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**Telling Stories: the Link Between Organisational Identity, Culture
and Employee Advocacy**

Zinkstein, K.I.

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UNIVERSITY OF WESTMINSTER

**TELLING STORIES:
THE LINK BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL IDENTITY, CULTURE AND
EMPLOYEE ADVOCACY**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of
Westminster for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

July 2018

Westminster Business School

Abstract

Employees who represent the firm to outsiders are a possible advantage of an organisation in the war for talents. Therefore, Employee Advocacy has been identified as important concept. The thesis aims to understand what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. As important factors existing research has identified identification, loyalty, satisfaction and commitment. The thesis aims to explore these antecedents with their link to organisational factors, such as organisational identity and organisational culture.

An ethnographic approach was chosen that included 33 semi-structured interviews, 48 narratives and an auto-ethnographic account of the experience at one subsidiary of a large German organisation founded fifteen years before the study took place. The interviews were analysed with grounded theory. The narratives went through a thematic analysis based on dimensions that were developed after the literature research: *Actor*, *Connection*, *Relationship*, and *Value*.

The findings showed that an identity of entrepreneurial thinking manifested in customer orientation and pragmatism helps loyalty, an identity of caring that manifests in cohesion and comfort helps satisfaction, and an identity of success by unruliness that manifests in risk-taking and freedom helps identification. If all these are present advocacy is the highest. Furthermore, the findings showed that the meta-themes: *Enfant Terrible*, *Avant-Garde*, *Extra Mile*, *Family Cocoon* and *Biedermeier*, generated with the thematic analysis, describe various phases of one grand story: The new conceptualization of the Organisational Life Story was developed. Within the story, the organisational identity that manifests in the organisational culture changes from one phase to the other and thus changes the Employee Advocacy. Seeing Employee Advocacy as dynamic concept dependent on organisational development is the new and unique contribution of this research project. This means that for Employee Advocacy past, present and future of the organisation are equally important.

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to thank the Bosch Engineering GmbH for supporting my research and providing such a fruitful research environment. I would also like to thank the interviewees for their openness and their stories.

I would like to give a lot of thanks to my supervisor team. Dr. Lorna Stevens is a great academic, and I am so glad to have had her on my side all the way. In all the years of this project she was always generous with her time, supportive, encouraging and creative with her comments. Like a sister in spirit she always knew where I wanted to go with my thoughts however unformed they were. Other huge thanks go to Dr. Manto Gotsi who came in at just the right moment. I would like to especially thank her sharp mind that spotted the weak points of my arguments and also thank her for her encouraging comments; forcing me to rethink my work, which really helped to improve the thesis.

I would like to thank, Prof. Dr. Andreas Baetzgen, who helped me in the earliest stages of my PhD to sort my thoughts, and Prof. Dr. Oliver Zöllner who first brought me to the idea of doing a PhD. I would like to thank Philippa Beckman who did a great job in proofreading. Thanks also go to the other doctoral students at Westminster for the fruitful exchanges at workshops and other events.

I give the biggest thanks to my parents: To my father who has always been an example for me. I thank him for his constant encouragement to learn and keep on learning. Some even bigger thanks go to my Mom for the super-power of building me up every time I am down and her kindness and patience with me. And both my parents for their unconditional love. Other thanks go to the rest of my family who are a constant source of great company and amusement.

My friends also deserve huge thanks for their support and company along the way; especially my friend Eva for being a great sparring partner for ideas and providing me with fantastic food for over 10 years now. Finally, my greatest thanks go to my partner, Chris. I never met someone in my whole life that had such an unwavering belief in me and my abilities. From the bottom of my heart I thank him for his encouragement, love and impelling support without which this thesis would almost certainly not have been completed. I love you!

Author's declaration

I declare that all the material contained in this thesis is my own work.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'K. Zinkstein', is written on a light yellow rectangular background.

Katja Iris Zinkstein

Other Academic Output

Journal Article

Zinkstein, K., Stevens, L. (2018): Incorporating the wisdom of brand narratives to encourage a broader view on organizational narratives – a conceptual paper. *Manuscript submitted for publication.*

Conferences

Zinkstein, K., Stevens, L. (2018). The Organisational Life Cycle Narrative: A Conceptual Content Analysis of Organizational Stories. *Eighteenth International Conference on Knowledge, Culture, and Change in Organizations*, University of Konstanz, Konstanz, Germany, Unpublished conference paper, 15th-16th March 2018.

Zinkstein, K. (2017). Get your stories straight – A comparative Analysis of Organisational Stories and Brand Narratives. *Proceedings of the British Academy of Management Conference 2017*, University of Warwick, Warwick, 6th-8th September 2017.

Awarded with the Best Developmental Paper Award within the Organizational Studies Track.

Zinkstein, K. (2017). The Impact of Narratives about Organisational Culture on Employee Brand Advocacy. Presented on the *2017 WBS Annual Doctoral colloquium*, University of Westminster, London, UK, on 10th May 2017.

Poster Presentation

Zinkstein, K. (2015). How organisational Culture enhances Brand Embassy. Poster presented at the *University of the West of Scotland Research Student Conference 2015*, Glasgow, UK, on 29th April 2015.

Awarded as Best Poster within the School of Business and Enterprise.

This thesis
is dedicated to
Chris

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Glossary

AOC	Attitudinal Organisational Commitment
BCG	Boston Consulting Group
BEG	Bosch Engineering GmbH
BMW	Bayrische Motorenwerke
CC	Chassis Control
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
D	Director
E	Employee
Ed. / Eds.	Editor / Editors
EmpAt	Employer Attractiveness
G	Group Lead
GE	General Electrics
GmbH	Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung
HR	Human Resources
IBM	International Business Machines
IT	Information Technology
L	Leading Director
Ltd.	Limited
Min.	Minutes
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
P	President
p.	page
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
pp.	pages
PWC	Price Waterhouse Cooper
RSA	Royal Society of Arts
TV	Television
WOM	Word-of-Mouth
U.S.	United States
USA	United States of America
USD	US Dollar

1 The relevance of Employee Advocacy

1.1 Introduction

“With physical and financial capital having been replaced by human capital as the economy’s driving force, the knowledge, skills and experience of people have become this country’s scarce resource.” Lowell Milken (LowellMilken.com, Ed., 2018)

The years of high unemployment rates are over and soon the job market will reach a turning point. Several studies predict a shortage of skilled workers in the upcoming years (PWC, Ed., 2017; Bundesagentur für Arbeit Statistik/Arbeitsmarktberichterstattung, 2017), due to a number of factors. The first of these is declining birth rates (Central Intelligence Agency, Ed., 2017), which account for demographic changes and an ageing of the population (Bundeszentrale für Politische Bildung, Ed., 2016). Secondly, a more complex society requires higher vocational training as well as entrepreneurial skills, technological literacy and multicultural fluency (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, and Michaels, 2007).

Another important factor is increasing mobility, where workers are no longer bound to one place (Beechler and Woodward, 2009). Countries like Germany suffer a brain drain; a negative balance between workers who come to the country and those who leave (The Local, Ed., 2014). The reasons for leaving are diverse: Often higher salaries, more appreciation (Ettel, 2010), better career chances and more comfortable working conditions such as shorter working hours (Steffen, 2004), are the motivators to emigrate from Germany (The Local, Ed., 2014). Moreover, talents with a particular set of competencies also have certain demands: Besides comfortable working conditions, they also want tasks and a culture with responsibility allowing them to make decisions on their own (Fishman, 2017). Interestingly, these motivations for departure are mostly factors that can be linked to organisational culture: If the demands are not met, young workers are not willing to stay and they move on. Recent statistics show that the average tenure in one company has declined over the years. Especially with young workers under 30 years the tenure in one firm became unsteady and declined by 22% over the last twenty years (Rhein and Stüber, 2014). This shows that especially in the first phase of working life, there is increased instability in terms of work.

