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Exploring the Influence of Personal Values and Cultures in the Workplace

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Understanding the Impact of Organisational Culture on Managers’ Internal Career Needs

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ABSTRACT

This chapter explores the influence of organisational culture on managerial internal career needs in small third sector social enterprises. Every organisation develops and maintains a unique culture, which provides guidelines and boundaries for the career management of members of the organisation. The research methodology was designed to allow the collection of data from three case study organisations and 24 operational managers working in these organisations. The qualitative findings of the study add to, and help to explain the inter-play between individual manager’s internal career needs and organisational culture. Most importantly the findings suggest that when individual manager’s internal career needs are closely supported by organisational culture, it increases their desire to stay with the organisation. The findings make an important contribution in the field of organisational career management.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter seeks to contribute to our understanding of the influence of organisational culture on managerial internal career needs in small third sector social enterprise organisations. Despite changes in career structures in the 21st Century, for example, the growing number of self-employment and contract work, etc. Majority of career still takes place in organisations (Baruch, 2004; Maher, 2016), including small social enterprises (Maher, 2015b). Successive UK government acknowledges the importance of these organisations role in building social capital and developing the social economy (Kendall and Knapp, 1996; Ridley-Duff and Bull 2015).

Third sector social enterprise organisations expect commitment and performance from managers to deliver their contractual obligations (Maher, 2015b). They expect managers to deliver projects on time and to budget; with the expected outcomes and benefits to the client group and the community. What organisations do not always realise is that individual managers differ in their career aspirations and career needs (Herriot, 1992; Maher, 2009). Organisational culture can often influence their decision to leave or stay in a particular organisation (Lok and Crawford, 2004). Therefore, the importance of understanding the influence of organisational culture on the internal career needs of managers who manage and develop small social enterprise organisation’s activities has increased.

The internal career is conceptualised in terms of an individual’s values, motivation and view of their career orientations and decisions between personal and professional life (Ng and Feldman, 2014, Bidwell and Mollick, 2015). It is connected with the individual’s goals, aspirations and interests. A key question when considering the internal career is “what do I want from work?” (Derr and Laurent, 1989; Ng and Feldman, 2014). This is about the way the individual defines the work they enjoy and cherish. The self-concept that seeks explicit answers from the following questions: ‘what are my talents, skills, areas of competence? What are my main motives, drives, goal in life? What are my values: How good do I feel about my job?’ (Schein, 1982). Therefore, the internal career will vary between individuals within the same organisation and even those doing the same job (Maher, 2015b).

Studies from the internal career perspective suggest that the individual’s internal career needs influence their selection of specific occupations and work settings (Derr and Laurent, 1989; Chompoookum and Brooklyn Derr, 2004). These studies contend that organisations whose culture and values do not fulfill an individual’s internal career needs; are likely to find that they will be unable to retain these individuals in the long term (Schein, 1990). This may lead to dysfunctional organisational outcomes such as reduced organisational commitment and high turnover (Schein, 1978; Tschopp et al., 2014).

Organisational culture has been widely discussed in terms of its link with, leadership (Block 2003), performance (Ogbonna and Harris 2002) learning (Aksu and Özdemir 2005), empowerment (Beil-Hildebrand, 2002) and corporate governance (Volonté, 2015). Relatively little prior work has explored organisational culture impact on managerial internal career needs in small social enterprises; despite increasing number of research reporting on processes and governance structures of social enterprise organisations (Spear, et al., 2009, iDomenico, et al., 2010). Thus, the exploration of organisational culture in small social enterprises will contribute to our understanding of the organisation norms and beliefs that impacts on managerial internal career needs.

DEFINITIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Definitions of organisational culture often refer to ‘the way we do things around here,’ ‘the way we think about things round here’, or ‘the commonly held values and beliefs held within an organisation’ (Hudson, 1999). The concept of organisational culture was eluded as early as the Hawthorne studies in 1920’s which described work group culture and the influence of the social, physical and psychological environment on workers. However, organisational culture gained momentum in the early 1970’s when academics and researchers began to examine the key to organisations thriving in turbulent comparative times. Peters and Waterman (1982) argued that there are a number of common characteristics which are not policies or work practices but rather aspects of organisational culture.
According to Schein (1985) organisational culture is the pattern of shared basic assumptions—involved, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration—that has 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 (1985, 1997) stressed that organisational culture is the key to organisational excellence and therefore, top management play a crucial role in embedding organisational culture.

Cleland (1994) argue that organisational culture are ‘shared explicit and implicit agreements among organisational members as to what is important in behavior, as well as attitudes expressed in values, beliefs, standards, and social and management practices’.

Alvesson (2012), presents organisational culture as ‘constellation of implicit and emergent symbols, beliefs, values, behavioural norms and ways of working that shape and are shaped by individual and corporate actions and reflect underlying assumptions about social reality’.

