The influence of organizational culture on job crafting

A qualitative study on how the organizational culture of Philips Design influences their employees’ job crafting behaviour.

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Abstract

Organizational culture could, next to other organizational features, build a fundamental basis for job crafting. This research tries to explore the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. The objective of this research is to contribute to the knowledge about the relationship between organizational culture and job crafting, by a study about the influence of the organizational culture of Philips Design on job crafting. In order to achieve the objective, the following research question is needs to be answered: How does the organizational culture of Philips Design influence job crafting?

A qualitative, single case study is used to answer this question. This research consisted of nine semi-structured interviews with employees of Philips Design. The organizational culture of Philips Design is assessed as a market culture with dynamic and entrepreneurial elements. This influenced employees’ job crafting processes in several way. The results-oriented focus of the organization and the emphasis on achievement ensured that employees engaged in job crafting activities like task crafting and relational crafting to contribute to the organizational success. Furthermore, employees emphasized tasks that promoted their performances.

Future research could build upon the results of this study when comparing the influences of all four organizational cultures on job crafting.

Keywords: Job crafting, organizational culture
# Table of contents

1. Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 5  
   1.1 Research context .............................................................................................................. 5  
   1.2 Research aim and research question ................................................................................. 6  
   1.3 Research design ................................................................................................................ 7  
   1.4 Relevance of this research ................................................................................................ 7  
   1.5 Outline .............................................................................................................................. 8  

2. Theoretical framework ........................................................................................................... 9  
   2.1 Job crafting ....................................................................................................................... 9  
   2.2 Organizational culture .................................................................................................... 10  
      2.2.1 Competing values framework ................................................................................. 11  
      2.2.2 Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument .......................................................... 14  
   2.3 The influence of organizational culture in enabling or constraining job crafting ............ 15  
      2.3.1 The hierarchy culture .............................................................................................. 15  
      2.3.2 The market culture .................................................................................................. 15  
      2.3.3 The clan culture ....................................................................................................... 16  
      2.3.4 The adhocracy culture ............................................................................................. 16  
   2.4 Conclusion ...................................................................................................................... 17  

3. Methods ............................................................................................................................... 18  
   3.1 Research strategy ............................................................................................................ 18  
   3.2 Case description .............................................................................................................. 19  
   3.3 Data collection ................................................................................................................ 20  
   3.4 Operationalization .......................................................................................................... 21  
   3.5 Data analysis .................................................................................................................. 21  
   3.6 Quality of the study ........................................................................................................ 22  
   3.7 Research ethics ............................................................................................................... 23  

4. Results .................................................................................................................................. 25
1. Introduction

1.1 Research context

The developments in information and communication technologies and the economic globalization have led to increasingly complex, dynamic and interdependent jobs (Grant et al., 2009; Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Besides, employees see organizations rather as a place to strengthen their employability and as a place to develop themselves than as a place for lifelong employment (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Grant & Ashford, 2008). These developments could have implications for job design which results in more complex jobs. Job crafting could be a useful tool to cope with these complex job designs (Oldham & Fried, 2016).

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001, p. 180) refer to job crafting as “the actions employees take to shape, mold and redefine their jobs, by initiating physical and cognitive changes in the task and relational boundaries of their work.” Job crafting is a bottom-up perspective on job design where employees can redefine and reimagine their job design in personally meaningful ways (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Berg, Dutton and Wrzesniewski (2013) distinguish three types of job crafting; task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting.

Research on job crafting has shown that it has numerous advantages. Firstly, job crafting could influence the meaningfulness of work which is related to work-related benefits such as increased job satisfaction, motivation and performance (Grant, 2007; Rosso et al., 2010). Secondly, job crafting is seen as an important process for cultivating work engagement and job satisfaction (Berg, Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2008). Furthermore, job crafting initiatives of employees often result in benefits for the organization because it promotes innovativeness and adaptability (Frese & Fay, 2001).

However, not every employee in every organization is able to craft his own job (Demerouti, 2014). Berg, Dutton and Wrzesniewski (2010) have argued that the position of an employee in the organization, in terms of power and autonomy, influences the possibilities for job crafting. Besides, leadership roles (Wang, 2017), social support (Tims et al., 2012) and other organizational features are likely to enable or constrain job crafting. However, to date relatively little is known about what organizational factors could have an influence on the possibility to job crafting (Morgeson, Dierdorff, & Hmurovic, 2010).

Berg et al. (2013) call for more research on the role of organizational features and in particular of organizational culture in enabling or constraining job crafting. However, while
other organizational features have been given some attention, since then relatively little research has been done about the role of organizational culture. Organizational culture is defined by Schein (1985, p. 12) as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved 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.”

Since employees are affected by the organizational culture in which they act, organizational culture has a great influence on the behaviour of employees (Bingöl et al., 2013). Therefore organizational culture could also affect employees’ job crafting behaviour, as is assumed by Berg et al. (2013). Despite the call of Berg et al. in 2013 for more research on the role of organizational culture in enabling or constraining job crafting, this topic has not raised the attention it deserves. Whereas other studies have focused on other organizational features as potential enablers for job crafting (e.g., Berg et al., 2010b; Demerouti, 2014; Oldham & Hackman, 2010), relatively little is still known about the influence of organizational culture on the possibilities for job crafting. Although some empirical research assumed that organizations could play a facilitating role in the bottom-up process of job crafting, for instance by giving them the freedom to engage in job crafting by creating a supporting climate (Demerouti, 2014; Oldham & Fried, 2016). Therefore it is interesting to look at the influence of organizational culture on job crafting.

This research will focus on the influence of organizational culture on job crafting at Royal Philips Electronics N.V. (Philips). Philips is an internationally operating electronics company, with a versatile range in the field of healthcare and well-being. The organization is focused on innovation and integrates technology and design into solutions for improving the quality of life. The headquarters are located in the Netherlands. Philips is a global leader in healthcare, lighting and lifestyle (Philips Koninklijke, n.d.).

1.2 Research aim and research question

The following objective is formulated:

“To contribute to the knowledge about the relationship between organizational culture and job crafting, by a study about the influence of the organizational culture of Philips Design on job crafting.”

In order to achieve the objective, the following research question should be answered:

“How does the organizational culture of Philips Design influence job crafting?”
1.3 Research design

Theory-oriented research is conducted in order to provide an answer to the research question, eventually this will contribute to the existing literature about job crafting. Qualitative research is conducted to gain an in-depth understanding of processes, which might enable the researcher to capture the phenomenon (Labuschagne, 2003). Furthermore, culture and job crafting are topics that are embedded in social reality, thus it is important to take social dimensions into account (Vennix, 2011). Consequently, the phenomenon should be studied in detail and from different perspectives (Vennix, 2011). A qualitative case study would be necessary to gain in-depth insight in this topic since the topic is relatively unexplored. Semi-structured interviews will be used to gain understanding of employees’ perspectives on culture and job crafting by collecting personal stories, experiences and explanations. The interviews will be analysed by template analysis, a method which balances a high degree of structure in the process of data analysis with the flexibility to adapt it to the needs of a particular study (Brooks et al., 2015). Besides, the organizational culture assessment tool (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) will be used to describe Philip’s culture.

A single case study is conducted at Philips Design in order to develop understanding of the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. Philips has a long history and a developed culture, and the company could benefit from job crafting since it emphasizes on innovation and creativity.

1.4 Relevance of this research

As previously stated, job crafting is a way to deal with the complex nature of present-day jobs. Furthermore, both employees and the organization could benefit from job crafting since it brings numerous advantages. A recent trend in job crafting research is to explore the influence of organizations on enabling or limiting job crafting (Tims et al., 2014; Hackman & Oldham, 2016). However research on the influence of organizational culture is still underdeveloped. This study will try to address this gap in-depth and gain insight in the role of organizational culture in enabling or constraining job crafting, therefore it will contribute to more theoretical insights about this subject.

The results of this research could also be valuable for managers, organizations and change agents since they could gain insight in what ways culture could enable or constrain job crafting. They could use this knowledge to build and reshape cultures if they would like to enable job crafting.
Meaningful work is one of the related benefits of job crafting, when there is more knowledge about enabling job crafting, more job crafting could take place which leads to more people that experience more meaningfulness in their job. Furthermore, job crafting has positive effects on work engagement (Van den Heuvel et al., 2010), job performance (Demerouti, Bakker & Halbesleben, 2015) and improves employees’ overall sense of well-being in the workplace (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012). Consequently, job crafting could increase productivity for organizations (Demerouti et al., 2015). Finally, job crafting could also positively contribute to psychological empowerment and control of employees (Miller, 2015; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). On the whole, job crafting is related to numerous positive outcomes and more knowledge about which culture stimulates job crafting could therefore contribute to society as a whole.

1.5 Outline
The next chapter will provide a discussion of literature on job crafting and organizational culture and the relation between the two concepts. The research will have a qualitative approach of open interviews and observations to answer the research question, the reasons for choosing these methods and an elaboration of these methods will be presented in chapter three. The results of this research will be discussed in chapter four. In order to achieve the objective of this research, the research question needs to be answered and that will be done in chapter five. Finally, in the last chapter, the quality and of this research will be discussed and directions for future research will be given.
2. Theoretical framework

This chapter will provide an overview of literature on job crafting and organizational culture. Subsequently, the relationship between the two concepts will be explored. Finally, the main conclusions from this chapter will be presented and summarized.

2.1 Job crafting

Job crafting is mostly defined as the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p.179). This implies that job crafting is an action which is carried out by employees and not by the organization. Job crafting is context dependent and employees that perceive a misfit between their needs and their current job design are likely to engage in job crafting activities (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski et al., 2013). Job crafting is seen as proactive work behaviour that enables people to change aspects of their responsibilities at work in order to adapt to new work demands (Berg, Grant & Johnson, 2010; Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007).

Job crafting is not about redesigning the job as a whole, but it is about changing certain aspects of the job design (Berg & Dutton, 2008). Furthermore, job crafting is seen as proactive work behaviour of employees (Tims et al., 2012). Job crafting is distinguished from other bottom-up redesign approaches because employees craft their jobs on their own initiative instead of redesigning after a negotiation with their employers about their job conditions (Tims et al., 2012). Employees that proactively take initiative to make changes in their work environment are likely to contribute to organizational effectiveness (Tims et al., 2012). However, most job crafters are using their motives, strengths and passions in order to improve their person-job fit (Berg et al., 2013; Tims et al., 2012).

As already discussed in chapter one, job crafting is related to several positive outcomes. Job crafting could cultivate work engagement and job satisfaction (Berg et al., 2008). Moreover, job crafting could positively influence the experienced meaningfulness of work (Grant, 2007; Rosso et al, 2010). Besides the advantages of job crafting for individual employees, job crafting could also contribute to organizational performance (Frese & Fay, 2001). Although many researchers focus on the positive effects of job crafting, job crafting could also cause negative effects (Tims et al. 2012). However, the negative effects of job crafting have received less attention in the job crafting literature (Tims et al., 2012). Take the case of an employee who experiences an annoying colleague. The employee tries to craft his job through relational crafting and avoid this certain unpleasant colleague. This could enhance the employee’s perspective on job satisfaction or engagement to work. On the contrary, this
can have negative implications for the organization as a whole, for instance create a bad working atmosphere. The possibility that an employee cuts tasks, interactions or relationships as a part of job crafting is recognized by Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001).

