fulfill the organizational objective(s). In sum, this framework can be used to analyze cultural processes within organizations that have been initiated consciously by managerial decisions or unconsciously by a learning behavior of all members.

Despite its ubiquitous presence in empirical research, many scholars apply Schein’s (1984) definition and three-level model but their operationalization focuses only on one level. In fact, it is a general pitfall in OC research that holistic conceptualizations are used but are than wrongly operationalized to measure merely one particular aspect of the provided concept (SOURCE). This investigation into OC narrows down the concept to espoused values. The following section is going to explain the difference between a holistic and a reductionist approach.

III. Empirical Approaches to Organizational Culture

Studying OC is no easy endeavor as it attracts a multidisciplinary audience with varying research agendas. There is no universally good way to study OC, since management scholars will continue to criticize symbolic and essentially holistic approaches to culture for its missing value-added for practitioners and the organizations and anthropologists will continue to contest functionalist studies for down-sizing or even misinterpreting the complex concept for the sake of
practicability (Martin, 2002). These are the two schools of thought that guide and divide approaches to the study of OC (Martin, 2002; Ostroff & Schulte, 2014; Dension, Nieminen & Kotrba, 2014).

Interpretative, emic, or symbolic approaches highlight the uniqueness of a culture and how it came about. The organization is assumed to be the culture itself and thus OC is treated like a metaphor for something that is idiosyncratic. Interpretative researchers tend to explore the culture by following the daily activities of the organizations without interfering. Mostly anthropologists engage in such (comparative) case study research that is essentially holistic.

The other approach perceives OC from a functional or etic perspective. The culture of an organization is assumed to be like an asset of an organization and is hence treated like a variable. Functionalist approaches seek to compare the cultures of organizations with predefined theoretical assumptions. For that, scholars with a functional approach develop complex multidimensional constructs to measure OC in an oftentimes large n survey research. They aim at improving an organization by exploring and correlating its organizational culture factors with other variables that are deemed to be crucial. Very early, scholars found out that there is no universally good OC increasing the effectiveness independent of the size, seat, or sector of the organization. For that reason, researchers developed dimensions that illustrate the distinctiveness along two extremes. It is thus not surprising that functionalist approaches tend to analyze broad values and norms rather than deeper unconscious collective behavior (Ostroff & Schulte, 2014). Blurring theories of the two approaches is “therefore deservedly suspect” (Martin, 2002, p.160).

Martin (2002) advocates a three-perspective approach to OC, since sharedness as definitional characteristic is sometimes inappropriate. The integrationist perspective views OC as a shared phenomenon and everything apart from it is either ignored or presented as something that has to be fixed. In contrast, the fragmentation perspective investigates the clashes of culture within an organization. According to this perspective, personal, occupational and positional differences of the members are unlikely to converge into one oversimplified OC. Somewhere in the middle between these two perspectives is the differentiation view conceding that subcultures may emerge based on for instance gender, position or department of the organization but may nonetheless correspond to the overall OC. Research on OC should thus focus on all perspectives to draw insightful and practicable conclusions.
This thesis applies an etic or functionalist perspective on OC. Thus, OC is reduced to measurable values and norms (in Schein’s terminology: espoused values). Although the three-perspective approach by Martin (2002) should be considered for in-depth studies on large organizations, it would extent the scope of this thesis. This study applies an integrationist perspective to OC, because (1) work integration social enterprises are small to medium-sized and therefore cultural clashes within the organizations and subcultures are less likely to occur and (2) fragmentation and differentiation perspectives offer a good lens to investigate single cases or comparative case studies but it is difficult to measure differences within and between organizations in a cross-sectional study as envisioned for this thesis. The following section deals with the boundaries of OC. This is very crucial for this seemingly all encompassing concept.

II.III.III The Boundaries of Organizational Culture
The previous section discussed what OC is and how it is conceptualized in this thesis. However, it is equally important to ask what OC is not to delineate the multi-dimensional concept from other related concepts. Particularly important for the this thesis is the delineation of OC from societal culture and organizational climate.

Culture as such is a multilayered concept that changes with the unit of analysis. Individuals behave according to their values and normes which are framed by institutions like family, friends, school, and so forth and when one looks at the (supra-)national level one can observe that common artifacts, espoused values and tacit assumptions exist as well. For instance, flags, anthems and official governmental buildings tell much about how a country or a political union like the EU wants to present itself. The constitution, the laws and regulations and the speeches of governmental representatives can be considered to be the espoused values. Collective unconscious assumptions are likewise difficult to observe but also guide national or European society. Germans unconsciously are cautious when arguing about World War I and World War II and the same holds true for Belgians and the colonial era. So what could be the difference between a societal culture and the culture of an organization?

Dickson, Kwantes and Magomaeva (2014) find four commonalities and five differences between the two concepts. The two concepts have in common that culture is in both concepts mainly understood as (1) values which are (2) shared but nonetheless (3) not uniform but rather splattered around a mean norm and which guide the way decisions are made in an (4) unconscious process.
Despite these consistencies, one major difference is the choice of each member to become part of the culture group. The degree to choose an organization and its culture is much greater for an individual than the degree of freedom to change one’s nationality, which is only possible after reaching adulthood. Second, societies cannot forbid an individual to be born into it, whereas organizations and their leaders can carefully select their members. Third, the process to become part of culture from an organization is much simpler (e.g. paying membership fees, applying for a job, etc.) than changing citizenships which is more complex and entails a lengthy and somewhat determinate process. Fourth, organizations can more easily dismiss members and oftentimes do not even need justification for it, whereas societies require concrete evidence to deprive someone from the privileges of one’s citizenship or to make the decision to deport someone (see e.g. Guantanamo Bay detention camp or the case of Edward Snowden). Finally, organizations often have an explicit culture that is somewhat steered towards certain objective(s) whereas societal culture is implicit and can be considered a bottom-up movement oftentimes without concise goals.

Although organizational climate and OC are often discussed together, as for instance in the Oxford Handbook of Organizational Climate and Culture (Barbera & Schneider, 2014), the two concepts have different foci. Culture refers to rather static attributes that are collectively assumed to be possessed by the members of the organizations like a general code of conduct, whereas climate refers to dynamic attributes of each member at a given point in time. Climate can be observed more easily and is more adaptable to changing environments. For instance, a temporal success of a firm might invoke very positive feelings that leads to increased risk-taking behavior. If this climate endures and success is sustained, risky behavior can become a general code of conduct for the employees and may alter the OC. Therefore, climate and culture are connected, but climate is understood as a snapshot and culture is the whole film that is made up of all snapshots. The following part is going to review the methodology of previous studies on OC and how culture has been constructed in scales.

II.III.IV Multidimensional Constructs of Organizational Culture
To date, OC has been studied with three methods (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The first method is field research like grounded theory, ethnographic inquiry or storytelling which includes the involvement of the researcher into the organizational setting to undertake in-depth member or
employee observations. This method is overly holistic and usually guided by interpretative theory. The second method is based on the analysis of language content created by the organization through for instance qualitative or quantitative content analysis. To use Scheins’ (1984) terminology, only espoused values are evaluated to retrieve information on OC. This subsection is dedicated to the third method which attempts to place the culture of organization on a scale on several dimensions.

Similar to the diversity of definitions is the deployment of dimensional constructs of OC. With appropriate argumentation, the concept OC allows to include virtually all factors that remotely resemble artifacts, espoused values and tacit assumptions. Therefore, Cameron and Quinn (2011) note that independent of the framework, OC will always be a chosen composition of factors that will never be comprehensive. In Table 1, five major constructs of OC are listed including their authors, name, number of dimensions and number of survey items. The striking differences in dimensions and items are attributed to the initial intention of the inventors (Jung et al., 2009; Dension, Nieminen & Kotrba, 2014). Although all constructs attempt to relate OC to performance, Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1983) and Denison & Mishra (1995) focus explicitly on that relationship. Cooke & Rousseau (1988) further investigate how people fit into a desired OC. In the same vein, O’Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991) had employee commitment in mind when they put their construct together. The initial objective of the construct of Hofstede et al. (1990) was to measure the relationship between national conditioning and OC. In sum, all constructs are a composition of factors that are crucial in investigating something particular. Jung et al. (2009) refer to these constructs as diagnostic instruments which differ from formative constructs that aim at exploring the OC without particular intent.

Table 1: Major constructs of organizational culture and their number of dimensions and survey items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors (year)</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Number of Dimensions</th>
<th>Survey items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cooke &amp; Rousseau (1988)</td>
<td>Organizational Culture Inventory</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hofstede et al. (1990)</td>
<td>Multidimensional Model of Organizational Cultures</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O’Reilly, Chatman &amp; Caldwell (1991)</td>
<td>Organizational Culture Profile</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dension &amp; Mishra (1995)</td>
<td>Theoretical Model of Culture Traits &amp; Organizational Culture Survey</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Detert, Schroeder and Mauriel (2000) undertook a more systematic approach to find the most common dimensions of OC through a qualitative content analysis. After reviewing twenty-five frameworks, the American scholars concluded that eight dimensions appear frequently in the majority of constructs. These are:

1. Intuition and personal experience versus rationality and fact-based decision-making
2. Short versus Long-term goal setting or focus
3. Internal versus external motivation of employees
4. Stability versus change, innovation and personal growth
5. Task focus versus human interaction or process focus
6. Isolation versus cooperation and/or collaboration
7. Horizontal versus vertical control structures
8. Internal versus external focus on interaction with the environment

For this study, the Competing Values Framework (CVF) is chosen for multiple reasons. First, the construct’s content validity and reliability has been approved through various statistical models (see Hartnell et al., 2011, p.678). Especially vis-à-vis other tools measuring organizational effectiveness has the CVF been supported as most comprehensive (Rojas, 2000). Secondly, the model has been applied in over 10,000 organizations worldwide with multi-disciplinary interest and differing theoretical foundations (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). For instance, Grabowski et al. (2014) have focused on a voluntary organization in-depth and Rohrbaugh (1981) compared the OCs and performances of public employment service centers. This voluminous literature offers a rich theoretical basis to investigate work integration social enterprises. Third, the CVF’s argument that organizational effectiveness is based on a variety of criteria is especially useful in the context of work integration social enterprises. Social enterprises in general and WISEs in particular are understood here as hybrid organizations with double or sometimes even triple bottom-line. Achieving these sometimes contradictory goals requires a diverse set of factors contributing to the success of WISEs. Finally, the CVF offers a typology, which is a useful device to understand a new field of inquiry (SOURCE). Quantitative studies on OCs in social enterprises have not been conducted yet and the results of this study offer a good starting point for future research with more complex (and holistic) models of OC. Additionally, the theoretical foundations of the CVF will be tested on the OCs of social enterprises, which are understood as
hybrid models between public, private and non-profit sectors (Doherty, Haugh & Lyon, 2014). The following section presents the CVF in greater detail.

II.II.V THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) is the result of exploratory research attempting to make sense of the various indicators for organizational performance. Quinn and Rorhbaugh (1983) reviewed Campbell’s et al. (1974) thirty criteria on organizational effectiveness and to find common overarching patterns. Seven panel academic members were asked to first eliminate criteria under specified rules and then they had to rate the relatedness of each possible pair through a Likert scale. After this explorative phase and 17 remaining criteria, they invited another 48 scholars who have published in Administrative Science Quarterly to rate the relatedness. The two American scholars from the University of Michigan’ Ross School of Business analyzed the responses through the INDICAL algorithm, a multidimensional scaling method comparable to factor analysis, and validated the results of the exploratory phase.

The criteria can be divided by three major values dimensions as depicted in Figure 4. The horizontal axis represents the focus of the organization, which ranges from internal orientation towards the development of people within the organization to external orientation towards the development of the organization itself in its environment. The vertical axis refers to the structure of the organization, which ranges from flexible to stable structures. The third value dimension is understood as a depth axis and reflects “the degree of closeness to desired organizational outcomes or a means-ends continuum” (Quinn & Rorhaugh, 1983, p.367). This theoretical model is called competing values framework because all three dimensions describe ongoing dilemmas in organizational literature on the antecedents of organizational effectiveness. According to the authors, effectiveness is thus not a unitary concept but concepts within a broader construct of four competing ideal models of OC.
The competing ideal models are the four resulting quadrants in Figure 4 and have later on been relabeled in Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy, and Market OCs (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The upper left quadrant represents the *clan culture*, which is flexible, internal-oriented and guided by values such as cohesion, participation, commitment and loyalty. Cameron and Quinn (2011) describe this type as an extended family where members share more than work-related information and leaders function somewhat like parents. Universities have very often clan cultural traits (Berrio, 2003) as it is perceived to be the most effective culture for them (see Cameron et al., 1991; Smart & St. John, 1996). Further, empirical studies confirm that hospitals have clan cultural values (Davies et al., 2007) and high ratings on clan culture lead to higher patient satisfaction in hospitals (Meterko, Mohr & Young, 2004; Davies et al., 2007; Gregory et al., 2009) but not to better performance on controllable expenses (Gregory et al., 2009).