These definitional variations are recognised as reflecting underlying differences in author’s understanding and interpretation of the concept of organisational culture. What is clear is that, organisational culture is recognised as the hub of organisational life; the philosophies, attitudes, beliefs, behaviours and practices that define an organisation. It also determines how an organisation functions; within a particular sector. The organisational culture may reflect characteristics that differentiate one social enterprise from another, ranging from behavioural norms to models of service delivery.

THE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL ENTERPRISE

Social enterprises are businesses that are set up to improve communities, people’s life chances, or the environment. They have explicit social aims and objectives. They undertake trading activities to generate income and profits. They reinvest a significant proportion of their profits to achieve their social activities. Social enterprises are present in almost every sector of the economy, including banking, insurance, agriculture, education and health and social services (NVCO, 2016) The main difference between a social enterprise and a commercial enterprise is that there are a number of individuals that manage a social enterprise on behalf of the community it serves with the interests of the community at the forefront of decision-making. Decisions are not made for individual or shareholders profit (Dart, 2004; Spear & Bidet, 2005).

Since the late 1970s, the concept of social enterprise has achieved policy recognition in many countries. These types of social businesses became more prominent in the United States during the late 1970s and 1980s in response to the economic downturn and major cutbacks in government spending (Crimmins and Keil (1983). According to various scholars such as Crimmins and Keil (1983) and Eikenberry and Kluver (2004) third sector organisations saw commercial revenue as a means of replacing government funding. This paved the way for the emergence of social enterprise as a widely accepted concept of addressing social and environmental issues due to a necessity resulting out of state reduction in funding.

Social enterprises in Europe also gained momentum during the economic downturn in the 1970’s. As the downturn led to cuts in government budgets across the continent, reducing the states’ ability to provide unemployment assistance and job reintegration. In response to the void left by the reduction in government public services funding, several third sector organisations chose to focus their efforts on providing job-training and work-integration programmes which often had social-enterprise, characteristics (Lyon and Sepulveda, 2009). Over the past four decade social enterprises have rapidly expanded and
are linked to a range of government agendas particularly in the UK (Office of the Third Sector, 2009). A variety of initiatives introduced to boost the sector included the introduction of the Social Enterprise Unit by the UK Department of Trade and Industry in 2002 who defined social enterprises as:

*businesses 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 (DTI, 2002:7).*

The DTI definition places a strong emphasis on reinvesting profit back into the business or the community that it serves rather than maximising profits for shareholders and owners. This is fundamentally the UK social enterprise model. Most social enterprises in the UK are part of the third sector, they are non-government organisations with 50 per cent or more of their income raised from income service provision, trading activities, hire of facilities, fees for goods and trading to meet social goals and principally reinvest surpluses in the organisation or community (NVCO, 2008). Social enterprises have been identified as vital to the development and delivery of innovative ways of tackling social and environmental issues which cannot be resolved through private and public sector mechanisms. There is increasing interest in promoting social enterprises and the social and economic impact of these organisations. It has been argued that social enterprises can encourage greater efficiency, as well as an entrepreneurial approach to promote innovation and improve quality of service delivery to communities (Department of Health, 2010; National Audit Office, 2011).

With rapid expansion of small social enterprise organisations, it is timely to examine the impact of this organisation’s culture on managerial internal career needs. Particularly, as small social enterprises are seeking to understand how to sustain managerial retention stratagems that are not linked to salaries and pay increments (Coetzee and Schreuder, 2008; Guan et al., 2013, Maher, 2015a). This chapter focuses on exploring to what extent organisational culture influences managerial internal career needs in small social enterprises. The chapter comprises of five sections, which are outlined below:

Section one outlines a brief background of the development of social enterprises, the concept of an internal career and the rationale for investigating the impact of organisational culture on small social enterprise managerial internal career needs.

Section two reviews the literature on organisational culture typologies (Deal and Kennedy (1982), Schein (1985), Handy (1985) and Hofstede et al., (1990)), typologies of organisational culture, and highlighting the contributions they have made in this field of research.

Section three explains the research design, and provides a detailed account of the primary, secondary data collection and analysis. Subsequently, it discusses issues regarding methodological rigor and ethical considerations related to the research.

Section four provides findings from key informants on the impact of organisational culture on managerial internal career needs in organisations.

Section five discusses conclusions and makes recommendation’s and suggestions for future research.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

For the past number of decades, most academics and researchers studying organisations suggest that the concept of culture is the practices that organisations develop around their handling of people, promoted
values and statement of belief (Schein, 2004); for individuals the organisational culture is the glue that
binds them to the organisation. Organisational culture is essential in determining managers’ commit-
tment to the organisation. The review of organisational culture typologies within this chapter aim to
detail an unbiased overview of various organisational culture typologies, highlighting the contributions
they have made in this field of research. For instance, Deal and Kennedy’s (1982) identified four types
of organisational culture: The Tough-Guy Macho culture, The Work Hard/Play Hard Culture, The Bet
your Company Culture and The Process Culture.