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argue that there are three job crafting strategies. First, job crafting is possible through changing tasks by adding, emphasizing or redesigning tasks, this is called task crafting (Berg et al., 2013). Employees may change the number of tasks they have or the content of these tasks (Tims et al., 2012). Secondly, relational job crafting is possible through changing relationships by building, reframing or adapting relationships (Berg et al., 2013). Employees may change the amount and intensity of contact with colleagues and customers and therefore change the relationships they encounter (Tims et al., 2012). Thirdly, employees may engage in job crafting through changing perceptions by expanding, focusing or linking perceptions (Berg et al., 2013). This so-called cognitive job crafting may change the cognitions that employees have about their job (Tims et al., 2012).

2.2 Organizational culture

From the 80s, organizational culture has gained a prominent role in management’s literature (Peters & Watermann, 1982; Schein, 1985). Since the introduction of the concept of organizational culture, the concept experienced a hype among managers, consultants and scientists (Hofstede et al., 1990). To arrive at a clear definition of organizational culture it is first important what is understood as culture. Hofstede (2012, p. 21) defines culture as “the collective mental programming of the human mind which distinguishes one group of people from another.” According to Kunda (1999), cultures could be divided into two main groups: individualism versus collectivism. Individualistic cultures are characterised by concepts like autonomy, self-confidence and independency (Kunda, 1999). On the other hand, collectivistic cultures are more focused on social obligations and are characterised by concepts like collaboration, dependency and social harmony (Kunda, 1999). Culture in this way concerns national cultures, the culture or subculture of a country.

Organizational cultures are focused on the culture of an organization. Organizational culture is defined by Schein (1985, p. 12) as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved 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.” The organizational culture thus consists of shared basic assumptions, these shared basic assumptions could be difficult to interpreted for an outsider. Organizational culture has multiple layers (Schein, 1985; Buelens, van den Broeck & van der Heyden, 2006).
(1985) distinguished three levels of organizational culture: artefacts and symbols, espoused values and assumptions. Artefacts and symbols are the visible aspects of organizational culture, whereas espoused values and assumptions are called the invisible aspects. These layers of organizational culture are often visualized as an onion (Figure 1). In order to understand organizational culture, it has to be peeled, layer by layer. The outer layers are easier to identify and change, whereas the layers deeper in the onion are more difficult to identify and change (Buelens et al., 2006).

Organizational culture is shared among organizational members (Glisson & James, 2002) and determines their behaviours as well as attitudes (Schein, 1992; Smircich, 1983). The influence of organizational culture on behaviours and attitudes is often subconscious through shared values, beliefs, norms and expectations (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Giorgi, Lockwood, & Glynn, 2015). Much attention has been given to organizational culture in the context of superior organizational performance (e.g. Deal, Kennedy, & Doriot, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 2004). Furthermore, many scholars discussed organizational culture as a source of sustainable competitive advantage (e.g. Denison & Mishra, 1995; Barney, 1986) and it serves as an explanatory factor for various other organizational outcomes (Laubengaier, Hahn & Wagner, 2019). For example, the link to effectiveness is well established (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). Besides, organizational culture could affect employee related aspects such as creativity, motivation and other job-related variables like job satisfaction (Koberg & Chusmir, 1987).

2.2.1 Competing values framework

There is no consensus on how to measure organizational culture (Sarki et al., 2017). Many instruments and measurements have been developed with different instruments to measure organizational culture. Cultural typologies have been frequently used as an alternative to provide a simplified means of measuring culture (Sarki et al., 2017). Typologies are the descriptions of some ideal types of culture which are easy to imagine, against which the culture that is being assessed is compared (Janicijevic, 2012). Organizational culture is extremely broad and inclusive in scope (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), therefore many
dimensions for typologies have been proposed. For example, Arnold and Capella (1985) proposed a strong-weak dimension and an internal-external dimension. In addition, Ernst (1985) proposed a dimension of people orientation (participative versus nonparticipative) and a dimension of response to the environment (reactive versus proactive). Because of the complex, interrelated and ambiguous set of factors of organizational culture, it is impossible to include every relevant factor in assessing organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Therefore it is difficult to assess whether a typology is good or bad. However, appropriate frameworks should be based on empirical evidence, should be able to integrate and organize most of the proposed dimensions, and should capture the described reality accurately (Yu, 2009; Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Based on these criteria, Cameron and Quinn (1999) have developed the competing values framework. The framework is empirically derived and has integrated many of the well-known and well-accepted dimensions that are proposed by various authors (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Yu, 2009). In their competing values framework (CVF), Cameron & Quinn (2006) distinguish two dimensions. The first dimension is based on effectiveness criteria on organizational structure. On the one hand, some organizations are viewed as effective if they are changing, adaptable and organic which relates to the flexibility and discretion criteria. These organizations often act in an unpredictable environment. On the other hand, organizations that act in a more predictable environment are viewed as effective if they are stable, predictable and mechanistic which relates to the stability and control criteria. So the continuum on this dimension ranges from organizational flexibility on the one end to organizational stability on the other end (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

The second dimension is related to organizational focus. A distinction is made between effectiveness criteria that emphasize an internal orientation, integration and unity and criteria that emphasize an external orientation, differentiation and rivalry. While some organizations are viewed as effective if they have harmonious internal characteristics, others are viewed as effective if their focus is on interacting or competing with others outside their boundaries (Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Yu, 2009). The continuum ranges from

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Figure 2 Reprinted from “Diagnosing and changing organizational culture”, by Cameron, K. & Quinn, R., 2006, p. 35, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass
internal focus and integration on the one end to external focus and differentiation on the other
end. Combining these two dimensions results in four quadrants, each representing a distinct
set of organizational effectiveness indicators, see figure 2 (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.2.1.1 The hierarchy culture
The hierarchy culture originates from Weber’s (1947) bureaucracy. The organizational
structure of the hierarchy culture is clear, rules and procedures are standardized, there is strict
control and responsibilities are well defined (Yu, 2009). The stable environment ensures that
organizations could integrate and coordinate tasks and functions, maintain similar products
and services and control jobs and employees (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The hierarchy culture
is characterized by a formalized and structured place to work, the organization is held together
by formalized rules and policies (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Consequently, employees’
behaviour is guided by the formalized procedures and the organization aims for stability,
predictability and efficiency (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.2.1.2 The market culture
The market culture is not focused on transactions with the internal management, but it focuses
on the transactions with the environment outside of the organization (Yu, 2009). The
organization aims to earn profits through market competition. The term market refers to a type
of organization that functions as a market itself. The organization is oriented toward the
external environment instead of internal affairs (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Unlike a hierarchy
culture, where rules, specialized jobs and centralized decisions maintain internal control, the
market culture operates mainly through economic market decisions (Cameron & Quinn,
2006). Market culture organizations focus on profitability, bottom-line results, secure
customer bases and strength in market niches and aim for competitive advantage by
conducting transactions with the external environment (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The core
values of these organizations are competitiveness and productivity and are achieved through a
strong emphasis on external positioning and control (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The
organization is very results oriented which leads to competition among employees and an
achievement oriented management style.

2.2.1.3 The clan culture
The clan culture, often called “family culture” or “human relations culture”, is internally
oriented and has a flexible organizational structure (Kapetaneas et al., 2015). It is full of
shared values and common goals, an emphasis on empowerment and employee involvement
and there is an atmosphere of collectively, participative and mutual help (Yu, 2009). Whereas
hierarchy cultures are characterized by formal rules and procedures and market cultures by competitive profit centres, clan cultures are characterized by teamwork, employee involvement programs and corporate commitment to employees (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). These types of organizations arise from the human relations movement. Clan cultures look like an extended family business and are friendly places to work where people share a lot of themselves (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Loyalty and tradition are core values in an organization where commitment is high (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.2.1.4 The adhocracy culture
The adhocracy culture is found in organizations that are externally focused and act in a flexible and turbulent environment. The root of the word adhocracy is ad hoc, which implies something temporary, specialized and dynamic (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Adhocracy culture aims for fostering adaptability, flexibility and creativity where uncertainty, ambiguity and information overload are typical. In adhocracy, the emphasis is on individuality and risk taking (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Adhocracy cultures are often found in industries such as filming, consulting, software development etc. (Yu, 2009). Workplaces at adhocracy cultures are dynamic, entrepreneurial and creative. The organization would want to lead the discovery of new knowledge, products and services, therefore readiness for change and meeting new challenges are important values (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

2.2.2 Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
As has already been noted, organizational culture is invisible and taken for granted and is therefore difficult to identify and describe. Cameron and Quinn (2006) have developed the organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI), which is based on their competing values framework. “The instrument helps to uncover, or bring to the surface, aspects of the organization’s culture that might otherwise not be identifiable or articulated by organization members” (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 83). The OCAI is a tool to diagnose the type of culture of an organization into a quadrant of the competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The respondents assess six factors of the organizational culture: Dominant characteristics of the organization, management style, personnel management, the ‘glue’ that holds the organization together, strategic accents, success criteria. By averaging individual OCAI scores, a culture profile is created. That makes it possible to find the dominant culture and the strength of the dominant culture.

The OCAI is often used as an instrument for initiating a change in the organizational culture. Cameron and Quinn (2006) propose to use the OCAI to assess the current
organizational culture as a first step. Next, respondents have to answer the same questions but now they have to describe the desired future culture and determine what the changes will and will not mean. Afterwards, respondents identify illustrative stories, develop a strategic action plan and develop an implementation plan. However, since this study is focused on diagnosing an organizational culture and not on changing this culture, only the first step will be executed to ascribe the culture of Philips to one of the cultures of the competing values framework of Cameron and Quinn (2006).

2.3 The influence of organizational culture in enabling or constraining job crafting

As shown, the topics of organizational culture and job crafting are well discussed in the literature. Despite the research on the role of other organizational factors on job crafting (Berg et al., 2010; Demerouti, 2014; Oldham & Hackman, 2010), relatively little is known about the role of organizational culture in enabling or constraining job crafting (Berg et al., 2013). However, it is possible to make assumptions when combining literature on organizational culture with the literature on job crafting. The following sections will discuss how each type of organizational culture might influence job crafting.

2.3.1 The hierarchy culture

A hierarchy culture has a lot of formalized and standardized rules and procedures which determine the behaviour of an employee (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Within hierarchy cultures, it could be difficult to have the autonomy and the freedom to engage in job crafting since this is proactive, bottom-up behaviour (Tims et al., 2012). Besides, the fixed hierarchy within the organization could negatively affect decision latitude and job autonomy, which are found to be situational predictors for job crafting (Demerouti, 2014; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Lyons, 2008). Furthermore, the formal working atmosphere in such organizations could make it difficult to engage in relational job crafting, since relations and the way of communication are often fixed.

2.3.2 The market culture

Market cultures are found to be competitive and focused on productivity, profitability and bottom-line results (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). On the one hand, this could promote job crafting when employees job craft in order to achieve their goals and to perform better. For instance, employees could use task crafting and add certain tasks in order to compete for promotion. Besides, employees might use relational crafting in order to build a network. On
the other hand, the atmosphere in market cultures could be very competitive which constrains relational job crafting opportunities since employees do not feel safe and confident to build new relationships because of the fear for losing their jobs. Besides, employees could focus their attention on their own tasks because they are assessed by the bottom-line results of their own job. Therefore, they might be less helpful for their colleagues when time pressures are high. Consequently, the influence of market cultures on job crafting could be two folded.