Organizational members valuing flexible structures and an external orientation share an *adhocracy culture*. Organizations with such values can rapidly reinvent themselves in environments that are characterized by uncertainty and ambiguity as the term implies that something is created ad hoc and is thus temporary, innovative and somewhat dynamic. Characteristics of adhocracies are adaptability, creativity and flexibility. Furthermore,
adhocracies are led by visionary leaders that take risks and are committed to expanding their venture through innovations. These personal individualist traits are also expected from their employees. Typical adhocracy cultures can be found in consultancy firms where organizational structures are tailored to temporary projects which are dropped once the project has been accomplished. In the same vein, adhocracy cultures can be found within large organizations that adopt temporary projects on a regular basis. Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle (2011) found out that manufacturing organizations in southeast Spain with adhocracy cultures were more innovative than other cultures.

The hierarchy culture is in the bottom left quadrant of the CVF because it has a stable structure and an internal focus. Hierarchy cultures value their consistent and predictable output, continuous functioning and efficiency. The organizational glue is based on the formalized rules and policies that guide the work of the employees. Knowing and executing these predefined tasks is the requirement for promotion within the hierarchical structures of the organization. Leaders are thus expected to know and enforce the organizational policies and safeguard the promotion of members who share this quality. Hierarchical cultures and bureaucracies are used interchangeably. Weber (1947) identifies seven attributes of bureaucracy, which are accountability, separate ownership, impersonality, specialization, rules, hierarchy, and meritocracy. Hierarchical cultures are thus dominant in large organizations and government agencies. Where adhocracies have been found to be innovative vis-à-vis the other types of OC, so do hierarchies show significantly higher levels of imitation processes (Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez and Sanz-Valle, 2011). Furthermore, formalized rules and policies produce dysfunctional barriers to communication between departments and specialized expertise is oftentimes not sufficiently recognized and remains undetected and unexploited (see DiPadova & Faerman, 1993).

The market culture is characterized by an external focus and a stable structure and can thus be found in the bottom right quadrant of the CVF. The external orientation stems from the goal to reach and maintain competitive advantage vis-à-vis other competitors. Hence, market cultures are based on the assumption that their environment is hostile and only high productivity rates can assure the survival of the venture. Organizations with market cultures have tough leaders who hold their employees together with the aspiration of winning. Monetary returns for goods and
services offered, market shares, low transaction costs and stable demand from customers are the major measurement tools to evaluate the performance of an organization with market culture.

Although the name Competing Values Framework implies that the values stand in contradiction to each other, they are not mutually exclusive. In fact, balanced cultures with equally high scores on the four types are not only possible but even recommended to managers and leaders (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). It is assumed that focus on one particular organizational culture type can lead to shortcomings or ‘blind spots’ (Gregory et al., 2009, p.675) in other domains. These shortcomings will have an impact when the environment demands a recalibration of the cultural setting (e.g. commercialization of nonprofits). Quinn (1988) found out that managers with high values on all four culture types are rated by their staff to be more effective compared to managers with emphasis on one particular culture type. This hypothesis has been supported by Yeung et al. (1991) as well. In particular, employee health and satisfaction are significantly higher in organizations with strong balanced cultures (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). Dension, Hooijberg and Quinn (1995) argue that effective leaders and managers must perform seemingly contradictory roles to meet the expectations of diverse stakeholders. Especially in organizations with multiple stakeholders and diverging demands is a balanced culture relevant, as for instance in healthcare (Ramanujam & Rousseau, 2006).

An example for an aggregated model with many organizations is provided in Figure 5 below. Over one thousand U.S. organizations from public, private and not-for-profit sectors reveal that the espoused values of the market type of OC dominate, followed by hierarchy and clan culture values. Adhocracy values appear less strong among the mixed set of U.S. organizations. The following three parts will discuss assumptions derived from literature about the three sub-questions of the research question. As a result, testable hypotheses will be formulated to provide a precise answer to the questions.
II.II.VI WHAT KIND OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE MIGHT GERMAN WISES HAVE?
This part is devoted to the first descriptive sub-question of the research question, namely what kind of OC do German work integration social enterprises have. The previous two sections reviewed WISEs in Germany and provided a framework to analyze OC.

Intuitively one would assume that the German four types of WISEs correspond to a considerable degree to their adherence to the private, public and not-for-profit sector which will affect their OC. Or in Pestoff’s (2014) understanding, the four types’ different placement within the third sector will result in different cultural values. Under this assumption, the proximity of the municipality-owned WISE (KB) to the public sector is likely to create an OC based on strong hierarchy values. Likewise, the closeness of social firms (SBG) to the private sector will alter the OC towards market values of the CVF. The other two types, independent employment agencies (BLUI) and employment centers of welfare federations (BW), will show tendencies towards clan culture values because they are adhering more to the not-for-profit sector (community in Pestoff’s understanding (2014)).
This is an overly institutionalist argument since it is believed that certain recurring behavioral patterns for each type of WISE will result in different organizational cultures. Such pattern of behavior are a product of strong ties to local public employment centers (KB), or to the Church (BW), or a part of a funding contract (SBG) or are mirrored by the constant struggle of a civil society organization to fight for its independence (BLUI).

Against this institutionalist choice perspective stands the theory of environmental determinism. Borrowed from biology, this theory subsumes that environmental factors in particular the nature of the task, in the case of WISEs the work integration for a targeted clientele, are the main cause for certain cultural behavior. The organizations have no choice but to follow the optimal cultural values to carry out the task of work integration in the most effective way to survive as entity. Target groups of these work integration programs of the four WISEs need guidance to reintegrate into the labor market. WISEs thus have to embrace both hierarchy values including formal rules and procedures while at the same time give these individuals a sense of belonging (clan culture).

Figure 6: The four German types of WISE and their affiliation to the organizational forms of state, market and non-profit sectors as hybrid organizations (Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002)

Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002), the national experts who carried out the comparative European Commission projects, argue that the four types of WISEs identified in Germany are all close to the public sector. Against the intuitive guess, Figure 6 above shows that all four types are placed within the categorical sector of the state. Public organizations are a prime example for hierarchy cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2012). That implies that WISEs should possess strong values on the
lower left quadrant of the CVF. They should be internally focused while establishing a stable and controllable environment within the organization. This point of view reinforces the assumption that hierarchy values guide everyday operations of German WISEs rather than market or adhocracy values. Combined with the nature of the task argument derived from environmental determinism theory, clan culture values might play an equally important role for German WISEs.

II.II.VII Where Might This Organizational Culture Come From?
There are many possible causes of OC (e.g. particular market characteristics, types of employees, leadership style, offered product or service, etc.) and discussing and testing them on German WISEs will certainly extend this thesis. However, three factors are particularly interesting from a political science and public administration point of view. These are type of WISE, national conditioning and organizational size.

In the previous part, it is theorized that German WISEs will have comparable OCs. Their closeness to the public sector (see Figure 6) should have the effect that they operate in a similar manner to public entities. That implies strong espoused values on hierarchy. Whether these WISEs are municipality-owned, commercial, led by welfare federations or independent initiatives is assumed to not affect this general tendency of internal focus, stability and control. This assumption shall be tested through the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1: There will be no difference between types of WISE and organizational culture.**

Hofstede (1980) research on national conditioning of a globally operating firm has confirmed that national culture affects OC. Dickson, Kwantes and Magomaeva (2014) do not rule out that OC can likewise affect national culture (see e.g. Gazprom and Russian culture). Compared to other nations, Germany is a rather young nation state. Consisting of sixteen Länder, the regional culture within the Federal Republic is still very vibrant. Especially between the five new Länder, former German Democratic Republic, and the eleven old Länder differences continue to exist. Even after German reunification in 1990, these differences express themselves not only in statistical terms (unemployment rate, mean income, poverty rate, growth rate, etc.) but also regarding a persistent mentality in the new eastern Länder (Wüllenweber, 2012). For instance, the left-wing party, *Die Linke*, receives most of its votes in the East; Germans from new Länder
cannot be found in top management positions of large corporations because the 30 to 50 years old East Germans learned to behave subordinately to work one’s way up whereas Western Germans try to become a special asset for their employer to climb the ladder (Maaz, 2012). This striking difference is also mirrored in WISEs according to Wüllenweber (2012).

West German WISEs were the result of bottom-up social movement, especially in the 1970s and 1980s, whereas the establishment of east German WISEs was top-down after German reunification. They were used as a tool to counteract mass-unemployment and to (re-)qualify the eastern population for the changing environment from socialism to capitalism. The bureaucratic attempt of the former Secretary of Labor Norbert Blümto to tap the labor force potential of the new citizens by newly founded municipality-owned WISE has led to very ineffective and counterproductive outcomes (Wüllenweber, 2012). Thus, Western WISEs should have a much stronger identity than the WISEs from the new eastern Länder. Therefore the following hypothesis will be tested:

**Hypothesis 2:** There will be a significant difference between the organizational culture of WISEs from new Länder and the organizational culture of WISEs in the old Länder.

It is generally known that more employees require more complex structures to divide tasks and to ensure a clear decision-making mechanism (Daft, 2012). Small organizations are more flexible and responsive whereas large organizations are more stable and complex. Small organizations have committed employees and offer a sense of belonging and large organizations can counteract difficult times much better and offer a sense of security (Daft, 2012). This reflects the flexibility-stability dimension of the CVF and therefore one can assume that clan and adhocracy cultures are more likely to be small in size whereas market and hierarchy cultures are more likely to be large in size. The following hypotheses will test this:

**Hypothesis 3:** There is a positive relationship between organizational size and hierarchy culture.

**Hypothesis 4:** There is a negative relationship between organizational size and clan culture.
II.III DOES ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE LEAD TO ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS?

The competing values framework is a product of effectiveness criteria. Organizational effectiveness is understood as a general construct encompassing internal operations, external representation, and achievement of financial, social and/or environmental organizational objectives.

The CVF differentiate between four main areas of effectiveness attainment. First, clan culture values are assumed to improve the human interaction within the organization. Employees are more satisfied and committed when their employers value them as human beings. Second, adhocracy values encompass the innovativeness of the organization and its assets. Freedom, individuality and creativity are valued to unleash the innovativeness of the employees. Third, the values associated with hierarchy are assumed to enhance the efficiency to reach predefined tasks. Similar to the division of task at a conveyor belt, do managers with hierarchy values seek to increase the efficiency of their labor force. Finally, market culture entails a focus on profit and market share. With market values and the idea of survival of the fittest, managers believe to safe their organization from competition and bankruptcy. This linkage is the core assumption of the CVF. OC is created intentionally in an organization that has a committed management board. This OC then leads to desired outcomes on effectiveness criteria. Independent of the nature of the organizational goal(s), four different indices reveal whether the management board values:

- the personal development of their staff (Human Relations – Clan Culture)
- the innovativeness of their output (Open Systems – Adhocracy Culture)
- the efficient attainment of predefined tasks (Internal Processes – Hierarchy Culture)
- the profit-maximization through productive activity (Rational Goal – Market Culture)

Against this general believe that is taken for granted nowadays (see Cameron & Quinn, 2011), Hartnell et al. (2011) found out that these theoretical underpinnings of the CVF produce only mixed results and thus cannot be fully confirmed. The American psychology scholars undertook a meta-analysis of 84 empirical studies and tested the human relations theory, open systems theory and the rational goal model. The human relations theory is confirmed and employee satisfaction is indeed significantly stronger when clan culture scores are high, but adhocracy cultures are not significantly more innovative and market cultures are also not producing higher quality products and services. However, market cultures are still performing significantly better
on finance than the other culture types. Therefore, the authors concluded that this linkage shall be treated cautiously and the values of the culture types shall not be seen from a black-and-white perspective but rather from a point-of-view where a certain mix of values leads to comparable results on effectiveness criteria than just one quadrant. Thus, values are not competing but are rather mutually reinforcing each other. Despite this remarkable finding, the four theories and how they have been used in past research is going to be outlined in the next subsections.