The Tough-Guy Macho culture is a culture where employees take high risks and receive feedback
on their actions. There are high workload and demand from employees but rewards and bonuses are
usually very high. In the work hard/play culture employees takes fewer risks and receive fast feedback.
They are also required to be highly active and positive most of the time. In the bet your company cul-
ture employees takes ‘big stakes’ decisions but results are known after a very long period of years. The
process culture reflects organisations employees’ takes no risks, very limited feedback and they are
more concerned with how the work is done rather than what is the end result. Deal and Kennedy (2000)
argues that most organisations adopt the essential positive characteristics of all four types of culture
which helps guarantee top performance.

Schein (1985) suggest three levels of organisational culture. First level includes artifacts or physical
attributes such as organisational structure and processes. The second level deals with organisational
mission statements, strategies, goals, attitudes, feelings, functioning beliefs throughout the organisation.
The third level incorporates elements of culture which are not visible, such as, symbols, ceremonies,
stories, slogans, behaviours, dress, unspoken rules that employees are not consciously aware of but may
provide explanations why things are done in a particular way in the organisation.

Handy (1985) distinguishes organisational culture by the nature of relationships between the organi-
sation and individuals and the importance of power and hierarchy. Handy (1985) proposed four types of

Power culture is like a ‘web’ that spreads out from the centre to the rest of the organisation (Handy,
1985). The organisation operates within few formalised rules so trust is placed in the leader by employ-
ees. In organisations with power culture, performance is judged on results. They can appear tough and
abrasive and their successes can be accompanied by low morale and high turnover as individuals fail or
opt out of the competitive atmosphere. Working in such organisations requires that employees correctly
anticipate what is expected of them from the power holder and perform accordingly. If the organisation
leader gets this culture right, it can result in a happy, work environment that in turn can lead to employee’s
commitment to organisational goals and objectives. Getting it wrong can lead to staff dissatisfaction and
sometimes lead to a high employee turnover.

Role cultures are built on detailed organisational structures which are typically tall (not flat) with a
long chain of command. A consequence is that decision-making in role cultures can often be very slow
and the organisation is less likely to take risks general lack of effort and enthusiasm.

Organisation with a role culture is characterised by strong functional or specialised areas coordinated
by a narrow band of senior management at the top and a high degree of formalisation and standardisation;
the work of the functional areas and the interactions between them are controlled by rules and procedures
defining the job. For employees, the role culture offers security and the opportunity to acquire specialist
expertise; performance up to a required standard is rewarded on the appropriate pay scale, and possibly
by promotion within the functional or specialist area. Such people will be content in this culture only
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as senior managers. However, this type of culture is frustrating for ambitious people who are power orientated, want control over their work or are more interested in results than process.

Task culture is job or project-oriented. Individuals find that this culture offers a high degree of autonomy, team working and mutual respect based on ability rather than on status. This culture values creativity and enthusiasm. Most managers, certainly at the middle and junior levels are found to prefer to work in the task culture, with its emphasis on team work, rewards for results and a merging of individual and team objectives. It is most in tune with the current trends of, individual freedom and low status differentials in some small social enterprises (Maher, 2016).

Person culture exists to serve and assist individuals within the organisation without any super-ordinate objectives. In organisations with person cultures, individuals see themselves as unique and superior to the organisation. The individual is the focal point; if there is an organisational structure, it exists only to serve and assist the individuals within it, to further their own personal career interests. Person culture organisations rely on the specialist knowledge of the employees. Person cultures are mostly found in organisations where there is an opportunity for employees to develop their specialist skills; for instance, consultants working in organisations and freelance workers often prefer the person culture. An organisation with a person culture is often a collection of individuals who happen to be working for the same organisation. It is not often that we find an organisation in which the person culture predominated however; there are individuals whose personal preferences are for this type of organisational culture (Lacey Bryant, 1999).

There is a tendency to take Handy’s (1985) four cultures as fixed or ‘given’. None of the four types of culture can claim to be better or superior than the other; they are each suited to different types of organisations’ circumstances. Most organisations tend to adopt a mixture of cultures (Lugosi and Bray, 2008) and in Handy’s (1993) view each culture is suited to different types of circumstances, including different types of personal values and career needs.

Hofstede et al. (1990) examined organisational/corporate cultures from the perspective of practices, i.e. patterns of behaviour and identified dimensions of practices’ for organisational cultures (‘P’ stands for ‘practices’), which are described as follows:

**P1:** Process-oriented versus results-oriented: In process-oriented organisation units cultures individuals perceive themselves as avoiding risks and making only a limited effort in their jobs. In the results-oriented cultures individuals perceive themselves as comfortable in unfamiliar situations, and put in a maximal effort, while each day is felt to bring new challenges.