2.3.3 The clan culture

Clan cultures are often described as warm and safe cultures (Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz Valle, 2016). Employees might be encouraged to approach other employees which enables more relational crafting. Besides, clan cultures could enable more task crafting since employees feel safe to make adjustments in their work environment. As Kapetaneas et al. (2015) argued, clan cultures have a flexible organizational structure, this could ensure less difficulties when an employee wants to job craft compared to a highly formalized and standardized hierarchy culture. Therefore, clan cultures could provide much freedom and security for employees to job craft. Taking on extra tasks or engaging in new relationships is easier because of the open, warm and safe organizational culture. Besides, the open culture can promote decision latitude and job autonomy which stimulate job crafting behaviour (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Lyons, 2008). Furthermore, clan cultures provide more collaboration between employees and managers, which promoted more task interdependence. According to Demerouti (2014) and Leana, Appelbaum and Schevchuk (2009), task interdependence is a predictor of job crafting.

2.3.4 The adhocracy culture

Adhocracy culture often occur at organizations that have to deal with a lot of uncertainty (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), therefore employees should act creatively and dynamically. Job crafting could be a means to become more dynamic and creative. The emphasis is on individuality and risk taking (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), which implies that employees have much freedom and that decision latitude and job autonomy are high. Since the organization acts in an uncertain environment, tasks will be complex. Task complexity is seen as a job crafting predictor (Demerouti, 2014; Ghitulescu, 2007). Besides, employees have to be adaptable, flexible and creative thus the adhocracy culture should enable job crafting since this could be a helpful tool.
2.4 Conclusion

This chapter has elaborated on the two concepts of this research, job crafting and organizational culture. Job crafting has been defined as “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p.179). Organizational culture has been defined as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved 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, p. 12). Furthermore, four types of organizational cultures (clan culture, hierarchy culture, adhocracy culture and market culture) have been identified and have been linked to job crafting. This research will try to explore the relationship more in-depth. Finally, the conceptual model of this research is as following:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Organizational culture</th>
<th>Job crafting</th>
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<tr>
<td>-Hierarchy culture</td>
<td>-Task crafting</td>
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<tr>
<td>-Market culture</td>
<td>-Relational crafting</td>
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<td>-Clan culture</td>
<td>-Cognitive crafting</td>
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<td>-Adhocracy culture</td>
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3. Methods
The third chapter of this research will provide insight in how the empirical study is conducted. Section 3.1 will discuss the general research strategy. Following this, in section 3.2, the case will be described. This will be followed by an elaboration on methods for data collection in section 3.3. Section 3.4 will elaborate on the method of data analysis, after which the quality of this research will be discussed by means of quality criteria in section 3.5. Finally, ethical considerations will be discussed in section 3.6.

3.1 Research strategy
The objective of this study was to contribute to the knowledge about the relationship between organizational culture and job crafting by providing insight about the influence of the organizational culture of Philips Design on job crafting. The central question for this study was: ‘How does the organizational culture of Philips Design influence job crafting?’ This influence of organizational culture on job crafting is relatively unexplored, therefore this study is explorative. In exploratory research, social phenomena are investigated with minimal a priori expectations to develop explanations of these phenomena (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, the concepts of job crafting and organizational culture have both received much attention in the literature. Regarding the present literature a deductive approach has been taken, which implies the use of existing theory as a starting point to study a phenomenon in practice (Bryman, 2012). Besides, based on the existing theories, several assumptions about how each type of organizational culture could influence job crafting have been made in chapter 2.3. This research starts from a more general theory to a more specific one and therefore fits with deductive research (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The main research approach for this study is qualitative research. Job crafting is a dynamic process, there are many different forms and direction in which job crafting can occur and it is related to the perception of an employee on their work and on themselves within their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, studying job crafting comes with some methodological challenges (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). These authors state that they believe that “it is no coincidence that the examples of crafting we discovered in the organisational literature arose from detailed qualitative studies of work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 196). In order to collect personal stories and explanations, the narratives of employees should be studied by qualitative methods to capture the process of job crafting. Furthermore, Hornung et al. (2010) state that qualitative research methods could contribute to gain understanding of job crafting and is therefore preferred. Besides, organizational culture is
often measured quantitatively (Sarki et al., 2017). This study uses the OCAI developed by Cameron & Quinn (2006) to describe the organizational culture of Philips. On the other hand, the research was interested in personal stories and to capture the process of the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. Therefore the concept of organizational culture is also discussed during the qualitative interviews.

Qualitative research aims to understand processes (Doorewaard & Verschuren, 2010). It involves, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), an interpretive and naturalistic approach to the world. Therefore a research should study a phenomenon in its natural environment (Vennix, 2011) in order to make sense of, or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings that people bring to them. Case studies are characterised by the observation of a phenomenon in its natural environment (Bleijenbergh, 2013). A single case study is used to achieve the goal of this research. A single case study is useful for researchers that want to explore new theoretical relationships and to get a deeper understanding of the subject (Dyer & Wilkins, 1991). The relationship between organizational culture and job crafting was still unexplored, therefore conducting a single case study was useful to gain rich theoretical findings in detail.

3.2 Case description

Philips is a Dutch multinational technology company, it is one of the largest electronics companies in the world and is currently focused in the area of healthcare and lighting. Philips was founded in 1891. The company generated sales of EUR 18.1 billion euros in 2018 and employs approximately 77,000 employees with sales and services in more than 100 countries. Philips is striving to make the world around us healthier and more sustainable through meaningful innovations. Furthermore, Philips aims to have improved the lives of three billion people by 2025. Finally, Philips claims to offer the best working environment for people who share their passion and together they offer their customers and shareholders unprecedented added value (“Duurzaamheid Philips”, n.d.). The department of Philips Design, located in Eindhoven, has been the focus of this research. Philips Design employs more than 400 employees globally, representing more than 35 different nationalities. Besides, these employees are working in 11 studios around the world, two of these studios are located in the Netherlands, in Amsterdam and Eindhoven. The department of Philips design in Eindhoven employs around 100 people.

Philips has a rich and long history which makes the organizational culture well established. However, Philips acts in a dynamic environment and has made a lot of strategic changes over the past few years (e.g. the split off of the lighting division in 2018, removing the word “Electronics” from its name in 2013). This makes Philips an interesting and unique
case in terms of organizational culture. Moreover, job crafting could play an important role for Philips since the company emphasizes innovation, a good working environment and adding value for customers and shareholders.

3.3 Data collection
This study has used open-ended, semi-structured interviews in order to collect data. This could provide “direct quotations from people about their experiences, opinions, feelings and knowledge” (Labuschagne, 2003, p.101). In qualitative research, concepts are defined as used by people themselves in their daily lives (Wester & Peters, 2004). Semi-structured interviews provide the opportunity to ask more questions in order to get a clear picture of what the respondent means and could provide depth when necessary (Walkers & Peters, 2004). Besides, face-to-face interviews gives interviewees the opportunities to express their feelings and emotions (Bleijenbergh, 2013). These nonverbal behaviour of interviewees during the interviews may be important when interpreting the answers in the data analysis process (Boeije, 2005). The interviewer has the opportunity to ask follow-up questions (Bleijenbergh, 2015) which creates openness for new perspectives and questions and fits with this exploratory research. The interview guide can be found in appendix 1.

Nine employees of Philips Design were interviewed. Given the restrictions regarding the scope of this study, the researcher is able to meet the aim of the study by this sample when collecting the appropriate data (Saunders, 2012). The researcher has been enabled to gain appropriate insights and understandings about the constructs that are being studied (Patton, 2002) by exploratory conversations with the contact person within Philips. By mutual agreement, people who were most likely to provide valuable information and who were available at the time were chosen to be interviewed. The research tried to select a variety of functions and people within Philips Design.

Besides, another source of data collection were the results of the organizational culture assessment tool (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), which can be found in appendix 2. The organizational culture of Philips has been described in terms of the competing values framework of Cameron and Quinn (2006) by using the OCAI. Only nine respondents have filled in the OCAI since this measurement tool is only seen as an extra aid to describe the organizational culture and it fits with the competing value framework of Cameron and Quinn (2006). The respondents had to assess six factors of the organizational culture. After processing the answers, this research was able to assign the organizational culture of Philips to one of the four typologies of Cameron and Quinn (2006). In addition, very respondent that has been interviewed has answered some questions about the organizational culture of Philips
and has filled in the OCAI after the interview. Both the answers from the interviews as well as the results from the OCAI will be combined to describe the organizational culture of Philips Design.

3.4 Operationalization
The operationalizations of job crafting and organizational culture can be found in Appendix 3 Berg et al. (2013) have been used to operationalize job crafting. Job crafting is divided into three dimensions, task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting. Organizational culture is operationalized on the basis of Cameron and Quinn (2006).

3.5 Data analysis
The interviews have been transcribed in a way of verbatim transcript, this means that the interviews are fully recorded and are typed out word by word later on. Thus, it is a complete transcription and not a summary of respondents’ answers. According to Bleijenbergh (2013) this complete registration leads to better interpretations of the interviews. Afterwards, the transcripts of interviews are coded. Coding helps dividing all the information into categories, which results in a clear overview of codes and theoretical statements (Bleijenbergh, 2013).

As already mentioned, this is an exploratory and deductive research. In order to deal with both dimensions, template analysis has been used. “Template analysis is a form of thematic analysis which emphasises the use of hierarchical coding but balances a relatively high degree of structure in the process of analysing textual data with the flexibility to adapt it to the needs of a particular study” (Brooks et al., 2015, p. 203). Some a priori codes defined codes could be used in the analysis, however, template analysis encourages the researcher to develop themes more extensively during the process of analysing data (Brooks et al., 2015). Template analysis has a clearer idea on theoretical shaping in the beginning but is flexible on how the researcher actually executes the analyse. For example, there are no fixed number of levels of coding hierarchy (King, 2013). Template analysis was found to be the most suitable technique for this research since the open approach towards the data is necessary to study the relationship between organizational culture and job crafting in a deductive, explorative way. However, template analysis gives room to define priori codes which suits this study because both of the concepts are well-established in the literature.

At first, a subset of the data and relevant literature on organizational culture and job crafting have been used to develop the initial template (King, 2013). The initial template can be found in Appendix 4. Next, the researcher should carry out initial coding of the data by identifying parts of the transcripts that are relevant to the research question. Since only a
limited number of a priori codes are defined beforehand, template analysis allows the researcher to redefine, add and discard codes. During the coding process, the researcher moves form “the more concrete and data-grounded to the more abstract and interpretive” (King, 2013, p. 429). The final template can be found in Appendix 5 and is used to interpret and write up the findings.