According to Harvey (2013), 28% of the workers interviewed in their study admitted they had been approached by head-hunters, showing that the war for talent is on. The term ‘war for talent’ was first mentioned in 1997 by Steven Hankin of McKinsey and refers to a highly competitive environment in recruiting (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, and Axelrod, 2001). Chambers et al. (2007, p. 1) confirm: “Better talent is worth fighting for”. ‘Talent’ is here defined as the combination of competence (knowledge, skills and values), commitment (willingness to work hard), and contribution (hand out a valuable asset to the organisation) (Wieseke, Ulrich, Christ and Van Dick, 2007). Beechler and Woodward (2009) define the war for talent as the drive to find, develop and retain such people.

One solution to the recruitment war has often been attempted: When facing an oversupply of goods branding has been perceived as a valid solution to these kinds of problems. But Employer Branding campaigns can fail to bring the essence of the organisation and the reality of it to the possible job candidates. Employees who are willing to represent the organisation as an advocate and talk positively about it, seem to be a more valid solution (Henkel, Tomczak, Heitmann, and Herrmann, 2007; Gilly and Wolfenbarger, 1998). *But what motivates employees to be advocates for the firm*, is one central question that this research project tries to answer.



Figure 1: Concept of Employee Advocacy in this thesis.

Figure 1 describes how Employee Advocacy is conceptualized in this research project: Organisational factors, such as organisational identity and organisational culture influence the antecedents of Employee Advocacy, identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty; these in turn influence Employee Advocacy, which is conceptualized as the acts of employees who recommend the benefits of an organisation to their external environment or social context (Tsarenko, Leo and Tse, 2018). Employee Advocacy has not been researched in depth so far, but there are two similar concepts that cover some components of Employee Advoc-

cacy: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Word-of-Mouth. These two behavioural components have the following psychosocial, attitudinal constructs as their basis: Identification (Williams and Anderson, 1991); commitment (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006); loyalty (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachran, 2000); and job satisfaction (Saifi and Shahzad, 2017). So, identification, commitment, loyalty and job satisfaction can be seen as the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. However, these have only been researched in terms of Word-of-Mouth and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Tsarenko et al., 2018).

In current literature, there is no research on, how identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty influence Employee Advocacy, neither is there research on what organisational factors influence the antecedents. The antecedents have only been researched in terms of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, but this research is insufficient because being an advocate is only one aspect of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; it has many more aspects, such as following the rules. However, there is no differentiated research about the antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour that only relates to advocating. Word-of-Mouth, the other concept similar to Employee Advocacy, has currently mostly been researched in the marketing context. There is only scarce research in organisational contexts that rather looks at the outcomes of Word-of-Mouth than the antecedents (identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty). Looking in turn at other influencing factors of OCB and WOM, such as job-related, external, cultural, individual and organisational factors, there is also no clear picture. These have only been looked at in isolation, such as the influence of recognition or job security and not from a holistic perspective that also takes their relation to the antecedents into account. A conceptual study that researches organisational and cultural factors jointly is needed. Only by holistically looking at all the antecedents Employee Advocacy can be truly understood. This thesis seeks to link the three stages in a combined process from organisational identity and organisational culture to identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty to Employee Advocacy.

1.2 The research aim and objectives

From an organisational perspective, there are two important constructs, organisational culture and organisational identity. There are numbers of cultural research studies about typologies, dimensions and manifestations (Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983; Schein, 2010; O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, and Sanders, 1990; Schneider, 1999) in an attempt to make culture more tangible. Organisational identity is important for the research topic because it encompasses the essence of an organisation, and its members have to have a shared understanding of it (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Gioia et al., 2000; Corley and Gioia, 2003). These understandings, both of culture and of identity, often are reached in sense-making processes (Stensaker, 2004; Hatch and Schultz, 1997). Here, narratives are the key instrument enabling sense-making within organisations (Abma, 2000). Understanding the influence of the two constructs - organisational identity and organisational culture - on the antecedents of Employee Advocacy with the use of narratives will help to harness the full power of Employee Advocacy within organisations. The research effort here is to understand how organisational identity and culture are linked to the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. The stories are the looking glass to access these conceptualizations.

The overall aim is to understand what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. This means to explore how organisational culture and organisational identity are linked to Employee Advocacy by affecting its antecedents. The research objectives here are:

1. Explore the direct link between the antecedents of Employee Advocacy (identification, satisfaction, and loyalty) and Employee Advocacy itself.
2. Understand how organisational culture and organisational identity link to the antecedents (identification, satisfaction, and loyalty).
3. Access the deeper perceptions employees have about the organisational culture and identity via stories.
4. Contribute to the methodological knowledge of narrative and ethnographic analysis in organisations.

This research project seeks to explore the relationship between organisational culture, organisational identity and Employee Advocacy to answer the question

what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. Thereby it is important to focus on its antecedents, identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty and how these can form a link between the organisation and the employee.

1.3 Research approach



Figure 2: Research approach in this research project.

The research approach follows the qualitative and interpretative principles. Figure 2 shows the research philosophy, strategy and methodology. The interpretivist philosophy was followed due to the nature of the research questions. As a research strategy ethnography was chosen. Since narratives play an important part in the research project, the concepts of narrative inquiry were used in order to gather as many narratives as possible. For the data analysis, Constructivist Grounded Theory and Thematic Analysis were considered to be the most appropriate methods.

In Interpretivism, which is the chosen ontology for this research project, reality is socially construed and can change over time. It is a product of the mind (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) and there are multiple views on reality (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). This is suitable for the research project because the research question revolves around underlying motivations and has attitudinal as well as behavioural aspects. Interpretivism finds application in the methodologies ethnography and narrative inquiry.

Following the interpretivist rationale, ethnography believes that the social world consists of multiple perspectives and multiple selves (Bell, 1999). Understanding

of this social world can only be gained by understanding the shared values, behaviours and beliefs of a culture (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape, 2014). Here, data collection happens in a natural setting (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007). Auto-ethnography is usually written in the first-person and can take the form of poetry, short stories or essays (Ellis and Bochner, 2000). This strategy was chosen in order to understand culture, whereby it is important to be part of this culture to some extent. The second strategy, narrative inquiry, delves into the most important moments in the participants' lives. However, almost any question can provoke a narrative (Kohler-Riesmann, 1993). This research project follows Labov's (1972) minimum definition of narratives: Narratives need only two parts - a complication, which is an event out of the ordinary, and a resolution bringing the complication to an end - in a bad, good or neutral way.

Both strategies ethnography and narrative inquiry were used in combination with a grounded theory approach. Grounded theory in ethnography pays attention to the phenomenon rather than the setting (Charmaz and Mitchell, 2001). In Grounded theory, data comes before the theory; it is an inductive approach which helps describe causal issues (Allan, 2007). The constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006), which is applied in this research project, follows the assumption that meaning is constructed by both the researcher and the participants in a mutual process during the data collection. In this research project, prior research also came into place when it came to the narratives. Here, a thematic analysis took place as a method that develops a thematic structure grounded in theory. The theory-driven thematic analysis compares prior data and research to the data and forms themes and patterns from them. The codes are developed based on the context of the theory that was read before.