**P2:** Employee-oriented versus job-oriented: In employee-oriented cultures individuals feel their personal problems are taken into account that the organisation takes a responsibility for employee welfare, and that important decisions tend to be made by groups or senior management teams. In the job-oriented organisation units individuals experience a strong pressure to complete the job. They perceive the organisation as only interested in the work employees do, not their personal needs.

**P3:** Parochial versus professional: Members of parochial cultures feel the organisation’s norms influence their behaviour at work and outside work. Individuals believe the organisation will always consider their home and work needs. Members of professional cultures consider their private lives their own business; they feel the organisation employs them on the basis of job competence only.

**P4:** Open system versus closed system: In the open system organisation units’ members consider both the organisation and its people open to newcomers. This means that almost anyone would fit into the organisation, and new employees only need a few days to feel integrated. In the closed system
organisation units, the organisation and its people fit into the organisation, and new employees need a long time to feel welcomed.

P5: Loose versus tight control: Individuals in loose control organisation units feel that no one thinks of costs, meeting times are flexible, and jokes about the organisation and the job are frequent. Individuals in tight control organisation units describe their work environment as cost-conscious, meeting times are kept punctually, and jokes about the organisation and the job are rare.

P6: Normative versus pragmatic: In normative organisation units individuals correctly follow organisational procedures and business ethics which are more important than results. In the pragmatic organisation units, there is a major emphasis on meeting the customer’s needs. Results are more important than correct procedures, and in matters of business ethics, a pragmatic rather than a dogmatic attitude prevails.

The review of organisational culture typologies show that the concept of ‘organisational culture’ can be viewed as a metaphorical construct (Morgan, 1998) created by psychologists, sociologists and management theorists to provide ‘meaning’ in the study of organisations. These typologies demonstrate that organisational culture gives organisations a sense of identity which are determined, through the organisation’s rituals, beliefs, meanings, values, norms and language. Therefore, typologies of organisational culture tend to classify organisations by a single dominant culture type (unitarist approach) or by the existence of internal sub-cultures within the organisation, a pluralist viewpoint (Van Maanen and Barley, 1985). As a result, typologies of organisational culture may ignore specific contextual and possible ‘distinct’ cultural attributes of organisations. For instance, small social enterprises do not always adopt a single type of culture. They often have cultures and sub-cultures which are developed from their historical background, mission, governance and values (Hofstede, 1998). Organisational culture can place strong pressure on individuals to change their values. Therefore adopting any typology of organisational culture as a starting point for the research may channel discussions along pre-determined paths. As a result, the study seeks to identify whether any elements of these typologies discussed above are identifiable in small social enterprises.

METHODOLOGY

The research strategy for the study was informed by the purpose of the study, which emphasises an understanding of managers’ internal careers within the context of small social enterprises and to answer the research question: Does organisational culture impact on the internal career needs of managers? Also, consideration about the level of knowledge that has been developed in the area of the research was also a contributory factor, in the decision to adopt a case study research strategy (Rowley, 2002; Stake, 2006; Yin, 2009; Welch et al., 2010). Yin (2009), points to the technically critical features of the case study strategy, in stating that it is an empirical inquiry that:

*Investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when...the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (p.18).*
Yin (2009) affirms that a case study approach is beneficial to an investigation which is seeking to uncover a new area of knowledge. Yin (2009) definition captures the breath and purpose of the study. The study employed the embedded multi case study design in order to be collect data from various sources: first, documentary evidence and archival data from three case study organisations, second, semi structured interviews with managers (Lee, 1999; Maher, 2013; Bryman and Bell, 2015) and third, fieldnotes data (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002, Sachdeva, 2009; Bryman and Bell, 2015). This also allows the author to follow a ‘replication’ logic approach aims at achieving analytical rather than statistical generalisations (Yin, 2009; Welch et al., 2010). Yin (2009) argues that the generalisability of the embedded multi case study findings will increase with the number of cases included. Furthermore, the investigative approach offered by the case study strategy, facilitates a clearer exposition of organisational culture and provides insights into how organisational rituals and beliefs and norms influences managerial internal career needs in small social enterprises.

A brief profile overview of the three case study organisations that participated in the research is displayed below.

Organisation: Attis

Established in 1998 in the East Midlands region, the organisation provides support to individuals affected by substance use. Their aim is making an impact and making an impact that not only improves the health of the individual, but has a lasting positive impact on the wellbeing of their families, friends and the communities in which they live. People who use their services are not just people with drug and alcohol problems, they are partners, fathers, mothers, sisters, grandmothers, children, brothers, friends, work colleagues and carers.

The organisation structure is arranged as follows: Board of Directors, one Chief Executive Officer, a senior management team, nine project managers, project workers and an administrator.