II.III.I HUMAN RELATIONS THEORY
The human relations theory is captured by the clan culture quadrant. Human relations theorists posit that values that express teamwork, participation, consensus, mutual trust and openness lead to committed and satisfied employees. The CVF postulates that managers who value the empowerment of their staff automatically increase the job satisfaction and the organizational commitment of their employees. The conceptual needs-based model of Cardador and Rupp (2010) outlines how culture affects employees’ perception of their work. They propose that employees in supportive cultures, which are equivalent to clan culture (see Cardador & Rupp, 2010, p.163), are more likely to satisfy the need for a meaningful existence and belonging. For this study, the focus will be on job satisfaction. In general, job satisfaction is not just understood as the feelings of one individual towards the activities that make up the job but is associated with all facets of the job like supervision, the team and physical surrounding. In this study, it is conceptualized as the perceived “[…] positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p.1304). The theoretical underpinning of the clan culture type is illustrated by the following relationship:

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between clan culture and perceived employee satisfaction.

II.III.II OPEN SYSTEMS THEORY
Open systems theory is represented by the adhocracy cultural type. Supporter of an open systems approach believe that organizations are influenced mainly by their environment. Whether or not an organization is effective depends on their ability to adapt to its environment. An indicator for this ability is their innovativeness as reaction to the external demands. Managers embrace an OC where individual risk taking, freedom and the development of cutting edge products and services are enforced. Henceforth, organizational innovativeness is conceptualized twofold as the
willingness to change (Calantone et al., 2002) and “as the implementation of an idea, service, process, procedure, system, structure, or product new to prevailing organizational practices” (Jaskyte, 2004, p.158).

For instance, innovative WISEs are characterized by the number of frequently launched projects as a reaction to changing public policy schemes, the number of long-term unemployed in their region or changes in habitual buying behavior. Organizations with strong focus on other cultural types are assumed to be less innovative because they have merely predefined tasks in mind (Hierarchy), the staff cohesion hampers creative and deviant ideas of individuals (Clan), and the narrow focus on the competitors creates a situation where short-term goals are preferred rather than risky long-term projects (Market). Therefore, the following hypothesis has been articulated:

**Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and organizational innovativeness.**

**II.III.III INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL**

The Internal process model is the foundation of the hierarchy culture type of the CVF. This model underlines the importance of information management, constant documentation and measurement of results. The core assumption of this model is that if the role of an employee is defined clearly, they are supposed to meet the expectations. Thereby, organizations with a hierarchy culture are assumed to establish a stable and controlled environment where the organizational goal(s) can be achieved in a continuous and efficient manner. One negative side effect of a hierarchy culture is the risk-averse behavior that accompanies the rigid structures. As a result of this side effect, this cultural type is often seen as the counter piece to adhocracy. Therefore the following hypothesis will be tested:

**Hypothesis 7: There is a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and organizational innovativeness.**

**II.III.III RATIONAL GOAL MODEL**

The rational goal model of organizational effectiveness is found in the quadrant of the market cultural type. Similar to hierarchies does the rational goal model rests on the belief that productivity is achieved through concise planning and goal setting. However, the employees are not incentivized through the controlled and stabilized environment they work in but rather
through extrinsic motivation like bonuses and wage increases. To benefit from these incentives, employees have to compete successfully against market competitors in an oftentimes aggressive manner. Thereby, they scan their external environment which means that they react constantly on customer feedback and the financial demands of organizational shareholders. Criteria for the rational goal model are controlled market share, profit, quality of product or service, and productivity in general. For this reason, it can be assumed that organizations with strong market culture are more likely to be perceived as more economically effective than organizations with other cultural characteristics. This expectation is summarized in the following hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 8:** There is a positive relationship between market culture and perceived role of financial returns on products and services sold.

### II.III.IV Balanced Organizational Culture and Organizational Effectiveness

Previous studies on the CVF have shown that high scores on all four cultural types is an indicator for overall organizational performance. Organizational performance is often portrayed as one type of effectiveness encompassing financial and market performance plus shareholder returns in studies focusing particularly on ordinary commercial enterprises (Richard et al., 2009). However, for social enterprises with double or triple bottom line the limitation to financial indicators would not cover the concept entirely (Brown, 2005). Focusing on organizational performance of non-profit organization, Brown (2005) argued that the challenge to operationalize organizational performance shall not be minimized. Organizational performance of WISE is understood as the quantitative and qualitative development of the work integration programs (the social mission), customer satisfaction with the products and services sold, and the general obtainment of predefined objectives. For the following hypothesis, Brown’s (2005) subjective statements are used to indicate organizational performance.

**Hypothesis 9:** WISEs scoring high on all organizational culture types are more likely to outperform those WISEs with low scores on one and more cultural types in terms of social mission, customer satisfaction and obtainment of predefined goals.

### II.IV Conclusion

The literature review has outlined the most important concepts for this study, namely social enterprise, OC and organizational effectiveness.
Social enterprises can be broadly defined as hybrid organizations with multiple goals. The current state-of-the-art in social entrepreneurship research identifies four conceptual schools of thought. Whereas conceptualizations focusing primarily on income generating activity, social innovation and public legal definition are very narrow, the conceptual approach of EMES offers a good lens to study WISE as a social enterprise. Although one might think that WISE are similar to each other, large-scale European research projects illustrated that they differ particularly on the applied mode of work integration. Thirty-nine types of WISEs in ten European member states were classified into four types with different modes of integration. Among the thirty-nine types, four have been found in Germany with either temporary work integration programs or with self-financed permanent jobs for targeted individuals. Finally, each type has been portrayed with an example.

OC has been conceptualized as a set of values and norms that guide human relations in organizations. After the presentation of several ways to investigate OC empirically, the CVF has been identified as the most appropriate framework for this study. The typology of the CVF and the frequently used OCAI as tool to measure the abstract multidimensional concept have been discussed in detail. The CVF focuses particularly on espoused values and not on artifacts or tacit assumptions and thus is broader than other approaches to OC.

The CVF is based on the idea what people value about the performance of their organization. Four theoretical backgrounds argue that human development, innovativeness, smooth running efficiency and profit orientation all contribute to the effectiveness of organizations.

In total, nine hypotheses have been formulated. The first four hypotheses ask how the culture came about and offer type of WISE, national conditioning and organizational size as possible explanatory factors. The last five test how OC is related to effectiveness. Figure 7 visualizes the causal model of this thesis. The following chapter deals with the question how these hypotheses will be operationalized and evaluated.
Figure 7: Causal model with three possible causes and four possible effects of organizational culture
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES
III. Methodology

For this study, a functionalist perspective on OC is taken. This implies: (1) OC is part of the organization and can be measured as a constructed variable and correlated with other variables; (2) organizational culture is steered towards certain values from the management board. The research question of this study consists of exploratory and explanatory parts. First, the OC of work integration social enterprises in Germany shall be explored. Next, the antecedents of OC shall be tested and finally the effects of OC shall be correlated with variables of organizational effectiveness, which are job satisfaction, organizational innovativeness, financial performance and general organizational performance.

The first hypothesis tests whether Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002) are indeed correct with the assumption that German WISEs as hybrid organizations are more affiliated with the categorical principles of the public sector rather than with the non-profit or the private sectors. Hypotheses two to four investigate the national conditioning proposition of Hofstede (1980) and whether Daft’s (2012) organizational design assumption is correct. The hypotheses five to nine assume that OC is directly related to organizational effectiveness. These assumptions are the underlying idea behind the CVF and have been rigorously tested in previous studies. To add more flesh to the bones, this assumption will be applied on WISE, the units of analysis of this study, and their OC. An overview of the hypotheses can be found in Table 2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal Relation</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Causes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>There will be no difference between types of WISE and organizational culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>There will be a significant difference between the organizational culture of WISEs from new Länder and the organizational culture of WISEs in the old Länder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between organizational size and hierarchy culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>There is a negative relationship between organizational size and clan culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between clan culture and perceived employee satisfaction vis-à-vis the other culture types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and organizational innovativeness vis-à-vis the other culture types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>There is a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and organizational innovativeness vis-à-vis the other culture types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between market culture and perceived role of financial returns on products and services sold vis-à-vis the other culture types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>WISEs scoring high on all organizational culture types are more likely to outperform those WISEs with low scores on one and more cultural types in terms of social mission, customer satisfaction and obtainment of predefined goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: The nine hypotheses and their relation to organizational culture
The following sections will (1) discuss the choice of a fitting research design to answer the research question in the most appropriate way, (2) present the operationalization of the variables, (3) describe the data collection (4) and data analysis and finally (5) critically review the reliability and validity of the chosen research methodology.

III.1  RESEARCH DESIGN
There are three main options to investigate the three-folded research question. One possible way is a comparative case study where a selected number of WISE are analyzed in-depth and compared to each other. Semi-structured interviews with managerial staff of WISE could be conducted to give room to explore the OC and ask the respondents about the link between antecedents of culture on the one and consequences of culture on organizational effectiveness on the other hand. However, the hypotheses could not be tested statistically since no quantifiable data is provided through this design. Although Grabowski et al. (2014) deploy a single case study, their approach is exemplary to analyze the CVF qualitatively. They collected data from various sources including semi-structured interviews and coded them according to the three dimensions of the CVF. The purpose of their study is not just scientific but furthermore they attempted to assist the organization in changing their OC to become more effective. This research design is strong in terms of validity especially when it comes to exploration of new fields of inquiry such as OC of WISE. It captures the complexity and depth of the concepts which is not the case with surveys or experiments (Babbie, 2012). The weakness of this design is reliability threats. These potential threats stem mainly from the subjective interpretations of the observer. For example, in semi-structured interviews interviewers may emphasize aspects that might not be as important to the interviewee.

The second option is an unobtrusive quantitative and/or qualitative content analysis. Similar to other organizations, WISEs are publishing annual reports, position papers and other accessible documents that can be investigated empirically. Coding organizational culture types in a systematic way by counting and identifying espoused values in these documents might reveal the OC. Furthermore, some effectiveness criteria might also be included in these documents so that statistical hypotheses could be tested. Nevertheless, these documents will show the desired OC and effectiveness measures that the organization is willing to share with the public. Hence, this method is limited to desired OC that is only measured through the surface level of espoused
values contrary to the former method where all three levels of Schein’s (1990) organizational culture model could be captured. Furthermore, effectiveness criteria are skewed and disguised in positively framed wording. Therefore, the results of this method have considerable threats to validity but are very reliable.

The third and most common research design for organizational culture studies is a quantitative cross-sectional design where a sample of a population is analyzed in one point in time. This snapshot of reality can be captured through survey research. Managerial staff can be asked to provide general demographic information about their organization and rate their OC on the types of CVF and the various effectiveness measurements through an online questionnaire. In this design, OC would be reduced to espoused values as in the design mentioned before. The advantages of this design are that n can be large and the sample would thus be more representative for the whole population of German WISEs and respondents can fill out the questions fast and whenever it fits their schedule. However, one can never be certain that the survey reaches the desired respondent, the respondent has the required equipment to run the online questionnaire application and the respondent is competent enough to understand and rate the items correctly. Despite these minor shortcomings, this design is considered superior the other two designs and has therefore been chosen for two reasons. First, managerial staff or chief executive officers (CEO) of WISEs are considered to be competent and well equipped to fill out the questionnaire. Undesired responses from other respondents (for instance a secretary) can be avoided which is discussed in the sampling section of this chapter. Second, managers of WISE steer OC and are assumed to know the organization very well. Their perception on the internal culture is very crucial. Yet, they are busy and might not find the time to participate in a long interview session. With the online survey they can flexibly respond in just a few minutes.

### III.II Operationalization

An online survey has been created via the Qualtrics Survey Software. This provider was chosen because data could be easily transferred into SPSS and it is free of charge with a university account. In total, the survey consists of 41 items that can be divided in demographic characteristics (7), independent variables (16), and dependent variables (18). The survey can be found in APPENDIX 3 and its translation in APPENDIX 4. For the last two categories, a 10-point Likert scale was chosen to be able to conduct parametric statistical analysis. An ‘I don’t
know’ option is not offered because the constructs are multidimensional and covered by several items. If respondents would pick such an answer, the aggregated values for the overall constructs could not be calculated and conclusions from these statistical inferences would be void.

The survey was translated into German with the help of a certified English-German translator. A pilot survey distribution has been started from the 14th to the 16th of August 2015 to a few selected individuals. They have been asked to picture themselves as managerial employees from a WISE. This pilot distribution had the aim to estimate the time needed to finish the survey and to locate mistakes. The average time of ten returned pilot surveys was around ten to fifteen minutes. For the actual survey the duration was assumed to be around ten minutes. The following sections present the operationalization of each variable in greater detail.