This research has also used the organizational culture assessment tool of Cameron and Quinn (2006). Respondents had to assess six factors of the organizational culture, for each factor they had to divide 100 points over four propositions. Scoring the OCAI requires simple arithmetic calculations (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). All of the A responses should be added together and divided by six to compute an average score for the A. This has been done for all four answers categories. Every category represents one of the organizational cultures as described in terms of the competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

3.6 Quality of the study

Qualitative research should use other assessment criteria than quantitative research, where criteria such as reliability and validity are well known assessment criteria (Easterby-Smith, Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2008). Subjectivity, interpretation and emancipation are key elements of qualitative research (Symon & Cassel, 2012). Therefore Guba and Lincoln (1989) have identified four assessment criteria, based on a relativistic research approach. The authors look at ‘credibility’, ‘dependability’, ‘confirmability’ and ‘transferability.

Firstly, Guba and Lincoln (1989, p. 237) describe credibility as “rather than trying to find a best fit between interpretation and reality, the researcher tries to demonstrate a good fit between ‘constructed realities of respondents’ and the reconstructions attributed to them”.

This study tries to enhance its credibility by member checks to ensure that respondents’ perceptions have been accurately captured. The interview transcripts were sent to the interviewees so the respondents could check whether the transcripts were correctly typed out. Moreover, the interpretations of the researcher have been discussed throughout the research process with the contact person, fellow students and the supervisor of this study. Finally, semi-structured interviews could increase credibility since the interviewer could clarify issues that are not understood by the interviewee and vice-versa.

Secondly, dependability refers to how “methodological changes and shifts in constructions have been captured and are made available for evaluation” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 242). This could include removing or renaming concepts or codes or why certain research material is not used in the data analysis. In order to enhance the dependability of this
research, notes on methodological decisions have been used. The initial template analysis and the final template also show the adaptations made during the coding process.

Thirdly, confirmability refers to the accurate descriptions about “where the data came from and how such data were transformed into the presented findings” (Symon & Gassel, 2012, p. 208). This is described in chapter three, which elaborates the methodological choices, the way of data collection and analysis.

Finally, transferability refers to generalization of the research results. Symon and Cassell (2012, p. 207) define transferability as: “rather than trying to demonstrate that the results can be generalized to all other contexts, the researcher provides enough detail about the specific research case that the reader can judge what other (similar) contexts – and particularly whether their own situation – might be informed by findings.” A thick description of Philips has been provided in section 3.2 to enhance the transferability of this case. Moreover, the respondents have told extensively about Philips. Finally, the transferability is discussed in the discussion chapter of this study.

3.7 Research ethics

Qualitative research is often defined as interpretive research, however, interpretations might not be correct or biased which makes findings controversial (Stake, 2010). The researcher-participant relationship in qualitative research raises a range of ethical concerns (Sanjari et al., 2014). Therefore, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent should be taken into account (Richards & Schwartz, 2002). Besides, conducting research within an organization involves people, so it is important that the researcher pays attention to ‘proper’ research and considers the potential harmful effects of the study (Holt, 2012). The researcher should be clear and open when explaining the research to respondents and other stakeholders. Besides, respondents should be informed timely about the subject of this research and during the interview they should be given enough space and time to tell their stories (Holt, 2012). Holt (2012) refers to this as deliberate conversation.

This research has also handled participant relationships and data in an appropriate manner, that means that anonymity of respondents and confidentiality is warranted. The research will not share any names of the respondents and transcripts will not be publicly published. Participants have been informed about the purpose of the research beforehand, the level of involvement and have the opportunity to withdraw at any moment. The collected data is only used for the purposes of this study. Hoeyer, Dahlager and Lynøe (2005) state that it is of utmost importance to specify in advance which data will be collected and how data is used. In this research, participants will provide information on organizational culture and job
crafting from their own perspective. Their narrative will be analysed and compared to other narratives and theory in order to gain insight in the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. The study tries to explore this relationship and the results will be read by the researcher and his two assessors and will be published in a limited version (without transcripts and personal information). Furthermore, the researcher only saved the transcripts and the recordings on his own computer and protected this computer with virus scanner and an updated password in order to prevent that these files were being shared with others.
4. Results

This chapter will present and discuss the results of the interviews and compare these with the existing literature as described in chapter 2. The results are based on an analysis of the differences and similarities in the interviews and the OCAI. Besides, several quotes from respondents support the results. First, the process of job crafting as described by the respondents will be discussed. Subsequently the organizational culture of Philips Design will be described by comparing descriptions and narratives about the organizational culture given by respondents. Finally, the influence of the organizational culture on job crafting will be discussed.

4.1 Job crafting

4.1.1 Task crafting

Job crafting is possible through changing tasks by adding, emphasizing or redesigning tasks, this is called task crafting (Berg et al., 2013).

4.1.1.1 Adding tasks

Most of the respondents believed that there was much room to add tasks, employees do not have a very detailed job description and can participate in multiple projects. This creates room to add new tasks or projects and most respondents argued that they can take initiative and decide which tasks to add themselves (to a certain degree), which provides them freedom to add tasks. Therefore they engage in task crafting by adding tasks and projects. For instance, collecting input for a booklet (respondent 1), becoming a speaker on conferences (respondent 2), becoming a member of the works council (respondent 8) and taking over tasks or projects from their colleagues (respondents 1 and 9).

Respondents were actively searching for task crafting possibilities in order to match work to their interests and to increase their job satisfaction. This follows research of Berg et al. (2013) and Tims et al. (2012) who claim that job crafters are using their motives, strengths and passions while job crafting. Besides, employees engage in activities that could have a valuable contribution for Philips Design, respondent 3 engaged in a community of practice:

“Simply because it [uh], yes, I think it is interesting and it is enjoyable to do and there are [uh] nice people. And it also is in the interest of Philips” (respondent 3). Most respondents added tasks which made work more enjoyable, they were actively looking for projects or small tasks that they could add. The interviewer asked respondent 7 for his motivation to add
tasks, the respondent argued that he made choices based on intrinsic motivation and tasks that the respondent is good at. Besides, many respondents indicated that they would take on extra tasks in order to develop themselves. However, most of the respondents indicated that they would sometimes add tasks because their colleagues ask them to do something for them. In one extreme case a respondent felt like others were determining the respondent’s work day by taking on extra tasks every time. This decreased her own latitude to pro-actively decide which task crafting processes to undertake. Thus, employees add tasks or projects because of personal reasons, which is in line with existing literature (Berg et al., 2010; Tims & Bakker, 2010).

Besides, the respondents recognize that it is important to pick up new tasks or projects that have value for Philips Design. Respondent 4 describes an example when she noticed that tasks that ‘belong’ to the Design department were outsourced to other departments. The respondent did not agree and the respondent made sure that the Design team could execute this task because it is a ‘Design thing’ and it fits with Design and their jobs. Afterwards the respondent believed this was a really valuable for his/her and it would have been a waste if someone from another department would have done this task (respondent 4). Demerouti (2014) already suggested that contributing to organizational performance may be a ‘by-product’ of job crafting. When adding tasks, respondents based their motives on a combination of personal and work-related motives and needs.

4.1.1.2 Emphasizing tasks
Respondents felt the urge to emphasize on important tasks because of time pressure. Many respondents argued that there is quite a high work pressure which ensures necessity to emphasize on priorities. “But that is more because I am overwhelmed by the amount of work and which ensures that something does not happen” (respondent 9). As a result, respondents choose to drop task or to put emphasis on the important tasks. Besides, respondents feel like they have room to pro-actively choose which tasks to emphasize on: “So you can choose whether or not to pick up a certain type of topic and I do that very consciously because I recognize that I like that, I believe that I get energy from it when I can add [uh] something” (respondent 8). Most of these conscious choices are based on increasing job satisfaction, “I have indeed focuses on what makes me [uh] happy because you are just limited in time” (respondent 5). Thus, most respondents put emphasis on positive tasks that increase their job satisfaction and on tasks that are valuable for the organization.

Respondent 6 emphasized on tasks that match with her qualities and skills, she felt like she was good at interviewing and therefore put more emphasis on tasks that involve
interviews or listening skills. The respondent felt like people can easily talk to her about subjects because of her empathic ability. This is in line with previous research of Berg et al. (2013) that emphasizing tasks can be used as a means for creating a job that suits one’s interests or skills better.

4.1.1.3 Redesigning tasks

Redesigning tasks refers to changing how existing tasks are carried out (Berg et al., 2010). The respondents feel free to execute tasks in their own way and develop their own way of working. Respondent 3 stated that his manager is not micro-managing his employees which gives him room to carry out his tasks in his own way. As previously stated, the respondents were focused on developing themselves. Therefore some of them sometimes redesigned their tasks or their roles in projects in order to learn something: “On the other hand, I do things [uh], but that has more to do with the way I execute tasks, the way of executing in a different way [uh]. (...) Sometimes I just play a little with the way I execute a task, this time I execute it in this way and another time I execute it in that way. And I believe that is a good thing because it makes you learn things and [uh] that is something you need to take control over yourself, learning new things and doing new stuff. Because the organization will not initiate that, not in terms of content” (respondent 3). Respondent 3 argues that employees should take initiative to develop their own knowledge and skills because this is not provided by Philips, therefore the respondent redesigns his tasks by executing tasks in various ways in order to learn something. Respondents experienced difficulty in explaining their redesigning task crafting behaviour since they experience high professional autonomy and they experience much freedom on how to execute tasks.

On the whole, the respondents were all engaged in task crafting processes. They mainly added tasks in order to increase their job satisfaction or to add value for Philips Design. Redesigning tasks and emphasizing tasks were also mentioned by the respondents. Employees of Philips Design get enough room to engage in task crafting activities which results in more job satisfaction among employees.

4.1.2 Relational crafting

Relational crafting is possible through changing relationships by building, reframing or adapting relationships. Employees may change the amount and intensity of contact with colleagues and customers (Berg et al., 2013).
4.1.2.1 Building relationships

At a big organization like Philips Design, it is easy to build new relationships because you meet new people every day. Furthermore, employees work together in projects which ensures a basis for new relationships. Although, most relationships stay purely work-related, it is not common to build personal relationships with colleagues in private time. Nevertheless, when respondents talked about personal relationships that have been built up via work, most of the time this happened because of common interests or hobbies. Respondent 8 has built up some personal relationships due to the common interests in music. Besides, respondent 3 argues that personal relationships are formed because you simply have the same age and have common interests.

Most respondents are actively looking to build new relationships because it helps them with their job. Respondent 1 tries to build relationships with other employees which could help her in arranging things better or faster next time. Most of the employees are professionals and the complexity of their tasks makes it useful to get in contact with other people. Respondent 6 has learned a lot from newly build relationships in projects with external parties, those experiences could be useful in her future work. Despite of the fact that respondent 5 acknowledges that your network will help you in getting the job done, she does not spend much attention in building relationships because she is ‘a task oriented person’.

Respondents argued that most relationships are built up after engaging in new tasks or projects, therefore it was sometimes difficult to assess whether respondents were building relationships pro-actively or as part of their job. Although, respondent 6 was actively looking to build new relationships with people around her, mostly colleagues that were sitting close to her. The respondent would invite colleagues she did not know to go out for a lunch. However, the respondents did not claim to build relationships in order to make work more meaningful, as is assumed by Berg et al. (2013). On the other hand, respondents stressed that building relationships made their work more enjoyable, this follows previous research of Berg et al. (2013).