Organisation: Boreas

Established in 1991 in the South East region, the organisation provides a ‘Low Threshold - Harm Reduction’ service to individuals who are experiencing problem substance use and their families. Services provided include the provision of an Outreach Service information, advice and individually tailored services to meet the Service User need, aspirations and ambitions. One to one and group sessions are available and a peer mentoring service.

The organisation structure is arranged in to a series of teams led by eight managers. Each time delivers locality based services; and the out of hour helpline delivers online and digital services across the region. These teams are supported by two administrators, Chief Executive Officer, the senior management team and the Board of Directors.

Organisation: Caerus

Established in 1991 in Yorkshire and Humber region, the organisation offers one to one counselling, support, information and advice to individuals and families who are affected by substance use. Free and confidential services are provided includes: identified focused group work sessions, substance awareness raising sessions, peer awareness groups and peer tutor therapy groups. A dynamic social enterprise that
work on a locality basis, collaborating with the ex-service recipients and partner agencies in order to access the widest range of resources and create the best opportunities for service users.

The organisation structure is arranged as follows: Board of Directors, one Chief Executive Officer, the senior management team, eight operational managers, project workers and two administrators.

All three organisations were established between 1991 and 2000. This confirms that they have been operating for over 16 years, so they are well established organisations. Organisation Attis operate in the South East region, Organisation ‘Y’ operate in the East Midlands and Organisation Caerus operate from Yorkshire and Humber region (NVCO, 2011; Social Enterprise UK, 2011, Maher, 2015b). The use of multiple methods of data collection allows for convergence and triangulation of findings (Fick 1979; Bryman 2015).

Data were collected from the following sources:

1. Documentary evidence of the three case study organisations, such as, organisational activities, history, mission statements were examined. Examining these documents was useful to help to ascertain some of the reasons why these managers have chosen to pursue their careers in a particular social enterprise. All documents were collected with the organisation’s permission, in their original forms with no modification.

Yin (2009) suggests that (except for studies of preliterate societies) documentary information is likely to be relevant to every research topic. The most important use of documents for this research was to form an overview of the context of the research (Slack and Rowley, 2000; Saunders et al., 2011; Maher, 2013) and to support evidence from other sources such as, information gathered from interviews with operational managers. Examining these organisational documents provided data that the author could not observe (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002; Saunders et al., 2011). Information from these documents enabled the author to develop a deeper understanding of the case study organisation’s activities (Maher, 2013; Sliverman, 2013).

2. Semi-structured interviews with managers provided evidence of factors that influenced their careers in their respective organisations. The semi-structured interview approach allowed for flexibility with a preference for posing questions so the interview was more like a conversation whilst maintaining focus on issues contained in the interview guide (Healey and Rawlinson, 1994; Smith, 1995). This approach has been considered to be appropriate for the study for the following reasons:
   a. It enabled the study to gain an understanding of managers’ experiences and points of view about their career in small social enterprises. In pursuit of answers to the interview questions, such as, what are your career needs? What is your long term career needs? How does your present job fit in with your long term career goal? The author was drawing inferences from answers given by managers during interviews with the aim to produce managers’ views of their internal career needs.
   b. It allowed the study to gain an understanding of managers’ interpretations of events (such as, organisation beliefs and values) and how these factors affect managerial careers in the sector.

Weber (1949) conceded that “the task of the social scientist is to understand events and explain them through the meanings that the individuals involved attach to their actions” (Weber 1949, in Benton and Crab, 2001, p.80). This implies that people’s values and views differ and events are understood by
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different people differently, therefore, their perceptions are the realities that social science researchers should focus on.

The author sought permission to digitally record all interviews and all participants agreed. All interviews were stored electronically with password protection according to the UK Data Protection Act 2003 guidelines. Assurances regarding individual confidentiality were given and all research notes were available for participants to read if they wished. All ethical principles of beneficence (doing good), non-maleficence (doing no harm), autonomy (respect for self-governance) and justice (treating people equally and fairly) were upheld.

3. Fieldnotes of the physical setting where each interview took place and the development of each interview and ideas which were useful in subsequent interviews. Fieldnotes are an on-going, crucial part of collecting research data. In this research, they took the form of self-reminders about specific events during the interviews (such as participants nodding or smiling) and notes about personal reflections as well as reactions arising from and captured during the interviews. The fieldnotes data include a brief description of the physical setting where each interview took place, nonverbal cues such as postures, facial expressions, gestures, feelings and any type of behaviour or actions that might have affected the interview. The use of multiple sources of evidence allows the author to address a wide range of issues (such as, an organisation’s characteristics which are not polices or procedures) that influence manager’s internal career needs. The process of combining data from different sources allowed the author to understand how organisational culture, manager’s experiences and motives influence their career needs. Yin (2009) affirms that, a study cannot rely on a single data collection method but will need to use multiple sources of evidence. When multiple methods are used, the researcher can place more confidence in the relationships uncovered in the research findings.