III.II.1 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
The multidimensional construct ‘organizational culture’ is based on artifacts, espoused values and tacit assumptions. The CVF reduces the complex concept to espoused values. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) is going to be used as layout to measure organizational culture. The operationalization behind the CVF, the so-called Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) consists of six fundamental manifestations of OC:

1. Dominant characteristics
2. Organizational glue
3. Leadership
4. Management of employees
5. Strategic emphasis
6. Criteria of success

The first two refer to basic assumptions, three and four to interaction patterns, and the last two fundamentals to organizational direction. Each of these characteristics of OC is then coded into four items (where each item corresponds to one type of culture of the CVF) that can be scaled through a Likert scale or an ipsative rating scale. The latter is very common among practitioners because it forces the respondent to divide 100 points among the four items leading to oftentimes clear tendencies (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). However, with an ipsative rating scale, or sometimes referred to as ‘forced choice’ scale, inferential statistical tests cannot be computed. Therefore,
Likert scales are used predominantly in empirical studies. Longer versions of the OCAI have been tested and yet the six fundamentals have proven to be as predictive as these other versions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The OCAI is short and yet as predictive as other longer survey versions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This is important because the units of observation of this study, namely top management employees or the employers themselves, are short in time and drop out significantly more often if the survey takes too long (Baruch, 1999).

The proposed operationalization (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, 2012) is, however, still too long and repetitive with its six domains of organizational culture values. For this reason, many scholars have shortened it to four domains (see Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991; Kalliath et al., 1999, Boultgren, 2003; Strack, 2012) which are dominant characteristics, organizational glue, management of employees, and criteria of success. This shortened version is also used for this survey. Boultgren (2003) translated these sixteen items into German and Strack (2012) applied his translations as well. With some minor grammatical changes, the wording has been adopted for this survey as well. OC is not understood as one variable but rather as four variables representing the four types of OC.

Further, it should be noted here that some statements of the OCAI seem to be double-barreled, which implies that the item is put together with multiple parts. To exemplify, the statement ‘The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.’ consists of personal place, extended family and sharing of personal information. However, all these parts point towards the same thing and are crucial in understanding the cultural value behind it, which is in this case the dominant characteristic of a clan culture.

### III.II.Organizational Effectiveness Measures

The organizational effectiveness measures are assumed to be caused by OC and are thus dependent. The multi-faceted nature of job satisfaction, organizational innovativeness, financial performance and general organizational performance require finding short but comprehensive scales.

Perceived job satisfaction refers to the perceived “[…] positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p.1304). The general job satisfaction of Andrew and Withey (1976) has been taken to measure this concept. It consists of five items
referring to the job in general, the relationship to the co-workers, the tasks, the general surrounding conditions, and the available help to get the job done like supervision or equipment. This short alternative has been found to be valid and reliable by Rentsch and Steel (1992) who have correlated it with large scale indices.

Perceived organizational innovativeness is understood as the willingness to change and as an actual rate of adopting innovations. Based on previous research, Calantone et al. (2002) developed a six items scale that has been validated by various studies (see p.519). However, one negatively framed item has been dropped from this survey. Keskin (2006) investigated SMEs in Turkey with this scale and also decided to leave this item out since it does not add further facets of the concept and confuses respondents.

Perceived financial performance relates to the liquidity of the organization and is usually measured by objective indicators like return on investment, sales or assets. However, many important aspects especially important for SE in general and WISE in particular are not covered such as fundraising efficiency or public support (Ritchie and Kolodinsky, 2003; Brown, 2005). A four item scale for financial performance has been constructed taking into account the fiscal stability, returns on sales and services, fundraising efficiency, and financial support from public partners. The respondents rate their financial performance subjectively. This choice is based on the assumption that financial objective data are more time consuming and lead to higher dropout rates since managerial staff might be very careful with this information. Furthermore, it is very likely that organizations that perform well financially are also more likely to provide hard data on their financial performance. To avoid this skewed result, subjective response choices on financial performance are chosen.

Finally, general organizational performance is broader than financial performance and includes the quantitative and qualitative development of work integration programs (the social mission), customer satisfaction, and the general obtainment of predefined organizational goals. The 5-items construct of Brown (2005) served as guideline for this concept. However, one item has been removed and others have been altered to capture the specifics of WISEs and their work integration mission.
III.III DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

After a short clarification about the intent of the survey and the affirmation of the anonymity of respondents, seven items are asked about the organization they are working for and their relationship to it.

The first item asks the respondents to pick the type of WISE they are working for. These are measured nominally with the four identified forms of WISE as discussed in the literature review and two further options. The first one is a mixture of municipality owned corporations and employment centers of welfare federations which has frequently been found during the sampling process. The second response refers to ‘others’ with free space to be filled out by respondents.

The following items include the legal form of the organization, year of establishment, job tenure of respondent, number of beneficiaries from work integration program, the seat of the organization and number of employees with a distinction between full-time, part-time and voluntary workers.

Questions about the sex, age, or specific position in the organization of the respondent, the area the organization is operating in (rural, town or urban), and the gender balance of the organization are intentionally left out to shorten the survey. However, it should be noted that these characteristics might also influence OC and organizational effectiveness. For example, gender balance and area of operation might influence the culture of an organization and the perceived job satisfaction. This shall be the subject of forthcoming investigations.

III.III SAMPLING

The units of analysis are WISEs in Germany. Representative for them is the CEO or other high-ranked managerial staff (management board and company officer with statutory authority (dt. Prokurist)). Hence, the units of observation are high-ranked managerial employees who steer the organization (and the OC) and who are assumed to be able to speak for the entire organization. In fact, WISEs are small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and thus it is believed that CEOs and other managerial staff have a very good overview of the organization and its projects and departments.

These representative individuals were contacted via their organizational email address or, if not provided, through the general email address of the organization. To avoid that low-ranked
employees fill out the questionnaire, the email (see APPENDIX 2) and the survey itself (see APPENDIX 3 and 4) point out that only individuals from the top management board are targeted.

To identify these individuals, the open database of members from the Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Arbeit e.V. (shortly BAG Arbeit e.V.), an umbrella organization for German WISEs, has been used. BAG Arbeit e.V. functions as an interest representation for their WISE members at the federal and European level. They frequently publish position papers, host conferences on relevant topics for WISEs and are member of the European Network of Social Integration Enterprises (ENSIE) where BAG Arbeit e.V. is the sole representative from Germany. In the annual report of 2012, BAG Arbeit e.V. listed 306 members from different provinces in Germany. However, this number includes regional umbrella organizations and entities that do not focus primarily on work integration (e.g. drug advice center). Furthermore, not all organizations had an internet representation and also no email address. Another obstacle is that from the *Land* Saarland no members are enlisted and only a handful of members come from Sachsen-Anhalt or Mecklenburg-Vorpommern.

Next to members of BAG Arbeit e.V., WISEs and the contact details of managerial staff have been searched through the internet that explicitly state their status as WISE (German: *Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaft, BQG*). With this purposive sampling method, top ranked managers of 166 German WISEs have been contacted.

The survey has been activated on the 20\textsuperscript{th} of August 2015 and has been closed on the 3\textsuperscript{rd} of September 2015. Initially, managers have been contacted via email on the 20\textsuperscript{th} and 21\textsuperscript{st} of August 2015. The email included contact details of the researcher so that respondents could call via telephone or answer the email if they had further questions. To increase the return rate, the emails have been sent again from the 27\textsuperscript{th} to the 28\textsuperscript{th} with a following telephone call. The total amount of started surveys is 118 of which 67 are returned completely filled out. Thus the return rate is 40.4 percent and the dropout rate is 43.2 percent. On first sight, the return rate is rather low but still acceptable because Baruch (1999) found out that the response rate for management staff is generally lower compared to other units of observation. The dropout is considerably high and most respondents quit the survey on the introductory text and not during the survey.
It is important to note that many respondents were on holiday during the distribution period of the survey which became apparent due to the automatic holiday response email. Furthermore, a considerable number of respondents said via telephone that they generally not participate in such surveys. Most replied that time constraint hinders them to partake and some have explained to have closed door policy when it comes to providing data to outsiders. This is understandable because WISEs are oftentimes presented to be ineffective in general (see Wüllenweber, 2012), receive different state and private sector support and are portrayed negatively by media and the beneficiaries to the work integration programs. Hitting the headlines is thus generally avoided by most managers of WISEs. Finally, email surveying might exclude some WISEs that are not operating online; some WISEs lacked a website and a handful did not provide an email address from the member data base of BAG Arbeit e.V. However, the 67 completed surveys are considered to be representative for German WISEs and the exploratory nature of this study. Future research into this field may deploy more rigorous sampling methods and take these results for comparison.

III.IV DATA ANALYSIS
The data collected from the online surveys was transposed into SPSS Version 21 to conduct statistical analysis. The hypotheses differ greatly from each other and require different statistical tests. In the following, the chosen statistical test for each hypothesis is critically discussed.

Hypothesis 1 has OC as dependent variable, but OC is better understood as a composition of four variables. Each variable represents one culture type (Clan, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy) and is composed of the aggregated mean on the four items from the four domains of OC. To exemplify, the score on each of the four ‘clan’ statements is summed up and divided by four (the number of domains) to receive the aggregated clan score for each respondent. Therefore, we have four dependent variables and one group factor (type of WISE and organizational seat respectively). The group factor is categorical (nominal) and the four variables of OC are treated as if they have an interval level of measurement (see previous section). The most appropriate statistical test is the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) since we have more than one dependent variable and one categorical independent variable.
Hypothesis 2 is testing whether the means of the OC differ significantly between WISEs seated in the old and the new Länder. An independent samples t-test will reveal whether there is indeed a difference.

Hypotheses 3 to 8 assume a relationship between OC and demographic characteristics (3 and 4) and particular organizational effectiveness variables (5 to 8). Both independent and dependent variables have higher order levels of measurement and thus these relationships can be tested through multivariate linear regression analysis. It is crucial to see the relationship between culture type and organizational size and effectiveness vis-à-vis the other culture types. Therefore a model including all four culture types is constructed.

Similar to Hypothesis 1, we can perform a MANOVA test to find out whether the four independent organizational culture variables correlate with the single dependent organizational performance scale of Brown (2005).

III.IV VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY
To determine the precision and accuracy of the methodology it is necessary to check for pitfalls in validity and reliability. Variables are valid when they reflect the concept they are intended to measure and reliability refers to the method of collecting the data and to what extent the data will yield the same results if it would be repeated again (Babbie, 2012).

The operationalization of the concepts has face validity since they are derived from previous studies that are generally considered to be valid. The OCAI for the CVF is the standard surveying tool and the scales for perceived employee satisfaction, perceived innovativeness, perceived financial and organizational performance are taken from well known scientific sources.

Regarding criterion-related validity, one cannot certainly say whether the measures are congruent with external measures. This thesis explores the OC of WISEs and no comparable study with these units has been undertaken in Germany or elsewhere. However, lower scores on market culture and perceived financial performance point to the findings of previous investigations (see Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002; Davister, Defourny & Grégoire, 2004).
There are some threats to construct validity which are based primarily on the fact that organizational effectiveness is only observed from the point of view of the top manager. First, managers might confuse OC with organizational climate and rate according to the short rather than long-term espoused values and organizational effectiveness. Second, the task of the managers is to keep employee satisfaction high. If it is low the manager might have the feeling to not doing his or her job right, so the respondent might not want to discredit him- or herself. Third, top managers are not always well informed about their employees or they might not even know their lower ranked employees. Fourth, one can never be sure about the honesty of the respondent especially when it is socially desirable to perform well or value clan culture values subconsciously more than the market culture values for example. This might be particularly true for social enterprises like WISE. Finally, respondents might have guessed that certain statements about the OC are connected to organizational effectiveness measures. To overcome these threats, the survey is returned anonymous and respondents are asked in the email and during the survey to look at the long-run and not just the current situation of the organization. Despite the social desirability, managers are assumed to be aware of their shortcomings and should be able to view their work critically.

Content validity is seen critically, too. The OCAI has been shortened to four dimensions as it has been done in other studies. The organizational effectiveness measures have also been tailored to the characteristics of WISEs. However, the CVF and its assessment instrument do not attempt to sketch a holistic but rather a functional perspective of culture. Artifacts and tacit assumptions as conceptualized by Schein (1980) are left out here. Nevertheless, the complexity of the concepts forces the study to reduced aspects that are relevant for the given unit of analysis.

To check the reliability of the data set, the split-half method has been calculated. Cronbach’s alpha, a measure that calculates the variance within one item and the covariance between other selected items (Field, 2009), is for both groups above .8 (.877 and .804 respectively) and the Spearman-Brown coefficient is with .813 high. A test-retest is thus assumed to yield similar reliable results.