4.1.2.2 Reframing relationships

Besides building relationships, employees also reframe relationships, creating a different way of looking at a relationship. Respondent 2 reframed some personal relationships with colleagues: “In terms of people, I sometimes have [uh] recalibrated some relationships [uh] and thought like [uh] I did not expect that from him or her. So [uh] you are always inclined to label people or [uh] yeah so at a specific moment you meet the same persons in different setting which made you think wow I did not expect that. So then I really had to put another
label on them and then it usually was from negative to positive but also from positive to negative. I thought o that really is [uh] a nice man or a nice woman and then they do certain things which make me think well [uh], I delete him or her from my list.” The respondent consciously reframed his look on certain people or relationships because people were acting differently than he would have thought.

Most of the respondents reframed their look on management because of the horizontal organizational structure, this ensured that they did not only look up to their manager but also collaborated with their manager: “I look at my supervisor, maybe I have been lucky in recent years, not really as a supervisor but I see him as [uh] someone who can advise me and [uh] with whom I can talk at the same level and with whom I want and can discuss my problems with” (respondent 4). This could also be a consequence of daily work processes, people getting to know each other better or when employees changed job functions. It is therefore not certain that this really proactive job crafting behaviour. Respondent 7 noticed that he has grown into the organization. “There are always a number of people who are present in those workshops, which are a bit like the hot persons. And now, after four years you have built up such a level of knowledge yourself and you have been in the organization for so long that you have become such a person so you notice something has changed” (respondent 7). This is an example of reframed relationships through a change in job functions. Most of the narratives of respondents on reframing relationships were consequences of daily work behaviour.

4.1.2.3 Adapting relationships

It is easy to build up a large network within Philips Design, however some respondents felt like it could be difficult to maintain relationships in a good way. Therefore they adapted the relationship or lowered the amount and intensity of contact. Respondents acknowledge that networking costs a lot of time and tries to deal with this by adapting relationships. Respondent 7 indicated that when his network grew, he could not remain the same intensity of contact with everyone. Therefore he adapted some relationships, however he did not alter the extent of relationships because the respondent believes it is important to maintain your network. For example, a colleague from another department would like to meet the respondent but the respondent did not have time for him so he rescheduled the appointment several times and lowered the intensity of contact. Most of the respondents mentioned it is common to help colleagues, according to Berg et al. (2013), providing valuable help to colleagues is related to adapting relationships. Since the respondents felt helping is common, they could feel this is daily work behaviour and maybe they do not experience this consciously as proactively adapting relationships.
Respondents argue that it is easy to become anonymous in such a big organization as Philips, some roles are quite lonely and therefore it is important to engage in relational crafting. At Philips Design, much communication goes via e-mail which could decrease the amount of personal contact. The respondents take initiative for relational crafting by trying to increase the amount of personal communications, for instance respondent 1: “I am just trying to make a lot of personal contact with other people so that you come in contact and do not just look at your screen all the time. [uh] But also just calle people or walk towards them, yes in that way actually” (respondent 1). The respondent told that other assistants would sit behind their screens all day, by engaging in personal communication the assistant tries to adapt relationships which could be helpful in getting the job done. Other respondents did also feel like they were pro-active in trying to get more personal contact than only communicating digitally.

To conclude, employees of Philips Design engage in relational crafting activities, building relationships is easy at Philips Design because of the size and because employees meet colleagues in new projects a lot. Some respondents also proactively redesigned or adapted their relationships while others could not come up with narratives that illustrated this.

4.1.3 Cognitive crafting

Job crafting is also possible through changing perceptions by expanding, focusing or linking perceptions, this is called cognitive crafting (Berg et al., 2013). Philips Design is focused on designing products for customers but also on designing products and services for healthcare. Especially designing products and services for healthcare could expand perceptions of employees to think about their work as value adding to the world: “The added value is actually [uh] a bit more, health care has always been very much focused on solving the problem, medication or treatment or [uh] surgery or things like that but [uh] nowadays we can collect data which enables us more to prevent certain conditions. By [uh] intervening on time [uh], to change behaviours or to change lifestyles, raise awareness, education etcetera to prevent problems which could save a lot of health costs and also save a lot of misery for people” (respondent 6). Employees of Philips Design expand their perceptions by looking at their work from a societal value perspective, they could contribute to a better healthcare system. Respondent want to improve the experience of patients in hospitals and try to improve products and services. They acknowledge that working for healthcare projects changes more perceptions than working for customer products like shavers. Employees can see the results of
their work which creates pride and a sense of meaningfulness, respondent 8 was in a hospital and saw an ultrasound scanner from Philips, the respondent noticed that he collaborated in the project that made software for this machine which reminded him that the respondent was delivering meaningful work. Afterwards the respondent concluded that helping people and improving healthcare is one of the driving factors in the job. The respondents expanded perceptions by seeing the broader significance of their jobs on others which is in line with the assumptions on cognitive crafting of Berg et al. (2013).

Furthermore, respondents link perceptions from their job to their own personality. Sometimes employees work on projects that are being shut down for economic reasons. However, respondents do not try to take this personally and try to link what they learnt in that project to other projects. Respondent 6 acknowledges that it is disappointing when projects are shut down but also recognizes that the lessons learned are applicable in other contexts.

Cognitive crafting could also happen through focusing on perceptions, like where to focus on when executing boring tasks: “Just do it, or [uh] I do not know. I don’t really dislike something. I usually find a twist in it to [uh], maybe I will do the latter, that cognitive crafting I think. That you then think like [ah] but here I help him or her, or maybe I learn this from it or something. That I justify it for myself” (respondent 9). Respondents to focus on the positive perceptions when executing boring tasks. This is in line with research of Berg et al (2013) who claim that employees narrow their mental scope of the purpose of their job on specific tasks that are valuable of significant for them. Furthermore, respondents focus on the positive and enjoyable parts of their job.

Concludingly, respondents did engage in cognitive crafting activities although these activities were not always consciously recognized. Some employees can make a real contribution by improving healthcare which makes it easy to expand perceptions.

4.2 Organizational culture

Describing an organizational culture is difficult because of the complexity of the phenomenon (Alvesson, 2012). This research has experienced that this is the case since the respondents have not come to consensus about how they would describe the organizational culture. During the interviews, the respondents would call the organizational culture on the one hand as open between them and their direct colleagues. On the other hand they would describe the organizational culture as competitive and political when looking at Philips Design as a whole. Like respondent 4 describes, it could be dependent on your place in the organization: “Yes, no, you know, I believe it is very personal. It desends on [uh] in which department you are in
and even, in which part of the department you are in. Look when you [uh], a designer might have to work more competitively than someone who organizes events. I do not have to compete with anyone, I just want to do good work for Philips” (respondent 4). It is normal that employees perceive the organizational culture in a different way (Schein, 1992; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Hereafter, the organizational culture of Philips Design will be described, the assumptions of the respondents about the organizational culture will be discussed and compared.

4.2.1 Organizational features

The respondents feel like they have an open relationship with their direct colleagues and their managers. Respondents felt like they could approach everybody within Philips Design. They described their colleagues as social people who take an interest in helping people: “The employees work here because they care for other people, so they are social animals by definition” (Respondent 7). At Philips Design it is common to involve people to get different perspectives and to keep the customer in mind. Some of the respondents have engaged in personal relationships with some colleagues, however it is not common to organise informal activities after work. Much of the relationships at work are purely work-related, respondent 5 claimed that this is related to the organizational culture: “You should be a bit more open at the beginning, however that is also very much due to the organizational culture here. Because it does not really invite you to just make some jokes and be open, and I did not find that here. [uh] eventually, if you sit here for a long time then it could be different I think. But you do notice that if you enter any other company, at another company it is much more family like and friendly than Philips.” The respondent feels like the organizational culture, which is not a clan culture according to her, is not inviting new employees to open themselves up. The respondent believes the working atmosphere could be open after working at Philips Design for a while.

Respondents feel like the organization is very performance oriented, respondents indicated that they do not feel like they are being managed as long as they deliver good results. Every employee has his own personal goals and this results in employees that are performance focused: “So at the start of the year we get five personal goals that you have to achieve. Sometimes you notice that people do thing in order to achieve their goal. So then you just know liek [uh] yeah, the funny thing is, in the December suddenly a lot of presentation are given to share knowledge. And then [uh], well because I also have that goal, hold at least two presentation to share information. So then you see such a peak in [uh] at the end of the
year because shit, I have to do this. So that goal drivenness comes up sometimes. But, yes, [uh], that is good I believe because that is what goals are for” (Respondent 3). The results-oriented approach and the focus on achievement and goals has several effects. On the one hand respondents argue that it makes the organization less personal, ensures for more competition and it causes higher work pressure. On the other hand, respondents feel like they are contributing to the goals of the organizations which motivates them and they feel like it is progressive.

Employees at Philips Design often work in teams for several projects, they feel like they have the urge to prove themselves: “And [uh], what I also really notice is that not everyone is always convinced of someone else’s abilities, so you have to advertise yourself a bit and I am not good at that, because I do not like self-promotion because I would rather let my work speak for me. That, [uh] if you talk about visibility and your chances of promotion and the political part, you should work more on that, on your visibility. So you have to [uh], so to speak, when you ran a successful project, you should write an article about it [uh] and I should post that on the internal social cast so that Frans van Houten can actually see that I did that. [Uh], and then [uh], if your manager sees it, it will make him proud because that is done by the team and puff” (respondent 7). Employees feel like they have to show off their performances in order to be visible. The emphasis on achievement and the result-oriented focus of the organization might be a cause. Besides, the need to promote yourself could cause more competition which is explained by respondent 9. Respondent 9 distinguished a difference in the competitive nature between two teams: “So I actually see that openness can arise within a project team and definitely in such a new value lab where we work, that makes it kind of a small community. And it is [uh], the competition is actually more between competence peers. So, perhaps for information, we have the competence teams which exist of like-minded people with the same skills. [Uh], everyone is sent to a project team, so a project team exist of multiple competence groups. These so-called multidisciplinary teams are quite open and really want to go for it. Although, the place where they are coming from (the competence teams), there you are striving for the same [uh] promotion. So there is more competition and politics then in the multidisciplinary teams. Within the multidisciplinary teams, if there is politics or competition, then it is more in [uh] who comes out with this project, who presents the project.” Within a competence team there is competition between team members that have the same competences and strive for the same roles and promotions in projects. On the other hand, in the multidisciplinary teams employees are willing to work together to run a good project and the competition is in who will present a successful projects.
This is a consequence of the results-oriented culture in which the one who presents a project is the one that gets credits for the project.

4.2.2 Style of management

The respondents mentioned that they felt like there is much politics going on at a higher level. “I have the feeling that a lot of people, who are at a higher level, always have a political agenda. So you always have to be a bit careful about how you deal with that and that makes you political yourself” (respondent 7). In addition, the respondent said: “Look, what I just said about political behaviour, I believe that this happens more at a higher level where it becomes less transparent. [Uh], I have good contact with my colleagues” (respondent 7). This refers to the open working atmosphere among colleagues as previously described, however it seems that the political part is particularly established at higher levels. Nevertheless, this does influence the organization as a whole, as described by respondent 9, the competitive nature is also present within teams. Respondents feel like there is a high emphasis on results, achievement and that could ensure competition among employees.