Using three sources of data source (documentary evidence, semi-structured interviews and field notes) increases the validity of the findings as the strengths of one approach compensated for the limitations of the other evidence source (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003, 2009). The different sources were used to validate and cross-check the research findings.

The author employed computer-assisted data analysis software (CAQDAS) package NVivo 9 to facilitate the data coding and clustering of themes. Data were imported directly from a word processing package into NVivo 9 simultaneously creating cases with each interview transcript. It provided a disciplined structure to search and analyse data.

The findings of any qualitative research are open to challenges based on questions of reliability and validity. Yin (1994) defines reliability in case studies research as follows:

the objective is to be sure that, if a later investigator followed exactly the same procedure as described by an earlier investigator and conducted the same case study all over again, the later investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions. (p.36)

In other words, the reliability of the study is accomplished when another researcher is able to follow the ‘audit trail’ of the researcher so that comparable conclusions could be achieved, given the same data, similar situations and the researcher’s perspective (Yin, 2009). This study was written with a view that
allows sufficient detailed information so that the ‘audit trail’ is adequately maintained. The author has carefully recorded and explained the different stages of the research process.

**FINDINGS**

The primary objective of the research is to understand the extent to which organisational culture influences social enterprise manager’s internal career needs. A significant finding of the study is that organisation culture such as; models of care, support for autonomist and employment opportunity for ex-service recipients, supportive team-work are major organisational culture influencing the internal careers of small social enterprises managers. In addition, senior management laissez-faire attitude to managerial internal career needs were identified as an unspoken organisational culture impacting managerial internal career needs. Each of these factors is discussed below.

**Organisation Models of Care**

Models of Care (MoC) are a multifaceted concept, which broadly defines the way an organisation services are delivered to service users. It can be applied to support services or client’s case management. An organisation’s MoC could include services such as, extended therapy sessions, sports activities, training and employment skills and self-efficacy groups for clients. These services are provided according to the service recipients’ needs and pace of recovery (Wardle, 2013). Some managers stated that they have chosen to pursue their careers in their present organisation due to the organisation’s specific MoC.

*The model of care here is to meet clients’ individual needs. That’s rewarding for me. Sometimes within the client’s treatment plan the client long term needs are not really addressed in the statutory sector. So it has conflict for me. So for me the organisation’s models of care are important. I prefer focusing on meeting client’s individual needs rather than being bound by [funder’s] requirements (Participant 4).*

*I knew about the organisation because I did some training here before and I liked what they do here. I liked their models of care for clients … the inclusion of family needs when developing client’s care packages. (Participant 6)*

These organisations’ MoC are based on therapeutic and on-going psychosocial support that allows service recipients to have a choice of treatment and to have personalised treatment programmes for each individual depending on their needs and circumstances at point of contact with the organisation. The above evidence suggests that the organisation’s MoC appeal to managers’ who desire the freedom from funders’ stringently enforced regulations. These managers enjoy the freedom to develop services using their own initiative to put in place services based on service recipients’ needs. They also expressed their responsibility for their client’s recovery process (by offering long-term support services) which they want to implement without interference from the funders. They adopted a person-centered approach (‘recovery is an individual journey’) to client care management and service delivery; which are linked to the organisation’s own culture of MoC. The results of the research suggest that MoC does differ between the case study organisations and that an organisation’s specific MoC is an influencing factor on manager’s developing their careers in these organisations.
Support for Autonomist

Several managers reported that the organisation’s culture of supporting managers’ autonomy to use their own initiative in developing and managing projects was one of the main reasons they are attracted to work in their respective organisations. Job role autonomy enhances performance through the increased scope it gives managers to use their knowledge, skills and abilities. This raises motivation, thereby enhancing managerial retention. Several of the study participants focus on the intrinsic content of the work. They tend to build their work performance around flexibility and independence of judgment.

I applied for this job when I was working at the County Council. There they [the County Council] are governed by so many red tapes. But when you are here [in this organisation] you are independent. Although you have rules they [the organisation] see a different side the real side of people not the statistics as such. They see first and foremost the person [the client] who needs help not the numbers. You then are given the freedom to tailor services to meet the needs of services users. That gives me job satisfaction …” (Participant: 14)

I like the flexibility of planning client services. This is important for our clients. Our services are client-led. We need to be there for the clients not put up barriers to suit ourselves. I like the freedom and independence I have to decide how to tailor services to meet client needs without interference from my boss or funders. (Participant: 16)

I have the freedom here to offer the number of counselling sessions in relation to the client’s needs. The freedom to choose how we work with clients not having to tick boxes as required by the [Funder] but to provide counselling sessions to suit the needs of the client. (Participant, 2)

These managers were primarily driven by the need to have the flexibility within an organisation to use their own initiatives to develop client’s services. These views were expressed in the context of autonomy derived from having the freedom to develop client-centered services. These managers have the desire to develop and manage projects without direct intervention by line-managers or funding agencies.