Narratives are the single most important form of human communication. In organisations narratives not only help to transfer knowledge (Khalid and Mahmud, 2008), create a shared system of values (Boyce, 1996), and make sense of past events (Abma, 2000); they also help in understanding the culture (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). In the interviews that were taken within this research project a lot of narratives appeared; some gathered on purpose by invitations such as "tell me a story how you..."; some just emerged within the conversation. In the analysis, it became clear that the narratives were especially fruitful for insights

into the organisational culture and identity of the researched organisation which is introduced in the next chapter.

1.4 A longitudinal study on the site of one organisation

This research project is a longitudinal study that ethnographically researches one organisation in-depth: The Bosch Engineering GmbH; a subsidiary of the Bosch Group. The Robert Bosch GmbH, founded in 1886, is a multi-national company with 440 subsidiaries in 60 countries and 125 engineering locations. In 2017 the Bosch Corporation had a revenue in sales of 78.1 billion Euro in Sales and 7.3 billion Euro earnings. The corporation has roughly 402,000 associates worldwide (Robert Bosch GmbH, Ed., 2017). It consists of four big business units in the fields; mobility solutions, industrial technology, consumer goods and energy and building technology. The founder, Robert Bosch, is known for his employee-friendly policies and his high-value standards, as shown by quotations such as “I would rather lose money than trust” (Robert Bosch GmbH, Ed., 2018). These values have been held high to this day.

The Bosch Engineering GmbH is a 100% subsidiary of the Robert Bosch GmbH, established to realize small customized projects in the automotive sector which could not be covered by the parent company. Starting with passenger cars, the company soon expanded to rail cars, maritime applications and off-highway vehicles. It was founded in 1999 and has been very successful in the fifteen years of its existence, growing from 13 to over 2,000 employees. Its values, structures and strategy are shared with the parent company and it additionally has its own cultural and identity-related aspects. Its website advertises both its customer projects and its values. “Values such as fairness, reliability, responsibility and initiative are not merely something we talk about on paper, that’s why our associates identify with the company, with 92% saying they are proud to work at Bosch” (Bosch Engineering GmbH, Ed., 2018b). Customer orientation is one such value apparent in the mission statement, stating that passion and performance are the most important things: “We measure ourselves on the customer’s satisfaction and success” (Bosch Engineering GmbH, Ed., 2018b).

This research project is an ethnographic study of one organisation from the perspective of an insider. I stayed at the organisation for four years; three as a doctoral researcher. The interviews at the core of this research took place over an

eight-month period, but the observation of the culture took place the whole time and enabled a deep understanding of the culture and identity of the organisation.

1.5 Structure and content of the thesis

Figure 3 shows the structure of the thesis. It is divided into three main sections: the literature review, the methodology and the empirical findings bordered by introduction and conclusion. The literature review consists of the second, third and fourth chapter. In the second chapter Employee Advocacy, is derived from the literature, starting with employer branding as an inadequate solution for the problem and directing the focus onto the employees as advocates. Here, two important concepts Word-of-Mouth and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour give an indication of the antecedents of Employee Advocacy: identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. This leads up to the third chapter, which outlines the two most important constructs for the thesis: organisational culture and organisational identity as organisational factors influencing the antecedents. The last chapter of the literature review outlines the importance of narratives as conversational currency in organisational life and the looking glass through which the rich facets of organisational culture and the essences of organisational identity can be accessed.

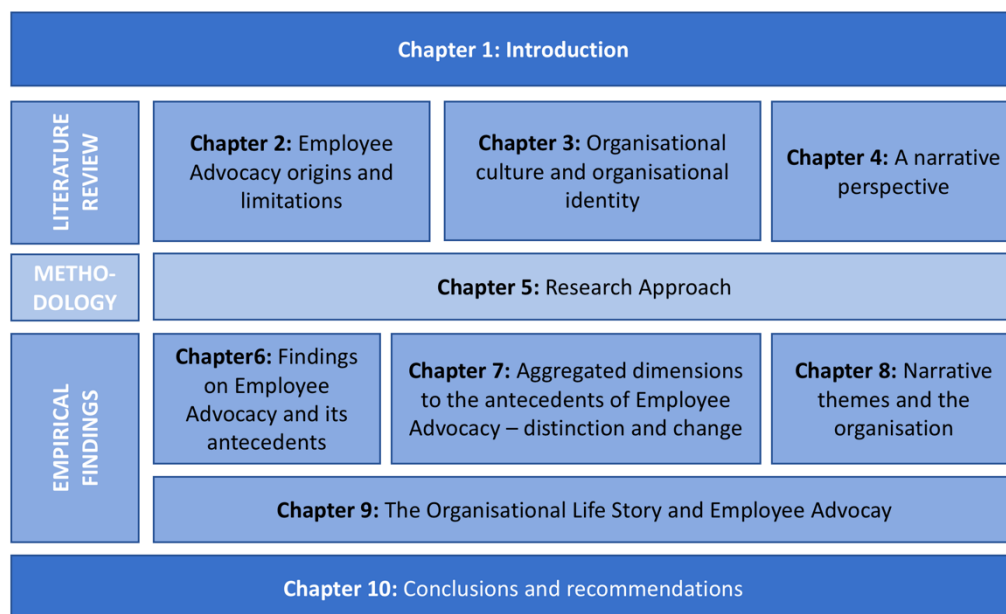


Figure 3: Structure of the thesis.

Chapter 5, the methodology, sheds some light on the methodological proceedings of the empirical work. It shows the research philosophies as well as the strategies applied in this research project: Ethnography, grounded theory and thematic and narrative analysis. The research methodology, data gathering and analysis are also important parts of the chapter.

The empirical part of the thesis consists of five chapters. It starts with the findings of grounded theory on identification, satisfaction, and loyalty, then points out the axial interlinkages of these categories: Distinction and change and proceeds with a thematic analysis of the 48 narratives that were gathered within the interviews. These provide particularly rich findings leading up to the conceptual metaphor; the Organisational Life Story, which is described in chapter 9. The thesis ends with the conclusion in chapter 10.

2 Employee Advocacy origins and limitations

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, Employee Advocacy as a possible solution for the war for talent is described. The chapter begins by presenting employer branding as a first-sight solution and outlines the problems that come with this. Afterwards, the importance of the employee in advertising for the employer is explained. It will become clear that internal and employee branding is not enough to create inspiring employee advocates; one must look deeper into the motives of Employee Advocacy and what they are, which is the central question of this research project. Two essential components of Employee Advocacy, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Word-of-Mouth are presented, with a special focus on the antecedents of Employee Advocacy: identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty.

2.2 Employer branding – a solution only at first sight

2.2.1 Introduction to employer branding

This chapter describes employer branding as a possible solution to the war for talent and why it fails to provide authentic insights into the organisation. Many companies find that it gets more and more difficult to find suitable candidates with the necessary qualifications to fill their positions. When the relationship between supply and demand shifts, they have to take actions in order to stay successful. Other markets, such as the 'fast moving consumer goods market', also face an oversupply. In order to deal with this, the concept of branding has developed. The American Marketing Association defined branding in 1960 as "a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Keller, 2003, p. 3). In other words, a brand sums up various meanings of a product or a company. Branding turned out to be a very successful solution to the problem of oversupply in this field. Transferring this concept onto the war for talent seemed a logical conclusion. Thus, the concept of employer branding was born.