4.2.3 Strategy

According to the respondents, Philips Design promotes an entrepreneurial, informal and dare-to-care culture and they noticed that this promotion started recently. However, this is not yet how culture is described in practice: “Here [uh], it often is very empty, people often work at home. So it is very easy to become anonymous. And [uh], yes I am thinking [uh], the cultural [uh], the behaviours and such, customers first, yes I do not really recognize that very much. Yes well, I also think that many passionate people work here, very passionate people” (respondent 5). The size of the organization and the freedom to work at home makes it easy to anonymous in the organization. Furthermore, respondent 8 also indicated that those values were not executed in practice yet. Nevertheless, employees do have freedom to take initiative and have room to be entrepreneurial.

4.2.4 Conclusion on organizational culture

To conclude, during the interviews the organizational culture of Philips Design was described as being open and informal but also as competitive and political. The organization tends to place emphasis on achievement and is results oriented which causes competitive actions among employees. The market culture, as described by Cameron and Quinn (2006), focuses on bottom-line results, competitiveness and productivity. The high emphasis on achievement and results can be related to the focus on bottom-line results. Besides, a market cultural
organization refers to an organization which functions as a market itself which could be related to why employees of Philips Design need to compete with each other for promotion by competitive actions. Finally, employees of Philips Design need to achieve a productivity rate of 91.7% which could be related to the focus on productivity. In addition, the organization is not focused on transactions with the internal management which results in much freedom (Yu, 2009). Therefore it is possible to conclude from the interviews that the respondents describe the organizational culture as a market culture.

However, when assessing the organizational culture through filling in the OCAI the average scores indicated that the respondents assessed the organizational culture as an adhocracy culture. The results of the OCAI can be found in Appendix 7, the adhocracy culture was measured highest with a mean of 33.5%, the clan culture was measured second with a mean of 25.5%, the market culture was measured third with a mean of 23.1% and finally the hierarchy culture had a mean of 17.9%. While the respondents mainly indicated the organizational culture as open, political and result-oriented, they did also mention the room to take initiative and the current emphasis on entrepreneurship. The OCAI analysis showed that respondents mainly saw the organizational glue and the success criteria of the organization as fitting with the adhocracy culture. The methodological quality is automatically low since only nine respondents have filled in the OCAI. The OCAI only is considered as a helpful tool for assessing organizational culture. In addition, the organizational culture is extensively discussed in the semi-structured interviews. Therefore the organizational culture will be described as a market culture with dynamic and entrepreneurial elements.

4.3 The influence of organizational culture on job crafting

The organizational culture of Philips Design could be described as a market culture with dynamic and entrepreneurial elements. During the interviews, the influence of this culture was often related to job crafting. On the one hand, this organizational culture would promote job crafting, on the other hand it might discourage job crafting.

The respondents think that the organizational culture gives them much room to engage in task crafting activities. Employees feel free in the way that they execute their tasks which is promoted by the professional organizational culture: “Yes, well I think that in that sense, the organizational culture is very much like, you are a professional and go ahead, just do it. Or at least I experience so much freedom in my role, in such a way you can design it yourself. So I think, in that sense the organizational culture has a lot of influence on that because you are
able to organize it yourself” (respondent 5). This professional aspect might be a consequence of the complex jobs of the employees of Philips Design, the employees are considered as professional which gives them much freedom in their jobs. This might be a mix of organizational structure and culture, the structure promotes open job descriptions and freedom for employees while the organizational culture promotes employees to fill in their own jobs. Janićijević (2013) and Schein (1985) argue that organizational structure and culture are interrelated and aspects of each other, therefore this corresponds with the literature. Furthermore, it seems logical that there could be a relation between market cultures and employees that are regarded as a professional since there could be more competition within a company that employs many professionals. These companies often have a high emphasis on results and achievement and professionals sometimes have to compete with each other to be invited for the most interesting projects. However, there is no evidence for this in existing literature.

On the other hand, respondent 5 mentioned that the respondent experienced a high work load and a high performance pressure, which ultimately decreased room to add tasks because there is too much work to do. Nevertheless, this could ensure for more necessity to redesign or emphasizing on tasks which are task crafting processes as well.

Respondents mention that the emphasis on achievement and results ensures in employees that are selecting specific tasks that show their success. As already stated in the quote of respondent 7 in section 4.2.1 about self-promotion after a successful performance which makes employees emphasize tasks which demonstrate their skills and promote their work and results. For example when employees have worked in a successful project, the project has to be presented to stakeholders. As a consequence, employees are able to build relationships with stakeholders which they would not have known otherwise. According to respondent 9, the credits for a successful project are appointed to the one that presents the project, which causes a political and competitive game amongst project members. Employees will therefore emphasize tasks like presentation because that is valued by the organizational culture. The emphasis on success and achievement is an aspect of a market culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Respondents feel that the organizational culture of Philips Design promotes relational crafting processes. For example, the results-oriented focus promotes people to collaborate: “And people really want to learn from each other, because the other also thinks, at least I expect, if something interesting can arise, then you have something new again. You can show this new thing off again. Everyone is always looking for something different than they already
have so it helps a lot” (respondent 9). Thus, people are willing to engage in relational crafting processes because it could result in new achievements. Consequently, employees will also engage in other job crafting activities that might possibly lead to better results.

Besides, the emphasis on achievement and results-oriented focus promotes employees to engage in relationships outside Philips Design in order to communicate the success of Philips Design to the external environment. Respondent 9’s answer when being asked how the organizational culture could influence relational crafting processes: “I [uh] look at it as if it is stimulated, so because [uh], on the one hand it has to do with [uh] success and awareness of Philips Design so it is stimulated, also by putting it out to the external environment, and that increases the chance of success and [uh] so that is stimulated. Besides, the culture also values it that people develop [uh] and do their best, and therefore it is important to maintain relationships or to build relationships with higher levels” (respondent 9). This illustrates the influence of Philips Design’s culture on relational crafting, it mainly promotes this. By comparison, market cultures are also interested in orientation towards the external environment (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Besides, as already mentioned and illustrated with the example of respondent 9 about collaborations by employees that result in new achievements, relational crafting processes are stimulated by the organizational culture because of the results-oriented focus. Furthermore, respondents feel that the organizational culture is open, which makes it easier to approach people: “So it is very strong [uh], that openness which is a cultural [uh] characteristic of the organization, a cultural value. This makes it easy to ask questions, so that you can also easily approach people to get information” (respondent 8). The respondents mention that the open culture enables them to build relations without being held back by hierarchical or social boundaries. On the other hand, the big and impersonal character of the multinational makes it more difficult to build profound personal relationships.

According to the respondents, many employees in the organization, especially at the top, are behaving politically. This negatively influences the respondents ability to engage in job crafting, it might even scare them off: “I think that a lot of companies deal with that, but it is not always fun, I try to stay away from those things a bit. But yes, it sometimes keeps you from doing your work, to do the things you would like to do” (respondent 3). Some decisions of certain people are driven by a political or own interest which constrains the respondent’s freedom. This cultural aspect might negatively influence respondents’ freedom to engage in job crafting activities.
Respondents mention entrepreneurship as an important value of Philips Design’s culture, this is an aspect of the adhocracy culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Respondents argue that this gives them more room for job crafting: “Yes, despite the fact that Philips really values entrepreneurship of their employees. That you have to get room to take [uh] initiative yourself. That in general, that is something [uh], [uh], which is also the case in practice, I also notice that with my managers, I always get [uh] room to start something yourself. If you think like I would like to go this way, then you can just do it even without without consent, [uh] or you test it with your manager or even his manager or with you colleagues. So there is a lot of room to take initiative” (respondent 8). The entrepreneurial spirit promotes job crafting because employees can initiate a bottom-up initiative like job crafting.

Respondent 6 has worked in a family business in the past, the respondent described that this influences job crafting in different ways. The respondent argues that in a smaller corporation with a clan culture it is easier to proactively change your job boundaries: “And I believe that in a family business, you encounter that much less and that you are much more appreciated. And that they see what you can do as a person, compared to there, you are limited here in what you can do. Because if you go too far outside of your own role, suppose I am very good at computer programming, no but you are not a UWIX designer, so you shouldn’t do programming because then you just have to go to that department, for example. Or you [uh], yes so it is very tighter in your role here, it is much tighter” (respondent 6). In such a culture, employees might feel more appreciated when compared to Philips Design’s market culture. The market culture could therefore promote cognitive crafting because employees take initiative to get appreciation from other factors: “And [uh], yes, as well, there are also few moments when you actually get [uh] a pat on the back or something like gosh you did very well or something. You also have to get the satisfaction out of yourself” (respondent 6). Employees have to expand their perceptions, many respondents do this by looking at their added value for healthcare. Respondents argued that they can make a great contribution to the healthcare system with their work, as already discussed in chapter 4.1.3.

As was assumed in chapter 2, the influence of a market culture on job crafting is two-folded. On the one hand, the market culture promotes to engage in job crafting processes. The results-oriented focus ensures that people are conscious and pro-active in choosing tasks and employees could benefit from relational crafting. On the other hand, respondents indicated that they might not feel safe to engage in job crafting processes. The market culture could also
result in high work load and high performance pressure which decreases the ability and freedom to pro-actively craft your own job.
5. Conclusion

The aim of this research was to contribute to the knowledge about the relationship between organizational culture and job crafting, by a study about the influence of the organizational culture of Philips Design on job crafting. This study has answered the following research question: How does the organizational culture of Philips Design influence job crafting?

The organizational culture of Philips Design is described as a market culture with dynamic and entrepreneurial elements. The organizational culture of Philips Design influences job crafting in several ways. First, the results-oriented focus promoted collaborations amongst employees. Employees engage in relational crafting activities in order to develop new solutions. Furthermore, employees are willing to engage in job crafting activities that add value for the organization because of the focus on results. In addition, the emphasis on achievement and results caused employees to engage in task crafting, especially in the task crafting technique emphasizing tasks. Employees emphasized tasks that could promote their performances and increase visibility. Besides, employees were stimulated to build relationships outside of Philips Design in order to communicate Philips Design’s successes to the external environment.

Employees of Philips Design are seen as professionals, this positively influences their task crafting behaviour. Employees feel free to add tasks, emphasize on tasks, or to adapt tasks. Besides, the entrepreneurial elements of Philips Design’s organizational culture ensures for more room for job crafting. Employees are inspired to engage in bottom-up activities like job crafting because it is expected to take initiative.

However, the market culture causes more competition and politics amongst employees, especially at higher levels in the organization. As a result, some employees are scared off to build new relationships while others reframed or adapted relationships. This is a negative influence of the market culture on job crafting.

To conclude, the market culture with dynamic and entrepreneurial elements of Philips Design influences job crafting processes of their employees by a higher emphasis on specific job crafting techniques like emphasizing tasks and building relationships.
6. Discussion

This chapter will discuss the strong and the weak points of this research. First, the methodological quality of the research will be discussed. Subsequently it will take a look on the role of the researcher and the implications of this role. Afterwards the implications of theoretical choices will be discussed and finally recommendations will be given.