This finding supports previous third sector career research that suggests that the sector managers often seek to work in small organisations due to the autonomy of the job role and the freedom to design and develop services (Onyx and Maclean, 1996; Alatrista and Arrowsmith, 2004; Cunningham, 2010; Maher, 2015b). These opportunities have not been found to be readily available in large bureaucratic organisations, where managerial roles are often structured in a pyramid top-down chain of command with limited flexibility for individual managers to re-design services without a long consultation process (Flynn, 2007; Radnor, 2010; Osborne et al., 2013).

Employment Opportunities for Ex-Service-Recipients

The culture of organisations providing employment and managerial opportunities for ex-service recipients was identified as an organisational culture influencing several managers’ decision to pursue their managerial careers in a small social enterprise; that supported their recovery process and provided employment opportunities (Wardle, 2013). Previous authors have drawn attention to the benefits of providing ex-service recipients with employment opportunities within social care organisations (which
includes third sector social enterprises) (Hoad, 2002, Neuberger, 2008; Hardill and Dwyer, 2011). The evidence suggests that it helps ex-service recipients to develop self-confidence and social networks (Lowe et al., 2007; Redman, 2012; Wardle, 2013). The fieldwork evidence suggests that the culture of providing employment opportunities for ex-service recipients within small social enterprises enabled several individuals to pursue their managerial careers in these organisations.

I started here volunteering as an ex-client. The organisation is very supportive ... they are 150% behind me. They have given me a chance to make something of my life. (Participant: 15)

I love it here. They [the organisation] gave me my life back. I’ve come a long way. It just gives me great pleasure knowing I can do this, manage this project, and help people in the same situation I was before. This is meaningful; this is meaningful to me anyhow. I took so much out of the system for so long, I’d like to put something back in. (Participant: 22)

The fieldwork evidence suggest that organisations that have a culture of providing employment opportunities for individuals who have been service-recipients can potentially be a catalyst in these individual’s decision to pursue managerial career in these organisations. The benefits of supporting ex-service recipients who wants to pursue their careers within the organisation that has helped them in their recovery process, is that these individuals are often committed to the organisation (Hardill and Dwyer, 2011; Wardle, 2013) and wants to stay developing their careers with the organisation (Mold, 2006; Wardle, 2013), this in turn helps these organisations to retain managers in the long term.

**Supportive Team-Work**

Teamwork has been promoted as an important means of enhancing organisational productivity and achieving positive outcomes. A central argument for linking teamwork to organisational productivity is that it gives employees a sense of empowerment, by increasing the control they can exercise over their work (Steyn and Steyn, 2009; Reeves, Lewin, Espin, and Zwarenstein, 2011). Supportive team work enables team members to promote a wider sense of ownership work towards common goals when approaching their everyday tasks. This creates a strong team dynamic that supports small social enterprises to achieve their mission and collectively toward achieving the company’s objectives.

Several managers stated that working in a supportive team and acceptance within the team and confirmation that their views are taken into consideration within the organisation’s team decision making processes offers them a sense of belonging.

We work well together … we share understanding of the purpose of our work. I like being part of a team. It gives me gives a sense of belonging. (Participant: 15)

I like the solace of knowing my team members … very supportive. (Participant: 22)

I had some bad experiences in the past; I was in the private sector … there it was everyman for himself. Here there’s good team work. I enjoy working with my colleagues ... the team. I get on with everyone here... it’s a joy to come to work. (Participant: 24)
These managers view of a supportive organisational culture is linked to being part of a team, being valued and working in an organisation where they felt their contributions are valued and needed in a supportive team environment. Managers who feel their work is valued are likely to feel more committed to their organisations and more satisfied with their jobs (Gallie, Zhou, Felstead and Green, 2012).

**Laissez-Faire Attitude to Managerial Career Needs**

Some study participants felt that the culture of senior management unwillingness to taken an interest in their internal career needs is very disheartening. They referred to this as Laissez-faire attitude to managerial career needs (senior management gives the least possible guidance and support to managers on how to achieve their career needs within the organisation setting). They reported that management provides little or no interest in their career goals and values. Laissez-faire is less than ideal when a manager is new to the organisation and lack knowledge of the organisation’s culture that he/she needs to understand in order to make decisions about how to pursue their internal career needs and how it fits with the organisation’s objectives.