2.2.2 *Origins of employer branding*

Employer branding was first mentioned in 1996 by Ambler and Barrows with this definition: “The employer brand is defined as the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employee’s company. [...] An employer brand has a personality, and may be positioned in much the same way as any other brand.” (Ambler and Barrows, 1996, p. 187). In early papers, the parallels between consumers branding were emphasized and theories and models were adopted (Rosengren and Boderson, 2014), such as in this definition:

“Employer branding represents a firm’s efforts to promote, both within and outside the firm, a clear view of what makes it different and desirable as an employer.” (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004, p. 501)

The definition above shows that employer branding is branding efforts applied to the organisation as an employer. When Ambler and Barrows (1996) first mentioned the concept of employer branding, they likened it to the corporate brand, with a personality and a positioning in the same way as a corporate or product brand (Ambler and Barrows, 1996). They described it as the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by the employer. Edwards (2010) sees their definition as already encompassing the complexity of the topic, but adds the differentiating factor of intangible experiences, such as working for a charity. In conclusion, the unique employment experience, which defines the employer brand, includes all tangible and intangible features of the organisation.

Broken down further, this equates to the company’s reputation seen through the eyes of job applicants (Martin and Beaumont, 2003). Mosley (2007) described as the original focus of employer branding, that an organisation should be as clear about its value proposition as an employer as it was about its value proposition of products. He even named as the purpose of employer branding to “ensure the same clarity and coherence” (Mosley, 2007, p. 130) as in customer branding. Ambler and Barrows (1996) also attributed a brand personality and the concept of positioning from corporate and consumer branding to employer branding. Rosengren and Boderson (2014) equated employer branding with employer attractiveness. In addition, Ewing, Pitt, Bussy, and Berthon (2002) stressed that the key goal of employer branding is to differentiate the organisation as an employer from its competitors. In order to find the differentiating factors, the dimensions of

attractiveness have been thoroughly examined. Berthon, Ewing, and Hah (2005, p. 156) define “‘employer attractiveness’ as the envisioned benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a specific organisation”.

2.2.3 *Dimensional concepts*

Many studies focussed on the determinants for an attractive employer brand (Edwards, 2010; Moroko and Uncles, 2008; Roy, 2008; Arachchige and Robertson, 2011; Berthon et al., 2005; Sutherland, Torricelli and Karg, 2002). Sutherland et al. (2002) identified eleven factors that make an employer attractive. The respondents picked ‘career growth’ and ‘challenging work opportunities’ as the most important (Sutherland et al., 2002). These attractiveness criteria are relevant for job choice of the potential employees: There was a correlation found between the employer brand image of the job seeker and the seeker’s intention to apply to the company (Knox and Freeman, 2006; Lievens, van Hove, and Anseel, 2007).

The EmpAt (Employer Attractiveness) scale developed by Berthon et al. (2005) involves 25 criteria and was cited and reused in many following studies (e.g. Arachchige and Robertson, 2011; Roy, 2008; Wilden, Gudergan and Lings, 2010). It is divided into five different kinds of values the employer offers to the job prospect: *Social value* (e.g. “supportive and encouraging colleagues” or “acceptance and belonging”, p. 158), *development value* (e.g. “good promotion opportunities within the organisation”, p. 158), *economic value* (e.g. “an above average basic salary” or “an attractive overall compensation package”, p. 158), *interest value* (e.g. “working in an exciting environment”, p. 158), and *application value* (e.g. that they can “apply what they have learned and to can teach others”, p.162) (Berthon et al., 2005). Other researchers identified soft and hard factors, such as company reputation, company culture, enlightened leadership, treatment of people, opportunity for career growth, and compensation and benefits (Herman and Gioia, 2001). Edwards (2010) defines organisations which support employees, enhance open communication and demonstrate fairness as the most attractive ones. Other studies examined the prioritization of those characteristics. Sutherland et al. (2002) found career growth, training and development most important, with the addition that for women pay is less important. The dimensions

form a very important part in defining an employer brand. Looking at the dimensions it becomes not only clear that there are some differences in regard to consumer branding, namely the focus on the intangible aspects like the social value of an employer, but it also falls into place that cultural and organisational factors play a role in shaping this employer brand.

2.2.4 Characteristic concepts

In contrast to the dimensional concepts, there are other more characteristic concepts, such as the concept of Moroko and Uncles (2008). They identified five characteristics of successful employer brands. Three of those are similar to consumer brands, such as awareness (being known and noticeable), relevance to the consumer (being seen as resonant and relevant) and differentiation (being different from direct competitors). The other two characteristics are different from consumer brands: Fulfilling a psychological contract and the appropriation of the values. The first criterion means that a consistency between the employer brand and the employment experience is crucial, as well as the expectations of the obligations of both the organisation and the employee are consistent. The potential employees know what is expected of them, and what they can expect from the organisation (Edwards, 2010). It is based on involvement theory. Involvement with a purchase depends on certain factors, such as the situation or the personality of the consumer and the perceived purchase risk (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Starting a new job is similar to a purchase, but here the perceived risk is remarkably higher. One reason is the enormous information asymmetry.

Before starting a job, a person cannot experience how working at this place really is. Therefore, the disappointment can be high if the organisation does not keep its promises. Moroko and Uncles (2008, p. 165) define this feeling as the fourth criterion: "Fulfilling the psychological contract". Therefore, it is particularly important that the information the job applicant receives in advance about the organisation is authentic (Cable, Aiman-Smith and Edwards, 2000; Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004). The fifth criterion, unintended appropriation of brand values (Moroko and Uncles, 2008), is connected to the psychological contract. It means that there has to be a fit between the values of the employer and its brand and those of the job applicant. The essence of a brand is always its values. The values sum up the employer brand, the corporate brand and all of their facets. They have

to be aligned and appreciated by the job prospects (Moroko and Uncles, 2008). Some other studies also put emphasis on the credibility issue (Cable et al., 2000; Cotton and Tuttle, 1986; Wilden et al., 2010; Miles and Mangold, 2004; Griffeth, Horn and Gaertner, 2000). Edwards (2010, p. 10) stated in his review on employer branding and organisational behaviour theory, that “Organisations that present an overly positive picture of their employment experience are likely to be encouraging unrealistic expectations in new joiners”. Due to the relevance of credibility and authenticity, the employee came into focus of employer branding efforts.

2.2.5 *The problems of employer Branding strategies*

Ewing et al. (2002) propose a very concrete employer branding concept. They offer three strategies for employer branding coming down to three different values: internationality and globalism, exploration and innovation, and solidarity and familiarity. Ewing et al. (2002) name banks and insurance companies as examples of the first. Followers of the second strategy advertise by saying “What we do is exciting, join us and be ahead of the herd” (Ewing et al., 2002, p. 13). Examples of this strategy are technology spin-off, and new up and coming start-ups. The third strategy is *the Local* one, based on the values of closeness and locality. These strategies can be also found in practice. They are mostly wrapped into elaborate campaigns, such as “Do cool things that matter” by Google (Google, Ed., 2018), “We Believe” by McDonald’s (Harris, 2015), or “It’s not my work it’s my passion” by Henkel (Henkel Australia Pty. Ltd., Ed., 2018). On the one hand, these can be effective in increasing the general exposure and knowledge about an organisation as an employer (Edwards, 2010). But on the other hand, they lack uniqueness. All three campaigns advertise flexible working conditions, diverse benefits and broad career opportunities - different in design; interchangeable in meaning. This one-sidedness makes the campaigns generic.