6.1 Quality of the research methods

This research follows four assessment criteria that are common to apply in qualitative research namely credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). First, credibility is increased by using member checks, the transcripts were sent to the respondents who could give feedback to the researcher, this did not result in changes in the transcripts. Job crafting is a difficult theme to study (Berg et al., 2010) because interpreting job crafting is a highly subjective and individual-level experience. The operationalization of job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) by task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting made it more easy to talk about these specific job crafting processes. However, since cognitive crafting in particular often happens unconscious, respondents found it hard to talk about cognitive crafting activities, examples and especially to link the influence of culture to cognitive crafting. Furthermore, the respondents indicated that they perceive much freedom in the ways that they execute their job and that the organizational structure is open. Therefore it became difficult to distinguish job crafting behaviour from regular daily behaviour, which is also acknowledged by different researchers (Petrou et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012; Vanbelle, 2017). Semi-structured interviews helped to decrease the impact of this credibility issue since the interviewer was able to clarify issues that are not understood by the interviewee and vice-versa. However, this might have sometimes resulted in explanations and definitions of concepts that are not purely theoretical in order to help the interviewee in understanding the concept. Furthermore, the credibility of the OCAI is low since there are only 9 respondents for this measure. Although, this is accounted for when interpreting the results. The organizational culture is described through the semi-structured interviews, the OCAI only highlighted some cultural aspects (dynamic and entrepreneurial elements) which are also described during the interviews and are therefore taken into account.

The second assessment criteria for the methodological quality of this research is dependability, this entails that methodological changes have been captured and are available
for evaluation. The changes in the coding phase have been captured and could be evaluated when looking at the difference between the initial template and the final template which could be found in appendices four and five. During the thesis process, some methodological shifts have been made, the researcher has made some notes on changes, but could have done this more extensively.

Besides, the methodological quality of this research is assessed by confirmability which refers to whether there are accurate descriptions of where the data came from and how data is transformed in the presented findings (Symon & Gassel, 2012). The methodological chapter extensively discusses this process and the process of data analysis is available in a table in detail. This shows which parts of the interviews are analysed and how the codes are step by steps formed.

A single case study has been conducted in this study which results in low transferability of this study. Nevertheless, this qualitative study presents several rich descriptions, stories and results in detail and a lot of context is given. Therefore readers can judge and try to relate whether their own organizational context might be comparable and assess whether the results of this study are transferable to their specific organization.

Furthermore a case study approach is very suitable for creating novel insights in an explorative research (Eisenhardt, 1989). However, the study is not aiming for generalization but for exploration of the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. Future research can develop hypotheses from this study and test them in a quantitative way in order to generalize the results of this study to a broader context.

The qualitative approach contributed to a detailed description of how employees engage in job crafting. Moreover, most of the studies on job crafting have a qualitative nature (Demerouti, 2014) because qualitative approaches enables respondents to share their perceptions of and experiences with job crafting (Berg et al., 2010). This study has indeed collected employees’ perceptions of and experiences of job crafting by means of narratives and stories about job crafting processes, organizational culture and the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. Therefore the qualitative approach has a significant added value over quantitative studies on this subject, which could have only explained what the influence is, and not how. Furthermore, the qualitative approach enabled the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of job crafting activities within Philips Design. However, only semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire may not have been enough to capture a rich and unconscious phenomenon as organizational culture. Nevertheless, the time span of this research and the
fact that it is a thesis and there is no room for executing a longitudinal study, fully engaging in and understanding of an organizational culture would have been impossible. The research tried to measure the organizational culture in two different ways in order to gain an as rich description of the culture as possible. This could have been improved by increasing the number of respondents on the OCAI, on the other hand (Schein, 1992) argues that group interviews work better when describing the organizational culture. Therefore a group interview about the organizational culture would have built up a better picture of the organizational culture, however this could have increased the amount of socially desirable answers.

This study followed a deductive approach since job crafting and organizational culture are well-known phenomena. However, no literature is found on the relationship between organizational culture and job crafting. Some empirical research on job crafting and organizational features has been found which suggested that there might possibly an influence of organizational culture on job crafting. Therefore the research made some assumptions about this relationship in chapter 2.3. It was hard to derive assumptions from existing literature, since no evidence was found after an elaborate literature study. However, future research could build upon the results of this study to gain a better understanding of the relationship.

6.2 Role of the researcher

Semi-structured interviews have been used in order to collect data. Due to some theoretical and methodological difficulties, the researcher found it sometimes necessary to steer interviewees in the ‘right direction’ because interviewees sometimes found it difficult to understand a question or phenomenon. Probing helped the interviewees to come up with stories or examples. For instance when interviewees found it difficult to explain how they perceive the influence of organizational culture on cognitive crafting processes. As a consequence, the role of the researcher should be accounted for when assessing the quality of this study. The interviewer did not always follow the interview protocol exactly. For example, in the last interview with respondent 9, the interviewer forgot to discuss the confidentiality issues. The interviewer realised this during the interview (after approximately 5-10 minutes) and discussed these issues. This could have affected the respondent’s description of organizational culture, however the description matched with descriptions of other respondents. Semi-structured interviews might influence interviewees to come up with social desirable answers (Symon & Cassel, 2012). However, since the respondents knew that there is
no supervisor from Philips involved in this research, the possibility of social desirable answers is minimized.

Furthermore, in qualitative research the researcher’s role is existent, the data are mediated through the researcher’s perspective, therefore it is necessary for qualitative researchers to describe their epistemological conviction (Greenbank, 2003). The researcher has subjectivist assumptions, which means that the researcher believes that reality and what we perceive as knowledge are socially constructed. As a consequence for this research, the researcher believed that there is no fixed or external organizational culture out there which could be qualified as the true culture, therefore the researcher kept looking for narratives that constructed an image of the organizational culture. Since there is no objective truth in subjectivist assumptions, quantitative instruments like the OCAI are not considered as useful as qualitative narratives of respondents. Therefore the subjectivist assumptions of the researcher could have placed more emphasis on the qualitative interviews instead of on the results of the OCAI.

6.3 Theoretical choices

Organizational culture is described by the competing value framework of Cameron and Quinn (2006), the authors developed the OCAI which is a tool for measuring organizational culture. The OCAI is assessed as a valid and reliable measure for measuring organizational culture (Yeang, Brockbank & Ulrich, 1991; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). However, the construction of the questionnaire of the OCAI is questionable. Questions should not be interpretable in more than one way, statements should be formulated neutrally (Baarda & De Goede, 2000; Swanborn, 2002). The statements in the OCAI are quite long and are interpretable in different ways. Besides, the used language might be difficult to understand. As already suggested in the literature, it is not possible to measure a complex concept like organizational culture in a quantitative way. Therefore this research mainly focused on measuring organizational culture in a qualitative way.

6.4 Recommendations

This is one of the first researches that tries to explore the knowledge gap addressed by Berg et al. (2013), namely how organizational culture influence job crafting. This study has looked at how job crafting processes take place in practice and how they are influenced by the organizational culture of Philips Design. Therefore it contributed to existing literature by providing insights in ways that a market culture could influence job crafting of employees.
Market cultures promote job crafting activities that lead to better results, it would be interesting to see how this differs from other organizational cultures. Traditional theories on job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) assumed that every employee in every work context is able to engage in job crafting. However, this research showed that job crafting processes are influenced by organizational culture. The organizational culture could, together with other organizational features, provide a fundamental base for job crafting. Future research could use this study to develop hypotheses and test these quantitatively in order to generalize the findings of this research.

In line with research of Demerouti (2014), employees of Philips Design did not only engage in job crafting activities for their own personal wellbeing, they also tried to engage in task crafting processes that result in better organizational performance. Employees tried to keep the organizational goals in mind when selecting tasks and projects. However, in this research, the employees also engaged in relational crafting activities that contribute to organizational performance. The employees of Philips Design built relationships in order to develop new projects or ideas which contributed to organizational performance. More research on relational crafting initiatives that contribute to the organization could inspire organizations to foster relational crafting.

Although the main objective of this research was to contribute to the existing literature on job crafting, several recommendations for practice could be made. First, the management of an organization could use the results of this study to stimulate job crafting. Organizations should do this because job crafting could increase job satisfaction, motivation and performance of their employees (Grant, 2007; Rosso et al., 2010) and job crafting contributes to organizational effectiveness (Tims et al., 2010). Thus, the organization benefits from job crafting as well. Furthermore, the respondents of this research showed that employees also craft their jobs to adapt it to the needs of the organization. Employees of Philips Design did not only engage in job crafting activities to match the job to their own personal needs, the employees also took the interests of the organization into account. As shown, in a market culture like Philips Design, employees are willing to engage in job crafting processes in order to perform better. The employees of Philips Design experienced a lot of freedom in their job, which contributed to their job crafting behaviour. Therefore it is recommended that other market cultures should give their employees freedom in their job design. When they do not, employees might be scared off by the management and the competitiveness to engage in job crafting activities.
Second, employees could have gain insight from this research on how job crafting could increase their job satisfaction and what the other positive outcomes of job crafting are. Employees should be conscious that they are able to craft their own jobs and look for employers that stimulate these bottom-up initiatives since job crafting is related to numerous advantages (Berg et al., 2013). Besides, since the open working atmosphere among direct colleagues at Philips Design stimulated job crafting, employees and managers should stimulate each other to build such a working atmosphere.

This research opens plenty of interesting opportunities for more research on the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. However, this research was only able to focus on one type of culture, namely the market culture. As a consequence, the influences of the other three typologies of organizational culture have not been explored yet. It would be very interesting for future research to execute a multiple case study in which all of the organizational culture typologies would be related to job crafting. Such a study would make it possible to build up a better and more complete picture of the influence of organizational culture on job crafting. The research could use the insights and results of this study to form hypotheses which could be tested in a quantitative approach. However, it is recommended to also conduct a qualitative research because the narratives and interpretations of employees are important when exploring the relationship and really contribute to a better understanding. Therefore the multiple case study should use a mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative research and quantitative research.
References


Labuschagne, A. (2003). Qualitative research - airy fairy or fundamental? *Qualitative Report, 8*(8). Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280983328_Qualitative_research_-_airy_fairy_or_fundamental


Appendices

Appendix 1 Interview guide

Interview guide

Hallo, ik ben Lo van den Broek, ik ben een master student Bedrijfskunde aan de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen. Allereerst wil ik u bedanken voor uw deelname aan dit interview. Dit interview is een onderdeel van mijn master thesis, hiervoor doe ik een onderzoek naar de rol van organisatiecultuur op ‘job crafting’. Er bestaat geen Nederlandse term voor ‘job crafting’, kort gezegd gaat dit over veranderingen die medewerkers zelf aanbrengen in hun werk, dit zou een medewerker bijvoorbeeld kunnen doen om het werk meer zinvol, eigen of uitdagend te maken. Iemand kan bijvoorbeeld meer taken toevoegen aan zijn of haar baan (extra projecten, organiseren van bedrijfsuitjes), extra ondersteuning aan een collega of cliënt, of het anders gaan denken over bepaalde taken of werkrelaties. De organisatiecultuur kan worden omschreven als de waarden, normen en veronderstellingen die binnen Philips gedeeld worden. Zoals gezegd gaat het onderzoek over de rol van organisatiecultuur in het activeren of beperken van ‘job crafting’. Met het afnemen van dit interview wil ik graag leren hoe u de dingen hierover ziet en hoe u zich hierbij voelt.