Concerning the consistency of the scales for OC and the organizational effectiveness measures, Cronbach’s alpha has been calculated with SPSS. The results are presented in Table 3 on the next page. The subscales of OC, namely the culture types, indicate an acceptable consistency,
even though the consistency for the market scale is respectively lower with .68. Perceived employee satisfaction and perceived innovativeness scales have high reliability above .8 whereas perceived financial performance and perceived organizational performance have relatively low reliability. If particular items are deleted, the scale perceived financial performance could not be improved and thus had to be dropped. On the other hand, the scale perceived organizational performance improved considerably after deleting the item on client satisfaction from $\alpha = .64$ to $\alpha = .69$. Therefore, one item has been dropped for this scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived employee satisfaction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived innovativeness</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived financial performance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived organizational performance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived organizational performance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived organizational performance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.692</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Cronbach’s alpha for the subscales of organizational culture, perceived employee satisfaction, perceived innovativeness, perceived financial and organizational performance

All in all, the applied methodology and the results of the survey are considered to be sufficiently valid and reliable.

**III.V. CONCLUSION**

Several methods from past scientific inquiries into the field of OC have been discussed and a quantitative cross-sectional research design with online surveys has been chosen for this study. The operationalization of the concepts is largely based on scales introduced in former studies that have been proven to be valid and reliable in forthcoming empirical writings repeatedly. However, in some cases (e.g. perceived financial performance) the items have been tailored to the specifics of WISEs. The surveys have been distributed two times via email to 166 top managers of WISEs and 67 completed surveys have been returned. The hypothesis testing requires the use of different statistical tests, which include MANOVA, linear regression and independent two samples t-test. Finally, validity and reliability have been discussed critically and minor threats to both have been identified. However, the results are still considered to be sufficiently valid and reliable. The following chapter is devoted to the analysis.
IV. Analysis
The analysis is divided by four parts from which three are answering the research question of this study. The first section will descriptively present the demographics of the study. The second section is devoted to the exploration of the OC of German WISEs. The third part is depicting possible causes of OC and, similarly, the last part presents the analysis of possible effects of OC.

IV.1 Description of the Organizational Demographic Variables
The organizational demographic items of the survey are type of WISE, legal status of organization, organizational seat, the number of full-time, part-time and voluntary employees, the number of work integration program beneficiaries, and the job tenure of the responding manager. Each variable will be shortly sketched in this section.

Figure 8 is a pie chart showing the types of WISEs from the 67 represented organizations in this study. The lion’s share of represented organizations (38.8 percent) is made up of WISEs organized by welfare organizations. This was expected since they provide the majority of social services in Germany (Heinze, Schneiders & Grohs, 2011). Municipality-owned WISEs and WISEs based on local independent initiatives are equally represented with 25.4 percent of valid units. However, in reality municipality-owned WISE are more often found in Germany than BLUI (see Bode, Evers & Schulz, 2002). Their reluctance to participate in this survey might be their semi-autonomy from the local employment centers and because they are embedded into a complex structure where work integration is one of many social projects. Seven social firms (10.5 percent) are included in the data set.

Regarding the legal statuses of the hybrid organizations, the results indicate that most German WISEs opt for a non-profit limited liability company (dt. gGmbH) status (41.8 percent) followed by the status as voluntary association (dt. e.V.) with 34.3 percent and the commercial status as limited liability company (dt. GmbH) with 16.4 percent. In a few exceptional cases, WISEs opted
for a status as foundation or registered cooperative. The pie chart in Figure 9 illustrates these results.

The organizational seat is measured by the 16 provinces or Länder of the respective organization. More than half of the organizations of the data set are seated in Baden-Württemberg (22.4 percent), Hesse (11.9 percent), Thuringia (10.4) and Berlin (9 percent). Four to seven percent of the participating organizations are seated in Bavaria, Berlin, Bremen, North Rhine Westphalia, Rhineland-Palatinate and Schleswig-Holstein. Finally, very few participating organizations are seated in Brandenburg, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Lower Saxony, Saarland, Saxony and Saxony-Anhalt. Organizations from southern Germany and from the bigger cities are overrepresented.

The current number of beneficiaries of the work integration programs ranges greatly from none to 3000. Two respondents indicated that no beneficiaries are currently employed. 35 percent have one to 100 beneficiaries employed, 25 percent offer their program to 101 to 200 individuals, 15.5 percent have capacities for 201 to 300 long-term unemployed, seven percent typed in that the current number is around 301 to 400, and 13 percent said that they have 401 to 3000 beneficiaries at the moment. Only three respondents said that their organization employs more than 1000 which are 4.2 percent of the whole sample. The mean from the 67 respondents is 260 beneficiaries. From these results, one can draw the conclusion that WISEs with small-scale work integration programs are overrepresented.

Regarding the employees, the mean of full-time employees is 34.85, for part-time employees 24.07, and for voluntary workers 8.54 of 71 organizations of the sample. For the full and part-time employees, the distribution is quite flat whereas 51.4 percent of the organizations have no volunteers at all.
Finally, the job tenure of 67 valid responses from the managers is 15.28. Around 80 percent work for more than five years for the organization. This is important to note because managers who just recently joined the organization might not have sufficient knowledge about the OC of the organization and might confuse it with desired culture or organizational climate.

The foundation year of the organizations differed as well. From 67 valid responses, 2.8 percent were founded in the early 20th century, 4.2 percent were established in the 1970s, 17.9 percent operate since the 1980s, 51.4 percent were created in the 1990s, and the remaining 20.3 percent were founded in the past 15 years. Interestingly, one organization operates since 2014. As in the literature overly discussed, the creation of WISEs in the 1990s has been an instrument to integrate the work force from eastern Germany into the new Federal Republic (see Wüllenweber, 2012; Birkholzer, 2015).

**IV.II Organizational Culture of German WISEs**

In this section, OC of the sample is going to be presented generally for all German WISEs and then divided by type of WISE. Thereby the respective four items for each organizational culture type are computed into one variable with one aggregated mean. This mean will be plotted into the coordinate system of the CVF next to the mean for each of the four organizational culture domains. Additional, the OCs of each of the four types of WISE are compared.

In Figure 10 on page 67, one can find the plotted means on five coordinate systems on all WISEs of the data set. On the top the aggregated means on each organizational culture type is illustrated whereas the bottom four models depict the four domains. The means on each type can be found in the corners of the coordinate systems. In general, the 68 WISEs of the data set show a strong clan culture (7.27) followed by hierarchy (6.98) and adhocracy culture (6.54). Values of the market culture (5.82) are the weakest vis-à-vis values from the other organizational culture types.

A closer look at the domains reveals that particularly on ‘management of employees’ and ‘criteria of success’ the respondents seem to disagree with market culture values (4.54 and 5.11 respectively).

Figure 11 on page 68 uses the same procedure but reduces the cases to the 17 municipality-owned WISEs. Minor differences are found on clan, adhocracy and market culture but a rather strong deviation is found on hierarchy culture (7.74) which is 0.76 higher than on the general
model. This makes the hierarchy culture dominant among municipality-owned WISEs. The domains show that particularly on ‘dominant characteristics’ (9.00), managerial staff of municipality-owned WISEs tend to rate the OC of their venture to be more hierarchical.

Going further to WISEs run by welfare organizations, one can observe in Figure 12 on page 69 lower but very similar aggregated ratings to the general sample. Espoused values of a clan culture type are dominant here (7.01), followed by adhocracy (6.51) and hierarchy culture (6.42). Again, market culture values are very weak (5.5). On the domains, values of ‘organizational glue’ are less characterized by market values (5.81) and values associated with hierarchy culture (6.73) among the 26 WISEs of welfare organizations. This stands in contrast to municipality-owned WISEs where achievement and goal accomplishment on the one hand and clear policies and rules on the other are valued much more (6.76 and 7.82). Furthermore, managerial staff from WISEs run by welfare organizations tend to value hierarchy culture on ‘dominant characteristics’ particularly lower than municipality-owned WISEs (6.96 to 9.00).

The plotted OC of the 17 WISEs based on local and independent initiatives is found in Figure 13 on page 70. The same holds true here: clan culture (7.32) is dominant followed by hierarchy (7.02) and adhocracy culture (6.63). Needless to say that market culture plays a minor role for them as well (5.87). On the domains, no particular differences are found when compared to all WISEs and the other particular types of Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002, 2004, 2006).

The OC of the eight commercial WISEs is plotted in Figure 14 on page 71. Although market culture values are rated higher (6.71) in general, the importance of clan (8.11), adhocracy (7.58) and hierarchy (7.14) culture values is still dominant. Market values are particularly strong in ‘dominant characteristics’ (8.57) and ‘organizational glue’ (7.43). Deviant to other WISEs is the fact that adhocracy values are quite strong on ‘management of employees’ (8.00), also in comparison to other types of WISE.

The assumption that hierarchy culture will be dominant proves to be incorrect. Clan culture is dominant, whereas hierarchy values are on second place. Interpreting the data from another angle by using the two dimensions of the CVF, one finds a clear tendency towards ‘internal focus and integration’ (hierarchy and clan culture) rather than ‘external focus and differentiation’ (market
and adhocracy culture). However, WISEs are balanced concerning ‘stability and control’ and ‘flexibility and discretion’ dimension.
Figure 10: Organizational Culture of 67 German WISEs using the Competing Values Framework
Figure 11: Organizational Culture of 17 municipality-owned German WISEs using the Competing Values Framework
Figure 12: Organizational Culture of 26 German WISEs organized by welfare organizations using the Competing Values Framework
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

Figure 13: Organizational Culture of 17 German WISEs based on local independent initiatives using the Competing Values Framework
Figure 14: Organizational Culture of 7 commercial German WISEs known as Sozialbetrieb using the Competing Values Framework
IV.III CAUSES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
The possible antecedents of OC tested in this study are type of WISE, national conditioning and organizational size.

The first hypothesis stipulates that type of WISE does not alter the organizational culture of German WISE significantly. It will be tested through a MANOVA test.

The assumptions for a MANOVA test are independence of residuals, random sampling, multivariate normality, homogeneity of covariance matrices. The first assumption is clearly met and the second can be assumed to be met as well although purposive sampling has been applied. Concerning the homogeneity of covariance matrices, the Box M’ test indicated that the statistic is significant (p = 0.000 which is greater than .05) and thus the assumption is not met. This means that the variance between the variables (groups) is not equal. However, the effect when this assumption is violated is not clear (Field, 2013) and thus not much attention is paid on this fact. The distribution has been checked and found to be normally distributed.

The most powerful statistic for this test is Pillai’s trace since groups differ here on more than one variate (see Field, 2013). Using this statistic, there is indeed no significant difference between types of WISEs on organizational culture variables, V = .268, F (12,147) = 1.201, p = .288. In line with Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002) German WISEs are not only similar in terms of hybridity but also their OC is similar to each other.

National conditioning is understood as an east-west division of the German Länder. WISEs from Brandenburg, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Saxony, Saxony-Anhalt and Thuringia are grouped as Eastern Länder. Apart from Berlin, a special case and thus left out of the analysis, all other provinces are grouped into the Western Länder. The two groups are compared on the four organizational culture variables.

The required assumptions for an independent samples t-test are evidence for normal distribution and homogeneity of variance (Field, 2013). The histograms from the sample for Western Länder (n = 49) show that normality assumption is fulfilled but the sample of Eastern Länder (n = 12) is fairly normally distributed. This distortion is mainly caused by the low n. Concerning the homogeneity of variance, the Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances shows that it is significant for clan culture (see Table 4 below). For the other three organizational culture types one can
assume that variance is statistically equal. The assumptions are thus met and we proceeded with an alpha level of 0.05.

Table 4 below shows the two-tailed results indicating that differences on clan (t(53) = -1.238, p = .221), adhocracy (t(54) = .180, p = .858), and market (t(56) = -1.461, p = .15) are statistically not significant. However, on hierarchy a statistically significant difference is found (t(58) = -2.875, p = 0.006***). WISEs from eastern Länder have an organizational culture where hierarchy values are stronger than in WISEs seated in western Länder. Using the Cohen’s d, the means between the two groups show a difference of 0.959 which makes it a very strong effect size. Therefore WISEs from former GDR and WISEs from BRD are different on the hierarchy culture but not on the other cultural types and their respective values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: SPSS results of independent samples t-test between organizational seat (dichotomous) and organizational culture variables

Regarding the organizational size composed of number of full- and part-time employees plus the number of volunteers, one can see in Figure 15 on the following page the scatter plots with hierarchy and clan culture variables. The third and fourth hypothesis tests whether organizational size is related to cultural values of the hierarchy - and clan culture type. One can observe that organizational size does predict 2.8 percent of the organizational culture values of the hierarchy type and 2.6 of the clan culture values. These simple linear regressions show clearly that organizational size is not a good predictor for the two organizational culture types. Statistical analysis proves this insignificance for hierarchy (F = 1.731, p = .193) and clan (F = 1.485, p = .228). Both hypotheses are thus rejected.
The last five hypotheses deploy OC as independent variable. The effect of OC on employee satisfaction, organizational innovativeness, perceived importance of financial returns on products and services sold, and organizational performance will be evaluated in this section.