Gilly and Wolfinbarger (1998) add three further sources problems of Employer branding. Firstly, they argue that advertisements might be perceived as inaccurate. Since marketing employees do not really know what the organisation is really like from the perspective of an insider, they might design an idealized picture which is seen as untrue by employees. Furthermore, decision makers do not understand the self-concept of employees, and the employees might overreact to

smaller inaccuracies to the concept of this collective self. They would then not see the campaigns as authentic and not understand the bigger marketing strategy. As a second problem source, Gilly and Wolfinbarger (1998) envisage that the advertisements might be perceived as value incongruent; when the target market and current employees are different. Employees then will not be able to defend the organisation in social media for example. The third problem source, according to Gilly and Wolfinbarger (1998) is that employees do not understand advertising goals that are not related to sales and they are often not properly informed. Summing up Gilly and Wolfinbarger's (1998) views, companies should not try to develop and communicate an ideal blueprint of employment, because it would not reflect the identity of the organisation. It was also found that the attributes considered most attractive varied in each organisation (Maxwell and Knox, 2009). Mosley (2007) writes that identifying the distinctive cultural characteristics and capabilities of an organisation is the only way to position the organisation and develop a competitive advantage. This again speaks of the importance of organisational culture and identity for the attractiveness of an employer.

	Most attractive Employers in Engineering/IT (2016)	Best Global Brands Ranking (2016)
Google	1.	2.
Microsoft	2.	4.
Apple	3.	1.
BMW Group	4.	11.
IBM	5.	6.
GE	6.	10.
Intel	7.	14.
Siemens	8.	52.
Samsung	9.	7.
Sony	10.	58.

Table 1: World's most attractive employers vs. best global brands (Source: Interbrand, Ed., 2016, Universum Global, Ed., 2016).

Another important reason for employer branding campaigns lacking in effect is the spillover effect. The corporate brand and employer brand cannot be perceived separately by outsiders; an organisation cannot communicate one brand to job seekers and another brand to customers, because those are often the same persons. Table 1 shows a simple comparison between the world's best brands and the most attractive employers. Eight of the ten most attractive employers are

within the top fifteen of the best global brands, ranked by the brand value in USD. The only exceptions are Siemens and Sony, which rank within the top 50. These numbers suggest that the corporate brand spills over to the employer brand and the two form an overlapping picture, which indicates that externals cannot differentiate between employer and consumer brand.

Summarizing the above, it can be stated that employer branding campaigns face many problems. They are on the one hand, generic and fail to display the cultural uniqueness of the company. On the other hand, they withhold displaying the perceived organisational identity of the employees from outsiders, because the campaigns are often not congruent with the employees' values. Lastly, the spillover effect supports the conclusion that potential employees find it hard to distinguish between the employer brand and the corporate brand. This leaves employer branding often being ineffective.

2.2.6 *Relevance of organisational culture and organisational identity in employer branding*

Backhaus and Tikoo (2004) developed a framework in Figure 4, which outlines the connection between employer branding, employer attraction, organisational factors and the employee. They see employer branding as a basis for the organisation's identity and culture, which in turn improve the loyalty to the employer brand and hence also employee productivity. In their view, it has an internal as well as an external component (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004).

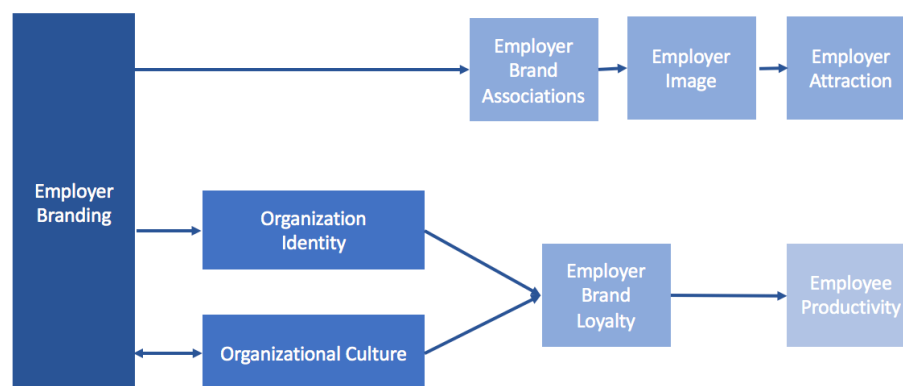


Figure 4: Employer Branding framework (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004).

Hence, the most attractive attributes depend not least on the core value of the organisation; its identity. This can only be authentic and credible when deeply

rooted in the company's culture, and is the most important difference between consumer branding and employer branding. Consumer branding tries to sell products whereas employer branding is selling nothing less than a company's identity and culture. And identity and culture are much more difficult to comprehend than simple product features; they are something which takes place sub- or even unconsciously. This makes it harder to grasp and to turn into a campaign by marketing, communication or human resource task forces. Organisational life is vivid and changing and is best understood by those who shape it – its employees, be it regular employees, senior management or the CEO (Martin, 2016).

2.2.7 Conclusion

In summary, it can be said that branding concepts work differently for the employer brand, contrary to Ambler and Barrows (1996) assumption that the employer brand can be positioned exactly as a consumer brand. Two differences, the remarkably higher purchase risk because of the information asymmetry and the fit to the values of the employee make this impossible. Generic branding campaigns fail to communicate the authentic culture, the core of employer branding, hence they cannot be successful. Communicating the authentic identity and culture of an organisation is hard to grasp and works only if employees who are the creators of the culture and co-creators of the identity are included in the process. A focus on the employee is therefore timely and relevant.

2.3 Focusing on the employee

2.3.1 Employee branding

2.3.1.1 How employee branding works

The following chapters describe two other concepts, employee and internal branding, which try to make employees advocates with management measures. In regard to focus, Henkel et al. (2007) postulated that brand success (in this case referring to the consumer brand) depends on how much the brand values are lived up to by every single employee. It was found that consumer brands are the more successful the higher identification of salespersons with the organisation and the brand is shown. Also, Hanna, Backhouse, and Burns (2004) explored how the behaviour of service employees in the everyday life of an organisation

can be controlled. Henkel et al. (2007) found that employee empowerment and informal measures are more effective than formal measures. The employees themselves seem to be valuable players when it comes to selling the organisation to outsiders.

In this context, Goltz and Giannantonio (1995) found that job candidates can name more positive characteristics when exposed to a friendly recruiter than to an unfriendly one. Knox and Freeman (2006, p. 707) worked out that “recruiters’ interpretation of how potential recruits perceive the employer brand image is more positive than their own view and, indeed, the view of the potential recruits themselves”. Dukerich and Carter (2000) adapted this image gap to a model that represents the correlation between internal employer brand image held by recruiters and the external employer brand image held by potential recruits. They concluded that these two images mutually influence each other. Turban, Forret, and Hendrickson (1998) figured that the employer brand image influences both applicants’ perception and recruiter behaviours.

But not only recruiters can influence the brand images of potential employees. Regular employees also play an important role in attracting potential employees. According to Dowling (2001), studies have shown that people who know somebody who works for an organisation tend to rate that organisation better and regard it more highly than people who do not know someone. Maxwell and Knox (2009) established that current employees perceive their organisations not only better but also as more unique. What employer branding campaigns fail to do seems easier; almost subconscious by employees. They strategically select attributes and adjust the importance and value to fit their construct (Maxwell and Knox, 2009).