Ik zou graag een audio-opname van dit interview willen maken, zodat ik het na afloop uit kan schrijven voor de data-analyse. Alles wat tijden dit interview zal vertrouwelijk behandeld worden, alleen ik en mijn begeleiders vanuit de Radboud Universiteit hebben toegang tot de inhoud van dit interview. Alle namen en andere verwijsbare informatie zullen worden geanonimiseerd in de uitwerking van het interview en in het uiteindelijke onderzoeksverslag. Ik verwacht dat het interview ongeveer een uur zal duren, als er iets niet duidelijk is dan kunt u ten alle tijden om extra uitleg vragen. Neem daarnaast ook gerust de tijd om na te denken voordat u antwoord. We zullen beginnen met wat algemene vragen over u en uw functie binnen Philips. Vervolgens zullen we dieper ingaan over ‘job crafting’ en tot slot behandelen we samen de organisatiecultuur. Heeft u nog vragen voordat we beginnen?

Persoon en functie (achteraf invullen)

a. Hoelang ben je al werkzaam bij Philips:

b. Hoelang ben je al werkzaam binnen deze functie bij Philips:

1. Algemeen
a. Wat is uw huidige functie binnen Philips? Wat houdt deze functie in?
b. Waarvoor heeft Philips u aangenomen?
c. Wat is er veranderd sinds u begon aan deze baan?
d. Hoe ziet een doorsnee werkdag eruit?
e. Op wat voor manier heeft u uw baan eigen gemaakt? (aangepast naar wensen, wat wilde u hiermee bereiken)

2. Job crafting – Task crafting
Organisaties geven werknemers verantwoordelijkheden met betrekking tot de taken die een werknemer moet verrichten. Soms geven werknemers zichzelf verantwoordelijkheden.
Hebt u dit wel eens in uw baan gedaan?
Als u dat heeft gedaan, zou u kunnen vertellen hoe u dat heeft gedaan?
Heeft u taken toegevoegd aan uw takenpakket die in eerste instantie niet waren beschreven in uw officiële functieomschrijving? Waarom heeft u dit gedaan?
Heeft u ook weleens taken verwijderd? Waarom?
Zijn er bepaalde taken waar u meer of minder nadruk (tijd, energie en aandacht) op legt?
Waarom en hoe is dit zo gekomen?
Hoe geeft u uw eigen draai aan uw takenpakket?

2. Job crafting – Relational crafting
Hoe bouwt u nieuwe relaties op tijdens uw werk?
Hoe is de natuur en inhoud van interacties en relaties veranderd op uw werk?
Waarom is dit gebeurd?
Kijkt u nu anders naar bepaalde relaties dan u vroeger deed? Hoe en wat is het verschil?

2. Job crafting – Cognitive crafting:
Stel dat je op een verjaardag bent en je moet iemand uitleggen wat voor werk je doet, hoe zou je dit uitleggen?
Bent u anders gaan denken over uw werk?
Hoe kijkt u naar het uiteindelijke doel of de impact van uw baan?
Waar ligt uw focus op in uw werk? (waardevolle en positieve aspecten of negatieve aspecten)
Wat is de link tussen de specifieke taken en relaties op uw werk en uw verschillende interesses of aspecten van uw persoonlijkheid?

3. Organizational Culture

Hoe zou je Philips als bedrijf omschrijven?
Hoe zou u de cultuur van Philips beschrijven?
Wat zijn de belangrijkste waarden en normen binnen Philips?
Wat voor invloed heeft de organisatiecultuur op u als persoon?
Wat voor invloed zou de cultuur van Philips kunnen hebben op uw job crafting gedrag?

Ik wil u hartelijk bedanken voor de tijd die u genomen hebt om al mijn vragen te beantwoorden tijdens dit interview. Heeft u zelf nog vragen of opmerkingen? Wat vond u van het interview?
Ik ga het interview transcriberen en daarna zal ik u het transcript toesturen. Als u wilt dan kunt u het nogmaals doorlezen en als u opmerkingen, aanvullingen of andere feedback hebt dan kunt u altijd contact met mij opnemen. Nogmaals enorm bedankt en u kunt altijd contact met mij opnemen!
### Appendix 2 Organizational Culture Assessment Tool (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p.26-29)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Dominant Characteristics</th>
<th>Now</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The organization is very results-oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement-oriented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total | 100 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Organizational Leadership</th>
<th>Now</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovation, or risk taking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total | 100 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Management of Employees</th>
<th>Now</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total | 100 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Organization Glue</th>
<th>Now</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<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>C</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total | 100 |
5. Strategic Emphases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Now</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 100

6. Criteria of Success

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Now</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 100
## Appendix 3 Operationalization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job crafting</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Berg et al., 2013)</td>
<td>Task crafting</td>
<td>Adding tasks</td>
<td>Can you describe in which way you add certain tasks to your ‘package of tasks’, that were not described in your formal job description? (What motivates you to do so? example)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Emphasizing tasks</td>
<td>Do you put more emphasis (time, energy and attention) on certain tasks? Can you explain why you put more emphasis on these tasks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Redesigning tasks</td>
<td>How do you give your own twist to certain tasks? How do you adapt or redesign certain tasks? (Can you explain why and give an example?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relational crafting</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Building relationships</td>
<td>Can you describe in which way you build new relationships in your work?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reframing relationships</td>
<td>Can you describe in which way you change (reframe) the nature and content of interactions and relationships at your work? What motivates you to do so?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive crafting</td>
<td>Adapting relationships</td>
<td>Can you describe in which way you change (or adapt) certain already existing relationships in your work? What motivates you to do so?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expanding perceptions</td>
<td>Cognitive crafting</td>
<td>Can you describe in which way you look at the ultimate purpose or impact of your job? (what your work contributes)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing perceptions</td>
<td>Focusing perceptions</td>
<td>In which way do you focus on the significant’ (valuable) and ‘positive’ aspects of your work instead of the less positive aspects?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking perceptions</td>
<td>Linking perceptions</td>
<td>In which way do you see a link between specific tasks and relationships at your work and certain specific interests or aspects of your identity?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Organizational culture** *(Cameron & Quinn, 2006)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational features</th>
<th>Dominant characteristics</th>
<th>How would you describe Philips? (Open/personal, dynamic, competitive/achievement oriented, controlled/structured)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization glue</td>
<td></td>
<td>What is the glue that holds the organization together? (loyalty, innovation, goals, formal rules)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management of employees</td>
<td></td>
<td>What characterizes the management style within Philips?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Organizational culture** *(Cameron & Quinn, 2006)*
<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational leadership</strong></td>
<td>How do you experience leadership in the organization? (Mentoring, entrepreneurial, result-oriented, organizing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategy</strong></td>
<td>How would you describe Philips’ strategy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Criteria of success</strong></td>
<td>Where are criteria of success within Philips derived from? (Development, innovation, winning marketplace, efficiency)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4: Initial template

1. Job crafting
   1.1. Task crafting
      1.1.1. Adding tasks
      1.1.2. Dropping tasks
      1.1.3. Emphasizing tasks
      1.1.4. Redesigning tasks
   1.2. Relational crafting
      1.2.1. Building relationships
      1.2.2. Altering extent of existing relationships
      1.2.3. Reframing relationships
      1.2.4. Adapting relationships
   1.3. Cognitive crafting
      1.3.1. Expanding perceptions
      1.3.2. Focusing perceptions
      1.3.3. Linking perceptions

2. Organizational culture
   2.1. The hierarchy culture
      2.1.1. The organization is tightly managed and structured, formal procedures
gen-erally govern what people do
      2.1.2. Leadership in the organization is considered to exemplify coordinating,
organizing, or smooth-running efficiency
      2.1.3. The management style in the organization is characterized by security of
employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships
      2.1.4. Emphasis on formal rules and policies, efficiency, control and smooth
operations
      2.1.5. Success is defined by efficiency, dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and
low-cost production
   2.2. The market culture
      2.2.1. The organization is very results oriented, people are very competitive and
achievement oriented
      2.2.2. Leadership in the organization is considered to exemplify a no-nonsense,
aggressive, results-oriented focus
2.2.3. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement
2.2.4. Emphasis on achievement, competitive actions and goal accomplishment
2.2.5. Success is defined by winning the marketplace and outpacing the competition

2.3. The clan culture
2.3.1. The organization is a very personal place
2.3.2. The leadership in the organization is considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating or nurturing
2.3.3. The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus and participation
2.3.4. Loyalty, mutual trust and commitment in the organization is high
2.3.5. Success is defined by development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people

2.4. The adhocracy culture
2.4.1. The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place
2.4.2. Leadership in the organisation promotes entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking
2.4.3. The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom and uniqueness
2.4.4. Commitment to innovation and development
2.4.5. Emphasis on acquiring new resources and creating new challenges
2.4.6. Success is defined by having the most unique or newest products. The organization is a product leader and innovator

3. How organizational culture influence job crafting processes
3.1. Perceived cultural challenges for job crafting
3.2. Perceived cultural facilitators for job crafting
Appendix 5: Final template

1. Job crafting
   1.1. Task crafting
      1.1.1. Adding task
      1.1.2. Dropping tasks
      1.1.3. Emphasizing tasks
      1.1.4. Redesigning tasks
   1.2. Relational crafting
      1.2.1. Building relationships
      1.2.2. Reframing relationships
      1.2.3. Adapting relationships
   1.3. Cognitive crafting
      1.3.1. Expanding perceptions
      1.3.2. Focusing perceptions
      1.3.3. Linking perceptions

2. Organizational culture
   2.1. Market culture
      2.1.1. The organization is very results oriented, people are very competitive and achievement oriented
      2.1.2. Leadership in the organization is considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus
      2.1.3. The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement
      2.1.4. Emphasis on achievement, competitive actions and goal accomplishment
      2.1.5. Success is defined by winning the marketplace and outpacing the competition
      2.1.6. Urge to prove yourself
   2.2. Open culture
      2.2.1. Open culture among employees
      2.2.2. Inclusive
      2.2.3. Progressive
   2.3. Working atmosphere
      2.3.1. Mixed working atmosphere
2.3.2. Open working atmosphere between colleagues
2.3.3. Politics
2.3.4. Gap between management and employees

3. How organizational culture influences job crafting processes
   3.1. Perceived cultural facilitator of job crafting
   3.2. Perceived cultural challenger of job crafting
Appendix 6: (coded) Interview transcripts

This appendix is not visible due to confidentiality.
Appendix 7 Results of the OCAI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>AVERAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>13,3</td>
<td>43,3</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td>38,3</td>
<td>20,8</td>
<td>26,7</td>
<td>13,3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21,7</td>
<td>25,45555556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>26,7</td>
<td>36,7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>38,3</td>
<td>30,8</td>
<td>31,6</td>
<td>52,5</td>
<td>41,7</td>
<td>18,3</td>
<td>33,51111111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>41,7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31,7</td>
<td>8,4</td>
<td>34,2</td>
<td>21,7</td>
<td>26,7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18,3</td>
<td>23,07777778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>18,3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26,6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14,2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7,5</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>41,7</td>
<td>17,95555556</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sum of every answer category is summed up and divided by six, for instance, all respondent 1 answer’s A are summed up and divided by six which results in 13.3. Afterwards the means of all respondents per answer category are taken and indicated below average.
Appendix 8: Communication with respondents

This appendix is not visible due to confidentiality.