*There is a very laissez-faire attitude to our career needs here. It all about targets, targets and meeting more targets. (Participant: 22)*

*Very little understanding of my career needs here … never discussed. There is a lack of understanding of our [manager’s] career needs. This is a major obstacle between us and senior management. (Participant: 5)*

The above evidence suggests a sense of weary resignation and disappointment with some senior management lack of interest in managerial career needs. When managers sense that senior management are disinterested in their internal career needs, these managers may naturally become less focused on the quality of their work, increase their intension to leave and eventually reduce their level of commitment.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

The importance of understanding, harnessing, managing and maintaining an appropriate culture in organisations cannot be underestimated in terms of its impact on managerial internal career needs. Developing appropriate measures which addresses how organisational culture supports managerial internal career needs, is an organisational issue.

However, embedding effective and supportive management culture that supports the career needs of managers falls within the remit of the Board of Directors and senior management teams of these organisations.


Understanding the Impact of Organisational Culture on Managers’ Internal Career Needs

FUTURE RESEARCH

Organisational culture in small social enterprises hold signification potential as future research area to further explore its impact on small organisations in other sectors will provide opportunity for insightful ‘cross-case synthesis’ (Yin, 2009).

There is clearly a need to expand the research to take account not only of managers views but to capture different levels of staff perception within the organisation, of the influence of organisational culture on their internal career needs, including the senior management team. Inclusion of the senior management team views are also critical if we are to begin to understand the ways in which organisational culture influences senior management views of their internal career needs and their attitude towards internal career needs of those they manage.

Other areas of high potential value for organisations should be a study that examines how employees can become more effectively ‘logged into’ an organisation’s culture. What is the value of investments in helping employees to build up their knowledge of the organisational culture? What investments are required to improve senior management understanding of employee’s internal career needs?

CONCLUSION

The chapter’s findings provide important insight how organisational culture is not simply a way of highlighting organisational structures and processes. It also provides insight into how organisational culture impact on managerial internal career needs in small social enterprises. There is evidence that the case study organisations adopted characteristics of Schein (1985) typology of organisational culture such as organisational mission statements, attitudes, functioning beliefs and values of managerial career needs.

Also there were evidence of Handy (1985) role culture and task culture. Managers provided evidence of how the organisation culture enabled them to achieve their internal career needs by the flexibility and autonomy the organisation allows for them to use their own initiatives to develop client’s services. In addition, there were evidence of Hofstede et al., (1990) employee-orientation and open system culture in two of the case study organisations.

However, there were limited evidence of Handy’s (1985) person culture, Deal and Kennedy’s (1982) The Tough-Guy Macho culture, The Work Hard/Play Hard Culture, The Bet your Company Culture and The Process Culture and Hofstede et al., (1990) close system and loose versus tight control culture.

Specific contextual organisational cultural issues such as, the culture of supportive team work, organisation’s MOC, consultation by the organisation before decisions are taken in teams and employment opportunities for ex-service recipients as an organisational culture were highlighted to be abetting managers internal career needs. The study suggests that it is important to understand organisational culture that not only increases experience such as autonomy, but also enhance the effectiveness of the job role.

The research also identified one particular organisational culture that managers found unsupportive of their internal career needs. Senior management laissez-faire attitude to managers’ internal career needs. The study participants prefer senior management understanding of their career needs and to provide an environment that supports them.
Cross-case observations derived from the findings suggests that the case study organisations can be viewed as exhibiting elements of Schein (1985) and Handy (1985) organisational culture. These is also evidence of Hofstede et al., (1990) employee-orientated, job-orientated and open system organisational culture; with limited evidence of Deal and Kennedy’s (1982) typologies of organisational culture.

In closing, the research findings have to be tempered by the limitations of the study. First, this study limited its focus to only one country (the UK). There may be a question of whether the research findings are specific to the UK or if they are more universal. Due to limited empirical research that have examined the influence of organisational culture on small social enterprises manager’s internal career needs; the chapter findings are likely to have wider relevance and applicability, particularly in small social enterprises in other countries.

REFERENCES


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ADDITIONAL READING


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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Career Management: The combination of structured planning and the active self-management of one's own professional career development through a partnership between organisation and the employee.

Career: An occupation, profession or all the roles you undertake throughout your life, including education, training, paid and unpaid work.

Internal Career: An individual’s values, motivation, goals, aspirations and interest and view of their career orientations and decisions between personal and professional life.

Manager: A person responsible for managing, controlling or administering tasks or a certain subset of a company or group of staff.

Organisational Culture: A system of shared assumptions collective values, beliefs and principles of organizational members and management style, and national culture; which governs how people behave in organisation.

Social Capital: Refers to the underlying networks, norms and social ownership structures that bind stakeholders together in pursuit of a common (social) purpose.

Social Enterprises: Enterprises that trade to meet social/environmental goals (Department of Trade and Industry, 2002).

The Third Sector: Includes a very diverse range of organisations comprising non-governmental and non-profit-making organisations or associations, including charities, voluntary and community groups, cooperatives and mutual benefits societies.