2.3.1.2 How to manage employee behaviour

Some studies discuss how an organisation can influence employee behaviour (Hekman, Steensma, Bigley and Hereford, 2009), mostly though in the service perspective. Managers and supervisors influence identification with the organisation. The longer the relationship between employee and supervisor lasts and the stronger the tie is, the higher is the influence (Wieseke et al., 2007). In connection with managing brand compliant behaviour, the construct of person-organisation-

fit has gained some importance. "Person-organisation-fit is defined as the congruence between patterns of organisational values and patterns of individual values in an organisation, such as being team-oriented and innovative" (Chatman, 1991, p. 459). Some studies consider that branding employees starts in the recruiting process by choosing employees that fit regarding their personality (Cable and Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991). Cushen is one of the few authors that criticizes the concept. She postulates that employee branding, and respectively normative branding goes one step too far and is doomed to failure (Cushen, 2009). In her case study, she shows that employees show resistance to such branding measures.

Kreutzer and Salomon (2009) see three factors as important for the brand compliant behaviour of employees: knowledge, commitment and ability. The knowledge about the brand is a necessary condition for brand compliant behaviour. Kreutzer and Salomon (2009) find this knowledge as responsibility and obligation of the management. Commitment is the second important factor. According to Kreutzer and Salomon (2009), it is not enough that the employees have knowledge of the brand; they also have to be willing to transfer this knowledge to others. They mention here Meyer and Allen's (1997) distinction between affective commitment, which describes the emotional relationship and bond of the employee towards the brand; rational commitment, which relates to the barely rational cost-benefit analysis of the employee and leads him or her to the decision not to change jobs; and normative commitment, which is the morally ethical obligation or sense of duty the employee feels towards the employer and the brand. The third factor for brand compliant behaviour is the ability the employee has to have to execute brand compliant behaviour. This can be language skills as well as presentation or communication skills (Kreutzer and Salomon, 2009). Here, it already becomes clear that if the employees have to do the job employer branding normally does, they need the right attitude and skills.

2.3.1.3 Job choice studies: social factors and simple familiarity

Whereas most studies on job choice depict it as goal oriented and based on rational factors such as the organisation's recruitment efforts (Rynes, Bretz, and Gerhart, 1991; Turban, 2001), some recent studies also see a strong influence of social factors, such as the consultation of family and friends (Wanberg, Kanfer

and Banas, 2000) or other strong ties (Lievens et al., 2007; Van Hoya and Lievens, 2009). Fisher, Ilgen, and Hoyer (1979) also mention the discussion with peers or professors. From a brand equity perspective, Cable and Turban (2003) think that job seekers' perception of the reputation of an organisation is based on the sum of general corporate reputation, recruitment advertisements, and corporate familiarity.

According to Wayne and Casper (2012), two important factors are corporate reputation and image. These give information about the prestige of the organisation and whether employees can expect to feel comfortable in their jobs (Cable and Turban, 2003; Wayne and Casper, 2012). A good reputation has a monetary value: Cable and Turban (2003) found that employees are willing to accept lower salaries if the organisation has a good reputation. But strategic efforts in these areas can only affect the image of potential employees to some extent. Rynes et al. (1991) argue that it is likely since job seekers have an information deficit about the companies they are applying for, that their reputation perceptions are influenced simply by the familiarity with the company.

If they have heard some information about the company in the press, this can have a great impact on their perceptions; however, Dowling (2001) postulates that interpersonal communication between employees and external groups is more powerful than advertisements and other sponsored communication for the reputation of the organisation. Also, Lievens et al. (2007) show that social influence has a strong influence on these perceptions and even interferes with recruitment advertising effects. Informal social influence has an even stronger impact on how organisational attractiveness is perceived (Van Hoya and Lievens, 2009). Especially when employees are strongly interlinked with others, it helps to win over new colleagues, providing that there is a corporate culture where employees like these flourish (Van Hoya and Lievens, 2009). Individuals tend to accept information from other members of their social group more than from members outside the group (Higgins, 2001). Also, other informal sources such as family and friends play an important role in recommending or appreciating an employer (Van Hoya and Lievens, 2009). On the other hand, negative Word-of-Mouth interferes with recruitment advertising effects. The reason for the power of social influence in finding a job goes back to self-enhancement. A so-called

'Cocktail-Party' - test mirrors if the employer the individual works for is appreciated or not (Lievens et al., 2007). With these kinds of tests, they mean that in a social situation such as a cocktail party or a dinner, there is often the question posed where one works. If the employer is held in high regard there are subsequent questions, if it is held in low regard, the conversation sways in another direction.

Social influence affects values (Bindah and Othman, 2012), high school aspirations (Mora and Oreopoulos, 2011), and the kind of employer job applicants choose (Van Hove and Lievens, 2009). Higgins (2001) sees the social power particularly as high when the decision is important to the individual. According to Kulkarni and Nithyanand (2012), social influence in the job searching process gains importance when there is not much information provided by the organisation. When individuals are in situations of great uncertainty they feel like relying on the opinion of their social groups, and the social influence is normative. Many studies integrate the social influence in the job decision process (Lievens et al., 2007, Higgins, 2001).

Thereby different sources hold different extents of credibility. Sorensen, Rhode, and Lawler (1973) discovered that fellow students and professors hold the highest credibility for job applicants. The results of Fisher et al. (1979) indicate that information of job holder, friends and professors of job applicants are most credible. Kulkarni and Nithyanand (2012) described peers and seniors as the most credible group. Granovetter (1973) discovered that there is no need for a strong tie to make this influence work; more often weak ties are used to achieve labour relations.

	Company-dependent	Company independent
Informational	Recruiting advertisements	Publicity
experiential	Events	Word-of-Mouth

Table 2: Taxonomy of Recruitment by Cable and Turban (2003).

Table 2 shows Cable and Turban's (2003) taxonomy of recruitment sources that divides the sources into company dependent and independent recruitment, and informational and experimental recruitment. Recruitment advertising is informational and company dependent, whereas publicity is informational and company

independent. Experimental sources are recruitment events, which are company dependent, and Word-of-Mouth, which is company independent. Zottoli and Wanous (2000) distinguished between inside, e.g. employee referrals, and outside sources, e.g. walk-ins, advertisements and recruiting agencies. They found out that inside sources yielded a longer tenure than outside sources. The researchers ascribe this to the realism hypothesis by Quaglieri (1982); that inside sources provide more accurate and specific information about the job than outside sources.

Van Hove and Lievens (2009) state that source expertise is positively related to Word-of-Mouth communication. Kanar, Collins and Bell (2010) examined different types of information from different sources. They postulate that work environment information is more credible and leads to more applicant attraction told by a peer, whereas firm performance information is more credible and will be better remembered when it comes from a media article. Sadly, their theses were not supported in their study, but their theoretical conclusions seem logical and hold great importance for this research project regarding different topics that are more credible coming from employees than other.

2.3.2 *Internal branding*

2.3.2.1 Introduction to internal branding

“A central component to managing a customer’s experience with a brand and their subsequent perceptions is to effectively manage employees’ experiences within their own organisation.” (King and Grace, 2008, p. 360)

By implication, employees should be the most important audience for marketing and branding efforts (Christensen and Askegaard, 2001). If the employees are aligned with the organisational values, they will be willing to carry them further to external stakeholders (Hardaker and Fill, 2005). Therefore, employees not only have to understand the brand values and believe in them, but they also have to be given the skills to advocate the brand to others (Vallaster and de Chernatony, 2006). In order to acquire this knowledge, conviction and skills internal branding is needed.