Organizations with strong clan culture values will have more satisfied employees according to the theory behind the CVF. Applied on WISEs, we see that this is indeed the case. In Table 5 below, one can see that in a model where all organizational culture types are included, 66.2 percent of the variance in employee satisfaction is explained by OC. Clan culture values explain 49.1 percent, followed by adhocracy values with 40.7 percent. Hierarchy and market values are less explanatory with around 25 percent respectively. Interestingly, market culture values are negatively related to employee satisfaction. This means that high scores on market values lead to lower employee satisfaction in German WISEs. Although all culture types are significantly related to employee satisfaction

### Table 5: Linear Regression Analysis with one model including the four culture types and their relation to employee satisfaction (R² = .662)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>12.406</td>
<td>2.599</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>1.863</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.491</td>
<td>4.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>1.356</td>
<td>.412</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>3.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>-1.003</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>-.206</td>
<td>-2.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>.873</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>2.386</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Employee_Satisfaction

Figure 15: Scatter plots of the linear regression models of organizational size on organizational cultural values of hierarchy (left) and clan (right) cultures.

IV.IV **EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE**

The last five hypotheses deploy OC as independent variable. The effect of OC on employee satisfaction, organizational innovativeness, perceived importance of financial returns on products and services sold, and organizational performance will be evaluated in this section.

Organizations with strong clan culture values will have more satisfied employees according to the theory behind the CVF. Applied on WISEs, we see that this is indeed the case. In Table 5 below, one can see that in a model where all organizational culture types are included, 66.2 percent of the variance in employee satisfaction is explained by OC. Clan culture values explain 49.1 percent, followed by adhocracy values with 40.7 percent. Hierarchy and market values are less explanatory with around 25 percent respectively. Interestingly, market culture values are negatively related to employee satisfaction. This means that high scores on market values lead to lower employee satisfaction in German WISEs. Although all culture types are significantly related to employee satisfaction...
with $\alpha = 0.05$, the strongest relationship is indeed found for clan culture ($p > .000^{***}$). Hypothesis 5 is thus confirmed because there is indeed the strongest positive relationship between clan culture and employee satisfaction.

The sixth hypothesis states that strong adhocracy cultures are likely to invoke organizational innovativeness. The linear regression analysis including all culture types in one model shows that OC in general explains 41.6 percent of the variance in organizational innovativeness. Table 6 shows that, differently to the outcome of hypothesis 5, adhocracy culture is the only culture type affecting organizational innovativeness significantly ($t = 2.317, p = .025$) with $\alpha = .05$. Adhocracy culture explains 40.5 percent of variance in organizational innovativeness in this model. Therefore, hypothesis 6 is confirmed because a significant positive relation between adhocracy culture and organizational innovativeness is found.

The seventh hypothesis assumes that hierarchy culture is likely to affect organizational innovativeness negatively. The data in Table 6 proves that the opposite is true and hierarchy is positively related to organizational innovativeness. If all four culture types are included into the linear regression analysis, 21.6 percent of variance in organizational innovativeness is explained by hierarchy culture. Nevertheless, this surprising outcome is non-significant ($t = 1.499, p = .141$). Hypothesis 7 is rejected and the internal processes model could not be confirmed with this data set.

The eighth hypothesis states that organizations with market cultures are also more likely to perform better financially. The scale for financial performance is found to be unreliable since the variance between the constituting items is too large. The relationship between the sole item covering the importance of revenue generating from selling services and goods should nonetheless be explained by market culture values.
The regression model including all four organizational culture types explains merely 16.1 percent of the variance in the perceived importance of revenue generating from goods and services. In Table 7 one can see that none of the culture types is statistically related to the financial performance item with $\alpha = .05$. However with 38 percent, market culture is the most crucial explanatory factor within this model. Nevertheless, hypothesis 8 is rejected because insufficient evidence is found that market culture values affect the importance of revenue gained from goods and services in German WISEs.

The last hypothesis assumes that strong organizational cultures, implying high scores in each quadrant, will affect the organizational performance positively. Performance is here understood as an extension to financial performance and targets in the case of WISEs the social mission and the subjective view whether the organization has met the defined objectives during the last year. Since four variables are representing OC and organizational performance has been computed into one single scale, the best way to proceed is with an independent samples t-test. Each organizational culture type is coded in two groups: one where the mean is above average and one where it is below. Henceforth, all units of analysis that have mean higher than 7.29 for clan, 6.52 for adhocracy, 5.8 for market, and 6.98 for hierarchy are grouped into the group with a strong OC and the others are counted as having a weak OC. As expected, not many organizations have high means on all quadrants. Only eight organizations are having a strong and 53 are having a weak OC.

The assumptions for the t-tests are also met because the scores on the organizational performance scales of the two groups are normally distributed and equal variances is checked with the Levene’s test which is non-significant ($= .585$) and thus assured. The number of valid cases is 61.

The eight German WISEs with a strong OC have a higher mean in organizational performance than the 53 cases of the data set (20.38 and 18.66 respectively). This mean difference of 1.71 is, however, not significant with an $\alpha = .05$ ($t = .805$, df = 59, $p (1$-tailed) $= .212$). Based on the
results of this test, hypothesis 9 is rejected and German WISEs with a strong OC are not found have higher organizational performance than organizations with weaker OC.

IV.V CONCLUSION

The analysis contained the description of the demographics and the OC of the sampled German WISEs. Although it was assumed that German WISEs will have a strong hierarchy culture, the sample of this study revealed that they are indeed embracing the values of the hierarchy culture. However, clan culture values are more prevalent among German WISE. Thus, German WISEs are particularly internal oriented and steered towards integration rather than external oriented and managed towards differentiation. Hypothesis 1 was found to be confirmed statistically and WISEs are indeed not that different from each other regarding the four types of Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002, 2004, 2006).

The results on the causes of OC, type of WISE, size and seat of the organization, produced mixed results. As drawn from literature, type of WISE does not alter OC in a statistically significant way. Indeed, east German WISEs are different to west German WISEs in terms of hierarchy values but organizational size is statically not influencing whether hierarchy or clan values are stronger or not. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 and 2 are confirmed but Hypothesis 3 and 4 are rejected. Regarding the effects of OC, the theoretical foundations of the four culture types have proven to be valid. Hypotheses 5 and 6 are confirmed and hypothesis 7 and 8 are rejected through a linear regression analysis.

Therefore, it can be concluded that CVF is indeed a robust management tool and can be used to increase the particular components of organizational effectiveness at least for employee satisfaction and organizational innovativeness. Nevertheless, the assumption that high scores on all four quadrants of the CVF will lead to better organizational performance is not proven here. Table 6 summarizes the results of this analysis. What these results mean and how they are embedded into the theoretical background discussed in the literature review will be presented in the next chapter.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>There will be no significant difference between types of WISE and</td>
<td>Type of WISE</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organizational culture.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>There will be a significant difference between the organizational culture</td>
<td>Organizational Seat</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of WISEs from new Länder and the organizational culture of WISEs in the</td>
<td></td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>old Länder.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between organizational size and</td>
<td>Organizational Size</td>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hierarchy culture.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>There is a negative relationship between organizational size and clan</td>
<td>Organizational Size</td>
<td>Clan Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>culture.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between clan culture and perceived</td>
<td>Clan Culture</td>
<td>Employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>employee satisfaction.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and</td>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organizational innovativeness.</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Innovativeness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>There is a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and</td>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>organizational innovativeness.</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Innovativeness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>There is a positive relationship between market culture and perceived</td>
<td>Market Culture</td>
<td>Financial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>importance of financial returns on products and services sold.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Importance of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Products and/or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>WISEs scoring high on all organizational culture types are more likely to</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>outperform those WISEs with low scores on one and more cultural types in</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>terms of social mission, customer satisfaction and obtainment of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>predefined goals.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: The hypotheses of the analysis, their variables, the performed test and the test statistics and the result (red = rejected; green = confirmed); * alpha = 0.1, ** alpha = 0.05, *** alpha = 0.001
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES
V. DISCUSSION
This chapter is devoted to the discussion of the results regarding the OC of German WISEs, the causes of OC, and its effects. The flaws in validity and reliability of the methodology of this study presented in Chapter 3 shall be kept in mind during the discussion.

Past contributions on social entrepreneurship research in general and on WISEs in particular indicate that these organizations are hybrid. The combination of different categorical organizational characteristics implies a diverse OC based on many different and even competing values. However, Davister, Defourny and Gregoire (2004) show that European WISEs in general offer only limited to no decision-making power for the beneficiaries of the work integration programs. This tendency towards hierarchy and clear division of tasks and responsibilities is true for German WISEs according to Bode, Evers and Schulz (2002, 2004, 2006) as well who place these organizations close to the state in their hybridity model. The results confirm previous findings and indeed find strong hierarchy values among German WISEs. Institutional choice theory is thus confirmed and closeness to the state and its respective employment centers foster a certain set of cultural values and organizational behavior.

However, clan culture is even a little bit stronger than hierarchy culture among 67 German WISEs. This observation shows that these organizations are not just smooth-running, efficiency driven agencies at close range of public employment centers but care for the beneficiaries goes beyond clear procedures and rules governing the way people are assumed to be integrated into the labor market. This confirms the assumption of environmental determinism theory stating that, despite institutional arrangement, the nature of the task will define organizational culture. Work integration requires sensitive and tailored approaches for each individual to be successful. Human beings cannot be treated like goods but need a sense of belonging. Participation, trust and the ability to listen to and comprehend the needs, fears and expectations of the beneficiaries of work integration programs enforce such a sense of belonging.

Hierarchy and clan values can certainly stand in contradiction to each other. The balancing act between hierarchy values and clan values can be interpreted as on-going tensions between public authorities caring for documented efficiency and WISE staff dealing with the social problems of long-term unemployed on a daily basis. This tension has been found during the in-depth qualitative analysis of the BW Diakoniewerk Arbeit & Kultur e.V. as well (Bode, Evers and
Schulz, 2006) and is confirmed by this quantitative organizational culture study. Additionally, the confirmation of similarity between the four German types shows that indeed all WISEs are exposed to this tension mirrored by the two quadrants and the case study of Bode, Evers and Schulz (2006).

Many WISEs became semi-autonomous after the introduction of the Hartz reforms of 2004 and if they do not execute the active labor market policy programs of their municipality in a way that the public authorities and their contracting partners are satisfied, than they will eventually be forced to close down even if they offer qualitatively good training and high potential of transition into the first labor market to their beneficiaries. Furthermore, WISEs have to embrace hierarchy values to a certain extent to guide the participating socially excluded individuals through the training and prepare them for the first labor market. Clear rules and procedures are a prerequisite for this endeavor. However, each individual is also a special case and certain flexibility in these rules results in an equally or even stronger clan culture.

Regarding the causes of OC, organizational seat is significantly different for hierarchy values for German WISEs, organizational size has no effect at all for these social organizations and the type of WISE does not have an effect on OC as it was expected.

The most obvious explanation for the finding that eastern German WISEs are more hierarchical than their western German counterpart is the way they have been founded (see Wüllenweber, 2012). West German WISEs were the result of bottom-up social movement, especially in the 1970s and 1980s, whereas the establishment of east German WISEs was top-down after German reunification. They were used as a tool to counteract mass-unemployment and to (re-)qualify the eastern population for the changing environment from socialism to capitalism. The bureaucratic attempt of the former Secretary of Labor Norbert Blüm to tap the labor force potential of the new citizens by newly founded municipality-owned WISE has led to very ineffective and counterproductive outcomes (Wüllenweber, 2012). There were neither innovative projects at hand nor has there been an economic need for further employees in the eastern German cities at that time. For example, the Red Cross in the city Burg created a sub-department for the work integration of unemployed women through the recycling of clothes. However, in the region and in the city itself there was no demand for the secondhand clothes and therefore the recycled clothes have been sold to big recycling industries that used them as rags to produce new textile
products. Beneficiaries of these programs felt disrespected, humiliated and some even went before court against the WISE they were administered to (Wüllenweber, 2012). Apparently, not much has changed since then and East German WISEs tend to be still more hierarchical than western ones.

The national conditioning theory of Hofstede (1980) may also play a significant role here. The GDR and its socialist regime in general are known for its hierarchical structures and meticulous documentation on virtually everything that could matter someday. Next to the top-down argument, this explanation might be similarly important in interpreting this result. Although the GDR does not exist anymore, the values survived the regime in the mind of the people. For instance, radical leftwing and radical rightwing parties receive much more support in eastern Germany than in other parts. Strong leaders, clear structures and paternalistic state intervention are much more tolerated there than in the old Länder.

Organizational size, as another explanatory factor for OC, has not been approved in this study. Larger organizations seek to stabilize their environment by dividing tasks and define roles whereas smaller organizations tend to be more like an extended family and flexible in terms of work division. However, this sample does not approve these assumptions. One possible explanation is that WISEs are different from other ‘casual’ organizations because their social mission forces them to maintain an environment based on balanced values between clan and hierarchy independent of the number of employees.

Independent of the type of WISE, namely municipality-owned, part of a welfare federation, local civil society initiative or social firm, the OC remains static. This demonstrates that these organizations are very similar to each other. These common features on OC – and very likely on other issues – shows that German WISEs should be incentivized to cooperate together to find best practice models on their social, financial and, if applicable, on their environmental mission.

The effects of OC are changes in organizational effectiveness criteria like employee satisfaction, innovativeness, financial and organizational performance. The tested sample approved these suppositions of the CVF. Indeed, the framework is a good tool not just for scientific but also for management purposes.
Interestingly, the mixed results of this study are quite similar to Hartnell et al.’s (2011) findings leading to the conclusion that “competing values may be more complementary than contradictory (p.687). Especially the unexpected result that hierarchy culture values lead to perceived organizational innovativeness is surprising and against the internal processes model and the open systems theory. Values of the hierarchy quadrant play an important role for WISE and, if well streamlined with the strategy and mission, can be expected to indeed increase organizational innovativeness. Beneficiaries of work integration programs are guided by concise rules and clear structures (hierarchy) on the one hand and personalized tasks tailored to the capabilities of each individual in a nurturing and facilitating environment (clan) on the other. A balancing act is thus the key to success including innovativeness, financial performance and social impact.

A balancing act is also the assumption of the last hypothesis which posits that high scores on all organizational culture types will lead to better organizational performance. The analysis proves this assumption wrong. One possible explanation for this finding is that WISEs do not face much competition. In fact, most of them are the sole provider of work integration services in their region and thus do not need to regularly reinvent themselves (adhocracy) or maximize profits at all costs and eliminate their competitors (market). Furthermore, the sample size is still very small and the units of observation are only top managers. Future studies shall thus look into this issue with a larger sample and objective measures of organizational performance.
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES
VI. CONCLUSION
This study has explored the OC of WISEs and tested for possible causes and effects of this organizational culture empirically.

It is argued that the most suitable approach to SEs in general and WISEs in particular is the one proposed by EMES. OC is a difficult and multi-disciplinary concept and is reduced here to one of its function, namely organizational effectiveness. The CVF has been found to be a good framework to study the cultural values of WISEs in Germany. The main argument of the framers of this tool is that certain cultural values will lead to increased effectiveness in innovation, employee satisfaction, smooth running efficiency, and financial performance. Henceforth, the CVF has been tested on its foundation and its applicability as management tool for WISEs.

The OC of WISEs shows that values from the clan and hierarchy quadrant of the CVF dominate while lower scores are found on adhocracy and market values. Therefore, WISEs are rather internal oriented and steered towards integration rather than towards their external environment and differentiation. Whether WISEs are owned by municipality, or are part of a larger welfare federation, initiated independently by local initiative, or are commercial and merely in collaboration with public agencies to carry out their programs does not significantly alter these organizational values. Thus, this finding is applicable to all German WISEs independent of their type. The sample of 67 German WISEs indicates that national conditioning in form of organization seat is altering OC whereas number of employees does not affect the value system of a hybrid organization like WISE.

The effects of OC have been approved for the following linkages: clan culture – employee satisfaction linkage and adhocracy culture - organizational innovativeness. However, hierarchy values do not lead to less innovativeness among German WISEs and market values are not significantly related to the importance of revenue generated from goods and services. Furthermore, the relationship between balanced cultures with high values in all quadrants of the competing values framework and organizational performance could not be confirmed in this study.

These findings have important social implications for policymakers, bureaucrats and managers of WISEs. Policymakers should take into account the different natures of WISEs in the new and the
old Länder. Future legislation should take the significant difference of hierarchy values into account. Despite the fact that 25 years have passed after reunification, the eastern German provinces remain exceptional also in terms of WISEs and their value system.

Bureaucrats should acknowledge the tension between hierarchy and clan values for WISEs in Germany. These hybrid organizations cannot solely be judged by the number of beneficiaries transferred to the first labor market but rather by the quality of work integration programs they offer. Only through individualized occupation for socially excluded can a long-term transition towards social activation and inclusion be achieved.

Finally, managers of WISEs are encouraged to make use of this tool for management purposes. The CVF can help organizations to identify their weaknesses and strengths and respond to them in a concise way. Clan values matter not just for employee satisfaction but also for organizational performance in general. Hierarchy values are also vital for German WISEs since concise rules and procedures can help socially excluded participants to bring back order into their every-day life.

VI.II LIMITATIONS
There are several limitations to this empirical inquiry on causes and effects of organizational culture of German WISEs. These limitations stem from the concept WISE, the framework for organizational culture, and the methodology including the sample size and the response rate.

It seems that many concepts are thrown into one basket in this study. For instance, hybrid organization, social enterprise and work integration social enterprises are frequently mixed up. It is important to mention that there are many forms or types for each of these concepts and the results of this study are only generalizable to SE with similar economic, social and participatory characteristics as envisioned in the EMES approach (see Figure 2). Of course, they may guide the investigation in other countries and for other forms of the three concepts, but should not be stipulated on them without proper analysis of the three dimensions of the EMES approach for the respective organizations.

In the same vein, OC is a very complex scientific (and managerial) concept. For this study, it has been reduced to four types with their values resulting from three interacting dimensions of the
CVF. However, there are much more features not covered by this simplifying framework. Other models and frameworks as discussed in the literature review can be applied to see whether the results match with the one’s of this study.

Finally, the methodology of this study, a cross-sectional research design with online surveys, also entails limitations. First, some WISEs were seemingly not active on the internet (no organizational website) or did not offer an email address. Another data collection method might change the results since these organizations could be reached more effectively. Second, subjective rating was applied here for concepts that are usually measured objectively (e.g., financial performance). These point-of-views from the top managers might not fully mirror the reality. Third, top managers are assumed to know their organization and the OC they wish to implement. The results are based solely on their perception and not on the perception of other employees and lower managers. Finally, it can be assumed that the surveys have been filled out by a biased group of top managers. Participating in this survey is also a sign for the interest in the subject of the survey or organizational culture, which can be motivated by the thought to change the current culture of the organization. Therefore, top managers of WISEs where the OC is perceived to be sufficient and without the need of change might be less motivated to fill out the survey. Furthermore, educated and young people are also more likely to be among the 67 managers who filled out the survey because they might rather sympathize with students and scientific inquiries while simultaneously having a higher interest in communication via the Internet than older managers.

VI.II PROPOSITIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH
OC as concept has been researched for public, private and non-profit organizations but not very often for hybrid organizations like SE. Independent whether it is applied in an interpretative or functional way, the concept may help to identify the tensions between the multiple objectives and organizational features of hybrid organizations. This study can be seen as a first attempt that can be followed by much more rigorous models. Several propositions for future research can be drawn from this study.

First, a more detailed and essentially more holistic qualitative approach of a single case study could offer a better understanding of the tension between clan and hierarchy cultures in WISEs.
With this methodology, employees of one single WISE from different organizational segments could be interviewed to analyze not just the actual OC but also investigate how the cultural values manifest themselves within the organization. Here, artifacts and tacit assumptions can be included in the conceptualization and operationalization of OC. The theoretical framework can be guided by institutionalism and environmental determinism.

Another proposition is a broader all-encompassing European comparison of the many types of WISEs. Differences and communalities in OC can be very fruitful for many stakeholders like the European Commission, policymakers, umbrella organizations, interest representations, beneficiaries of work integration programs, managers, local communities, and employees of these organizations. Larger samples will consolidate the findings of this study. Furthermore, the national conditioning theory of Hofstede (1980), the meaning of organizational size on OC, and the differences in organizational culture types can be analyzed across several countries, especially across the member states of the EU.

Third, future research should investigate the way OC of WISEs changes according to environmental factors like policies, supply and demand of beneficiaries and/or the evolvement of ties with public, private and non-profit organizations and institutional changes. For instance, the focus could be on successful WISEs that exist since the 1970s and the OC change could be investigated through interviewing former and present CEOs, analyzing the espoused values of official documents like annual reports and putting the changes in perspective to the environmental factors.

Finally, the linkage between OC and organizational effectiveness measures produced mixed results here. Future research can introduce further variables that might moderate or mediate this linkage. Furthermore, other frameworks for OC should be deployed since the CVF is a useful tool but only one of many. Future research should deploy a variety of constructs to fill the pitfalls of each framework of OC.
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

REFERENCES


Bode, I., Evers, A., & Schulz, A. (2002). Work integration social enterprises in Germany. Trends and Issues, Liège (EMES Working Papers, no. 02/04)


ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES


Dawes, J. G. (2008). Do data characteristics change according to the number of scale points used? An experiment using 5 point, 7 point and 10 point scales. *International journal of market research, 51*(1).


ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE OF WORK INTEGRATION SOCIAL ENTERPRISES


APPENDIX 1

Thirty-nine categories of WISEs in ten European member states and their abbreviations (Davister, Defourny & Gregoire, 2004, p.27)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BELGIUM</th>
<th>FRANCE</th>
<th>IRLAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EIL = Entreprises d’Insertion = Work Integration Enterprises</td>
<td>CAV = Centres d’Adaptation à la Vie Active = Centres for Adaptation to Working Life</td>
<td>SF = Sheltered Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETA = Entreprises de Travail Adapté = Adapted Work Enterprises</td>
<td>EIL = Entreprises d’Insertion = Work Integration Enterprises</td>
<td>LD = Local Development Work Integration Social Enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFT = Entreprises de Formation par le Travail = On-the-job Training Enterprises</td>
<td>AL = Associations Intermédiaires = Intermediate Associations</td>
<td>SEW = Social Economy (National Programme) Work Integration Social Enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOLID R = Entreprizes Sociales d’Insertion</td>
<td>RQ = Régies de Quartier = Neighbourhood Enterprises</td>
<td>ECO = Cooperatives Socials d’type b) = Type B Social Co-operatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESR = Entreprizes Sociales d’Insertion actives dans la Récupération et le Recyclage = WISEs with recycling activities</td>
<td>ETT = Entreprises d’Insertion = Work Integration Enterprises</td>
<td>PORTUGAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW = Sociale Werkplaatsen = Social Workshops</td>
<td>CAS = Comité d’Action Sociale = Social Work Committees</td>
<td>EL = Empresas de Intercâio = Integration Enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IB = Invooebedrijven = Integration Enterprises</td>
<td>BW = Beschettene Werkplaatsen = Sheltered Workshops</td>
<td>EP = Emprego Protegido = Sheltered Workshops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AZC = Arbeidscentra = Work Care Centres</td>
<td>CAV = Centres d’Adaptation à la Vie Active = Centres for Adaptation to Working Life</td>
<td>SPAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FINLAND</td>
<td>SWEDEN</td>
<td>UNITED KINGDOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCO = Labour Co-operatives</td>
<td>SOC = Social Co-operatives</td>
<td>WCO = Worker Co-operatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSFDP = Co-operative Social Firms for Disabled People</td>
<td>Sh = Samhall = Sheltered Workshops for the Disabled</td>
<td>CB = Community Businesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRANCE</td>
<td>SWEDEN</td>
<td>UNITED KINGDOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRANCE</td>
<td>SWEDEN</td>
<td>UNITED KINGDOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GERMANY</td>
<td>SWEDEN</td>
<td>UNITED KINGDOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBE = Soziale Betriebe und Genossenschaften = Social Firms and Co-operatives</td>
<td>HMO = Hållande Marknadsorganisationer = Long-term Work Integration Enterprises</td>
<td>R = Remploy (Large Quasi-state Enterprise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KB = Kommunale Beschäftigungsgesellschaften = Municipally-Owned Social Enterprises</td>
<td>UCO = Unabhängigen Initiativen = Social Enterprises organised by Local Initiatives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BW = Bäckerei und Getränke = Social Enterprises organised by Welfare Organisations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 2
The first (left-hand side) and the second e-mail (right-hand side) sent to top managers of German WISE

Sehr geehrter XXX,

Sie wurden vor Kurzem zur Teilnahme an einer Umfrage gebeten. Falls Sie bereits teilgenommen haben, bitte ich Sie diese e-Mail zu ignorieren. Wenn Sie jedoch in den vergangenen Tagen keine Zeit gefunden haben und nun weniger als 10 Minuten zum Beantworten entbehren könnten, wäre ich Ihnen sehr dankbar.


Hier geht es zur UMFRAGE.

[..](https://erasmushhcc.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_0NWhCqroEuOLOgL.)