Internal branding is defined as “the systematically planned management of behaviour, communication, and symbolism utilised by an organisation to attain a favourable and positive reputation with target audiences for an organisation.”

(Matanda and Ndubisi, 2013, p. 1033). Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) consider it as a means to create a powerful corporate brand. These two definitions show that internal branding is often only seen from a tool perspective, whereas in order to be successful, internal branding has to work bottom up. Internal branding cannot be forced onto employees; they have to believe in the higher vision of the brand, therefore the employees must understand the brand values and commit to them (Asha and Jyothi, 2013). Matanda and Ndubisi (2013) are less absolute; they argue that the more informed employees are about the brand the more comfortable they will become to talk about the brand. Another important factor is the congruence between employee and organisational values: If employees are more satisfied with the job they will have a higher desire to stay (Edwards and Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown, Zimmermann and Johnson, 2005). Mahnert and Torres (2007) sum it up by identifying three core elements of internal branding: The brand values should be reflected to consumers by committed employees. Secondly, the brand promise should be communicated internally and externally as the reflection of brand values to consumers by committed employees. Therefore, employees have to buy in. And lastly, it is important that this is communicated multi-directionally and to all organisational levels.

Internal branding works on a cognitive layer, an affective layer and a conative layer. In the cognitive layer, it has the task of transferring knowledge about the brand to the employees. King and Grace (2008) see the power of internal branding in having an informed workforce; they see this as the basis for carrying on the brand promise to outsiders (Miles and Mangold, 2004). On the affective layer, internal branding regulates the employee identity and relationship to the brand (Alvesson, 2013), creating a commitment to the brand (Papasolomou and Vrontis, 2006). It is also important that employees feel comfortable with their role within the organisation and the values of the brand (Maxwell and Knox, 2009). In the conative layer, internal branding motivates employees to share it with other stakeholders (Matanda and Ndubisi, 2013). Therefore, it provides guidelines for acceptable brand compliant behaviour to include in their everyday behaviour (Dandridge, Mitroff and Joyce, 1980).

2.3.2.2 Critical factors of success

In their literature review, Mahnert and Torres (2007) found 25 critical factors for the success and failure of internal branding, and categorized them in seven logical dimensions: Organisation, information, management, communication, strategy, staff and education. Thereby, the multidirectional communication was the most cited factor with 19 mentions, followed by market research (16) and measurement and feedback (13) in the information dimension, jurisdiction (13) in the management dimension, and employee participation and support (13) in the staff dimension. Support in this context refers to how much support management is willing to give to the internal branding programme (Jacobs, 2003), and Mahnert and Torres (2007) consider, based on literature findings, that a multi-departmental approach as best.

According to Mahnert and Torres (2007), the information dimension means the in-depth knowledge and understanding of the organisation, externally and internally. The two dimensions with the most citations were information (40) and staff (40), followed by communication (36). Particularly, the staff dimension was researched in relation to the person-organisation-fit. Some studies show that employees are selected by examining their willingness and ability to internalize and reflect brand meanings (Callaghan and Thompson, 2002, van den Broek, 2004). A good person-organisation-fit (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994) helps later internal branding efforts. Mahnert and Torres (2007) emphasize that the culture part is especially difficult, because of its large impact on internal branding on the one hand, and the difficulty of changing on the other. But sometimes cultural change might be necessary if the culture does not fit the internal branding objectives (Bergstrom, Blumenthal and Crothers, 2002). Here it can be pointed out again that culture also plays a crucial role in internal branding, which can also be linked to Employee Advocacy.

Gapp and Merrilees (2006) gathered a list of factors that make internal branding so challenging. Among generic (and for all marketing activities) pitfalls such as not planning the right budget, timing or resources and just relying on advertising campaigns without a deeper strategy, they also have factors that are especially important for internal branding. The first factor is the multiplicity of views, if not all considered, and internal branding not being practised by the whole organisation

(Pitt and Foreman, 1999). It will also never be fully successful (Ballantyne, 2000, Mumby-Croft and Williams, 2002) when influenced by internal politics and personal preferences (Mumby-Croft and Williams, 2002). The factor of brand knowledge is also important (Lee, Gobeski, and Doremus, 1991). Lastly, the support of management should be ongoing in order to achieve success (George, 1990). Here, it again becomes clear that a bottom-up approach is most important for all effort to make employees advocates. Internal branding is important to the topic because it builds the prestige of Employee Advocacy, and tries to take measures to influence the attitude and actions in a favourable way for the brand. These measures are similar to the employer branding approach to the outside. The problem with internal branding mostly is that it works top-down, and does not include the multiple views on the organisational identity and the culture that shape the organisation.

2.3.3 *Conclusion*

Following the perspective that employer branding campaigns are too generic and fail to communicate the uniqueness and core attributes of the organisation, it can be said that focussing on the employee is the right thing to do. This is also supported by the findings of job choice studies and social influence theory, which claims that employees are the most credible source of information to outsiders. However, realizing internal branding campaigns just work as a top-down tool that does not take culture and identity – as they are seen by the employees - into account is doomed to fail. Employees need to be willing to represent their employer. Their inner motives should reflect the urge to talk positively about their employer and thereby be an advocate. This is why the link between Employee Advocacy, its antecedents and the organisational culture and identity is so important.

2.4 Employee Advocacy as the answer

2.4.1 *Definition of Employee Advocacy*

2.4.1.1 Its origins in brand advocacy

This chapter points out the importance of Employee Advocacy. The problem of employer branding campaigns is that they do not meet the needs of the job candidates, namely displaying an authentic picture of the future workplace that decreases the risk. This can only be done by individuals who have this experience, the employees. But prior studies and concepts show that this cannot be forced on employees as in employee branding happening top down; it has to happen bottom up in respect for the culture and identity of the organisation. Hence, Employee Advocacy is the central concept here. In literature, there are two different concepts which both relate to the term Employee Advocacy. The first sees Employee Advocacy in the human resource management context, speaking of HR business partners as advocates for the employees and making their rights transparent to them (Yeh, 2014). The other refers to employees recommending the benefits of an organisation to their external environment or social context (Tsarenko et al., 2018). In this research project, the second conception is of importance, seen as part of the broader concept Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and basis of Word-of-Mouth communication.

As discussed earlier, the word Advocacy comes from Brand Advocacy, which is according to Wragg (2004, p. 36), “marketing’s new buzz word”. When speaking about Word-of-Mouth in marketing, Brand Advocacy or even brand evangelism is often named in the same breath. Huang (2015) defines Brand Advocacy as a “generalized tendency to share brand information or knowledge within a product class in order to benefit others in their purchases and consumption” (p. 28). Dwyer, Greenhalgh, and LeCrom (2015) go even further and speak of convincing people as “an act of preaching the brand’s most loved aspects and all positive associations that come with it to people” (Dwyer et al., 2015, p. 644), especially to those who are not convinced so far. Kim and Rhee (2011) describe three different concepts comprising Advocacy: Megaphoning, scouting and micro boundary spanning. The first refers to employees’ efforts to talk either positively or negatively about the organisation and their willingness to forward information about

the organisation's problems or accomplishments. Scouting thereby is the seeking of information about the organisation and sharing of this. Micro boundary spanning is "the extent of voluntary two-way communication efforts by non-nominated employees between organisations and their strategic publics" (Kim and Rhee, 2011, p. 249). According to the researchers, symmetrical communication behaviour and good quality relationships with the organisation are enhancing these three factors. Kim and Rhee (2011) base the quality of relationship on Bruning and Ledingham's (1999) relationship factors of trust, openness, involvement, investment, and commitment.