Bei Fragen und/oder Anmerkungen können Sie mich jederzeit per e-Mail oder tagsüber auch telefonisch erreichen.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Roman Kofmann

Sehr geehrter XXX,


Hier geht es zur UMFRAGE.

Bei Fragen und/oder Anmerkungen können Sie mich jederzeit per e-Mail oder tagsüber ab dem 21.08.2015 auch telefonisch erreichen.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Roman Kofmann

Allgemeine Informationen zur Gesellschaft

Für welche Art von Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaft arbeiten Sie?

- Kommunale Beschäftigungsgesellschaft
- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft eines Wohlfahrtsverbands oder mehrerer Wohlfahrtsverbände
- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft von lokalen und unabhängigen Initiativen
- Sozialer Betrieb und/oder soziale Genossenschaft
- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft mit Trägerschaft von Kommune und Wohlfahrtsverband
- Andere, bitte spezifizieren
Welche Rechtsform hat die Gesellschaft?

GmbH
e.V.
AG
gGmbH
e.G.
andere

In welchem Jahr wurde die Gesellschaft gegründet?


In welchem Bundesland hat die Gesellschaft ihren Sitz?

Baden-Württemberg
Bayern
Berlin
Brandenburg
Bremen
Hamburg
Hessen
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern
Niedersachsen
Nordrhein-Westfalen
Rheinland-Pfalz
Saarland
Sachsen
Wie viele Jahre sind Sie schon für die Gesellschaft tätig?

Wie viele Teilnehmer sind derzeit über die Arbeitsintegrationsprogramme Ihrer Gesellschaft eingestellt?

Wie viele Arbeitskräfte beschäftigt die Gesellschaft derzeit?

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Mitarbeiter/innen auf Vollzeit

Mitarbeiter/innen auf Teilzeit

Ehrenamtliche Mitarbeiter/innen
Im folgenden Abschnitt werden Ihnen Fragen zur Organisationskultur Ihrer Gesellschaft gestellt. Bei Ihren Antworten sollten Sie auf die langfristig gefestigten Werte Ihrer Gesellschaft eingehen und nicht auf das dynamische Arbeitsklima. Bitte bleiben Sie dabei so objektiv wie möglich.

**Organisationskultur**

Bitte wählen Sie bei jeder Äußerung zwischen (1) **trifft überhaupt nicht zu** und (10) **trifft voll und ganz zu** die passende Antwortmöglichkeit aus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>... besitzt einen sehr persönlichen Charakter. Die Mitarbeiter/innen scheinen viel miteinander zu teilen.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... ist sehr dynamisch und unternehmerisch. Die Mitarbeiter/innen sind bereit etwas zu wagen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... ist sehr ergebnisorientiert. Die Mitarbeiter/innen sind sehr ehrgeizig und auf Leistung aus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... ist geordnet und gut strukturiert. In der Regel bestimmen formale Prozeduren die Handlungen der Mitarbeiter/innen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Die Gesellschaft wird zusammengehalten durch...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
... Loyalität und gegenseitiges Vertrauen. Zugehörigkeit ist sehr wichtig.
... Freude an Innovation und Entwicklung. Der Zeitvorsprung zu sein ist sehr wichtig.
... Leistungsbereitschaft und Erfolg. Das Gewinnen - Wollen ist sehr wichtig.
... transparente Regeln und verlässliche Ordnung. Sicherheit ist sehr wichtig.

In der Gesellschaft ist der Umgang zwischen den Mitarbeitern/Mitarbeiterinnen gekennzeichnet durch...

... Teamwork, Konsens und Mitbestimmung.
... persönliche Freiheiten und Kreativitätsförderung.
... hohe Ansprüche und Konkurrenzdenken.
... Erhalt der Arbeitsplätze, Vorhersagbarkeit und Stabilität in den Beziehungen.

Die Gesellschaft definiert Erfolg über...

... die Entwicklung menschlicher Ressourcen und den Zusammenhalt der Mitarbeiter/innen.
... einzigartige oder neue Produkte und dem Streben danach, Produktführer und Innovator
zu sein.
... Marktwinn und darüber, die Konkurrenz hinter sich zu lassen.
... Rationalsierung der Abläufe. Wichtig sind koordinierte Planung, reibungslose Prozesse und zuverlässige Leistungserbringung.

Der nächste Abschnitt bezieht sich auf die allgemeine Arbeitszufriedenheit. Bitte haben Sie hier nicht nur Ihre eigene Zufriedenheit im Blick, sondern auch die wahrgenommene Zufriedenheit Ihrer Arbeitskollegen.

**Wahrgenommene Arbeitszufriedenheit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sollte überhaupt nicht</th>
<th>Trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mitarbeiter/innen fühlen sich sehr wohl mit ihrem Arbeitsplatz.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mitarbeiter/innen schätzen ihre Kollegen sehr.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Die aufgetragenen Aufgaben erledigen die Mitarbeiter/innen stets mit großer Zufriedenheit.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mitarbeiter/innen fühlen sich mit der Einrichtung, den Arbeitszeiten und dem Arbeitspensum wohl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mit den zur Verfügung stehenden Mitteln und Hilfen (Arbeitsgeräte, Informationsquellen, Betreuung usw.) sind die Mitarbeiter/innen vollkommen zufrieden.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Im letzten Abschnitt werden Ihnen nun Fragen zur
Innovationskraft, der finanziellen Leistungsfähigkeit und der allgemeinen Unternehmensleistung gestellt.

**Wahrgenommene Innovationskraft der Gesellschaft**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Die Gesellschaft probiert regelmäßig neue Ideen aus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Gesellschaft versucht stets, die Arbeitsprozesse zu optimieren.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kreative Ansätze bei Arbeitsverfahren werden in der Gesellschaft sehr geschätzt.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Im Vertreiben von neuen Produkten und Dienstleistungen ist die Gesellschaft häufig Vorreiter.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Einführung von Produkten und Dienstleistungen hat in den letzten fünf Jahren deutlich zugenommen.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Wahrgenommene finanzielle Leistungsfähigkeit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Die Gesellschaft genießt außerordentliche staatliche Unterstützung.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die Gesellschaft ist finanziell abgesichert und stabil.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Die Gesellschaft ist sehr effizient im Fundraising.

Die angebotenen Produkte und/oder Dienstleistungen tragen maßgeblich zur finanziellen Absicherung bei.

**Wahrgenommene Unternehmensleistung**

Wie erfolgreich hat die Gesellschaft die folgenden Ziele im letzten Jahr erreicht?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>trifft überhaupt nicht zu</th>
<th>trifft voll und ganz zu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Die Anzahl von Arbeitsintegrationsprogrammen und angebotenen Dienstleistungen ist im Vergleich zum Vorjahr gestiegen.

Die Qualität der Arbeitsintegrationsprogramme und Dienstleistungen hat sich verbessert.

Kunden sind im Allgemeinen zufrieden mit den angebotenen Dienstleistungen.

Die Gesellschaft war rundherum sehr erfolgreich im Erreichen der gesteckten Ziele.

Ich bedanke mich für Ihre Teilnahme an dieser Umfrage. Falls Sie Anregungen oder Fragen zur Umfrage oder dem Thema meiner Masterarbeit haben, können Sie sich gerne unter folgender E-Mail-Adresse bei mir melden:

400848rk@student.eur.nl

Platz für Feedback, Kommentare und Anmerkungen:
# APPENDIX 4

English translation of the survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGLISH</th>
<th>GERMAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The results of this questionnaire will be used by Roman Kofmann as part of his master thesis for the International Public Management and Policy programme of the Erasmus University Rotterdam. The aim of the thesis is to explore the organizational culture of work integration social enterprises in Germany and to test whether certain organizational culture traits are connected to criteria of organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the questionnaire shall only be filled out by CEOs themselves or high-ranked managerial staff of work integration social enterprises. When completing this questionnaire you are giving your consent that the results can be used for the master thesis. The participation is anonymous and you can quit the questionnaire at any time. The survey is confidential and the results are for scientific purpose only. Thank you for your participation!</td>
<td>Die Ergebnisse dieser Umfrage werden von Roman Kofmann im Rahmen von seiner Masterarbeit für den Studiengang “International Public Management and Policy” an der Erasmus Universität Rotterdam genutzt. Ziel der Masterarbeit besteht darin zum einen die Erforschung der Organisationskultur von Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaften und zum anderen die empirische Auswirkung dieser Organisationskultur auf die organisationelle Leistungsfähigkeit zu ergründen. Zu diesem Zweck werden Mitarbeiter/innen in Führungsposition von Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaften befragt. Die Teilnahme ist selbstverständlich anonym und die Umfrage kann jederzeit abgebrochen werden. Die Umfrage ist streng vertraulich und wird nur für wissenschaftliche Zwecke genutzt. Mit der Beendigung dieser Umfrage willigen Sie ein, dass die Ergebnisse für die Masterarbeit genutzt werden dürfen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### General Information; Organizational demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For what kind of work integration social enterprise are you working for?</th>
<th>Für welche Art von Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaften arbeiten Sie?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Kommunale Beschäftigungsgesellschaft</td>
<td>- Kommunale Beschäftigungsgesellschaft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft einer oder mehrer Wohlfahrtsverbände</td>
<td>- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft einer oder mehrer Wohlfahrtsverbände</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft von lokalen und unabhängigen Initiativen</td>
<td>- Beschäftigungsgesellschaft von lokalen und unabhängigen Initiativen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Sozialer Betrieb und soziale Genossenschaft</td>
<td>- Sozialer Betrieb und/oder soziale Genossenschaft</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What legal status does your organization have?</th>
<th>Welche Rechtsform hat die Gesellschaft?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- GmbH</td>
<td>- GmbH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- e.V.</td>
<td>- e.V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- AG</td>
<td>- AG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- gGmbH</td>
<td>- gGmbH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- e.G.</td>
<td>- e.G.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When was the organization established?</th>
<th>In welchem Jahr wurde die Gesellschaft gegründet?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Year</td>
<td>- JAHR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In which Bundesland is the organization seated?</th>
<th>In welchem Bundesland hat die Gesellschaft ihren Sitz?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Baden-Württemberg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

The following part is going to ask you about the organizational culture of the organization you are working for. Your answer should indicate how your organization is operating over the long-run. Try to be as objective as possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominant Characteristics</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organization is a very personal place. People seem to share a lot of themselves.</td>
<td>Die Gesellschaft spiegelt eine sehr persönliche Atmosphäre wider. Sie gleicht einer erweiterten Familie. Mitarbeiter/innen teilen ihr Privatleben auch miteinander.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization is a dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.</td>
<td>Die Gesellschaft spiegelt eine dynamische und unternehmerische Atmosphäre wider. Mitarbeiter/innen engagieren sich maßgeblich und sind bereit Risiken einzugehen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done.</td>
<td>Die Gesellschaft ist sehr ergebnisorientiert. Größtes Anliegen ist es die Aufträge schnell zu erledigen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
People are very competitive and achievement oriented. abzuschließen. Mitarbeiter/innen arbeiten sehr konkurrenzbetont und leistungsorientiert.

The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do. Die Gesellschaft spiegelt eine sehr kontrollierte und gutstrukturierte Atmosphäre wider. Mitarbeiter/innen arbeiten strikt nach vorgegebenen förmlichen Verwaltungsverfahren.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk taking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management of Employees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational Glue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth running organization is important.

**Strategic Emphasis**

The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.

The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.

**Criteria of Success**

The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.

The organization defines success on the basis of having unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.

The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.

**Perceived General Job Satisfaction**

How do you think employees feel about their job?

How do you think the employees feel about their co-workers?

How do you think the employees feel about the tasks they work on?

How do you and your colleagues feel about the...
physical surroundings, the hours, and the amount of work you are asked to do? der Einrichtung, den Arbeitsstunden und dem Arbeitspensum wohl fühlen?

To what extent are employees satisfied with what they have available to get their job done like equipment, information, supervision, and so on? Im welchem Maße sind die Mitarbeiter/innen mit den Ihnen zur Verfügung stehenden Mitteln wie Arbeitsgeräten, Informationen, Betreuung und so weiter zufrieden?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Organizational Innovativeness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for frequently tries out new ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for seeks out new ways to do things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for is creative in its methods of operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for is often the first to market with new products and services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The product and/or service introduction of the organization I am working for has increased over the last five years.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Financial Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for is very efficient in fundraising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for receives strong public support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization I am working for is financially stable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Organizational Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How successful, during the last year, was your organization to meet these goals?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The majority of clients served experienced marked improvements as a result of services provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The number of programs and services offered has increased during the last year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The quality of services offered has improved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Generally, clients are satisfied with the services provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Overall, how successful has the organization been in meeting its goals or objectives?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>