Wragg (2004) sees Brand Advocacy as the basis of Word-of-Mouth; the internal attitude that makes customers want to promote the brand. Adapting this back to Tsarenko et al.'s (2018) definition of Employee Advocacy, this would mean that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is the basis that makes Word-of-Mouth behaviour possible. There is not much empirical or theoretical research using the term Employee Advocacy, but a lot of research regarding Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and some in Word-of-Mouth in recruiting. This is why these two concepts are looked at in the following chapter.

2.4.2 *Word-of-Mouth*

2.4.2.1 The importance of Word-of-Mouth

The importance of Word-of-Mouth marketing (WOM) has been examined in many studies. Stern (1994) described the difference between Word-of-Mouth and normal advertising that it lacks in boundaries, which means that the company cannot authorize everything that is communicated via advertising but has no control over it. Stern (1994, p. 7) defines WOM as it "involves the exchange of ephemeral oral or spoken messages between a contiguous source and a recipient who communicates in real life".

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) made the first formal study on Word-of-Mouth marketing and found that is the most important influence regarding household goods purchases of all marketing instruments. According to Balter (2008), two-thirds of the buying decisions are influenced by Word-of-Mouth, whereby positive Word-of-Mouth increases the purchase intention by reducing the perceived risk of a new product (Dichter, 1966), whereas negative Word-of-Mouth decreases the

purchase intention (Holmes and Lett, 1977). Richins (1983) examined negative Word-of-Mouth in particular, for example the failure of handling problems with the product correctly or not answering to customers in the right way. In the employee context, there is only scarce research. Van Hoyer and Lievens (2009, p. 342) state that in the past, marketing concepts had been “fruitfully applied” to recruiting but previous research had focussed on company-dependent respectively formal recruitment sources and discounted the “reality of job seeking, where social actors (e.g. family, friends, acquaintances) are often consulted about potential jobs and organisations” (Van Hoyer and Lievens, 2009, p. 342). This is why they urge for more studies of Word-of-Mouth in recruiting.

2.4.2.2 Outcomes of Word-of-Mouth

The benefits of Word-of-Mouth in recruiting are obvious and have been researched already. The literature often distinguishes between pre-hire and post-hire outcomes. The pre-hire outcomes are more pre-hire knowledge (Williams, Labig, and Stone, 1993), higher perceived employer attractiveness, a higher likelihood to apply (Van Hoyer and Lievens, 2009), and a better applicant pool (Van Hoyer, 2013). In this relation, van Hoyer (2013) found out that the impact is even stronger if the Word-of-Mouth contains negative messages. In contrast, Jaidi, Van Hooft and Arends (2011) found out that positive Word-of-Mouth is positively related to job pursuit intention, and negative Word-of-Mouth negatively influences job pursuit intention. They got strong support for the positive Word-of-Mouth and some support for the negative assumption. Kulkarni and Nithyanand (2012) points out that social influence has a strong impact on the perception of the attractiveness of the organisation, especially with negative Word-of-Mouth (Van Hoyer and Lievens, 2009).

The post-hire outcomes are longer tenure (Kirnan, Farley and Geisinger, 1989), more satisfaction with the job (Breaugh, 1992) and better performance (Kirnan et al., 1989). Also, employees are more easily socialized (Shinnar, Young and Meana, 2004). The turnover of these employees is less than with employees recruited through formal sources such as advertising (Zottoli and Wanous, 2000). Breaugh and Starke (2000) ascribe this to the more realistic previews of the job. Shinnar et al. (2004) also examined whether engaging in Word-of-Mouth also increases normative commitment, which was supported in their study. Dichter

(1966) postulated that individuals practice WOM in order to eliminate post-purchase dissonance and to confirm to themselves that they made the right decision with the purchase. Based on his thesis, Shinnar et al. (2004) also conclude that employees with negative attitudes would engage in WOM, when WOM is incentivised by the organisation, and that this would improve their feeling about their employer. However, their thesis was not supported in their study.

In recruitment, Word-of-Mouth has not been researched as much as in consumer marketing, but there is also evidence of its relevance. Van Hove and Lievens (2009, p. 342) define Word-of-Mouth as a recruiting source as “interpersonal communication, independent of the organisation’s recruitment activities, about an organisation as an employer or about specific jobs”. Consistently with marketing, it is independent of the company and uncontrolled (Bone, 1992). Topics are the employer itself or a specific job (Kulkarni and Nithyanand, 2012). Sander and Sloka (2016) examined 500 students or employed people between the ages of 20 and 40 regarding the benefits of employer-rating platforms such as glassdoor.com, and evaluated the additional information provided by the non-company opinion and insider impressions as the most important for the applicants. They found that the applicants were aware while reading the information that the comments could be biased, but concluded that if the number of similar comments is large enough, the statements must be valid.

A sub-theme of Word-of-Mouth in recruiting is the employee referral, which describes employees recommending their own employer by giving out mostly positive information to a potential job applicant (Breaugh and Starke, 2000). Cable and Turban (2003, p. 132) justified its importance by stating that “any information source, ranging from company’s brand advertisement to friend’s Word-of-Mouth, has the potential to affect job seeker’s information”. They base this thesis on the marketing literature and transfer it to recruiting. Zottoli and Wanous (2000) found four types of inconsistencies in recruitment Word-of-Mouth research: (1) The factors that assessed the benefits of WOM, (2) the different kinds of WOM in comparison to other recruitment instruments studied, (3) the vastly different and incomparable job types studied and (4) the dramatically varying sample size. Hence, they doubt a coherent picture of the state of research. Shinnar et al. (2004) drew attention to the deficiency that in past research only the impact of

Word-of-Mouth in recruiting was discussed; not the employees who make the referrals. They demand more research in these fields.

2.4.2.3 Antecedents for Word-of-Mouth in Recruiting

The interesting question remains, what motivates people to talk about their employer? Dichter (1966), Sunderam, Mitra, and Webster (1998) found four motivators for WOM in marketing: The most common motive was product involvement: In a positive manner this means stating excitement and positive feelings; in a negative way, it means anxiety reduction or vengeance. The second most common motive was altruism, which means helping the receiver of WOM to make the best purchase decision and to give them the information needed. In a negative way, this can also mean to prevent somebody from buying something. The third motive Sunderam et al. (1998) mentioned was self-enhancement, which means to make oneself be seen as expert or connoisseur in some areas and thereby confide their opinion to the benefit of others who are not that well informed. In negative WOM, Sunderam et al. (1998) also found the motive of advice seeking, when a bad decision had been made and asking other consumers what to do. They also found that product performance led to 37.5% positive Word-of-Mouth communication and 22.8% negative Word-of-Mouth communication, whereas the response from the customer service rather led to negative Word-of-Mouth communication (34%) than to positive (21%). The price value perception and the employee behaviour were well balanced. In this respect, de Angelis, Bonezzi, Peluso, Rucker, and Constabile (2012) had the thesis that consumers with a need to self-enhance generate more positive but also more negative Word-of-Mouth than others. Dichter (1966) also included another motive; the message involvement, which means that consumers want to share their experience with others because it was so good or bad. Anderson (1998) proposed a U-shaped function, meaning that very satisfied and very dissatisfied customers engage the most in Word-of-Mouth communication.

In studying the motivation for WOM in recruitment context, Van Hoya (2013) found three kinds of motive for work: Intrinsic, extrinsic and prosocial. Intrinsic here means to be motivated by the work itself; extrinsic being motivated by a reward or punishment, and prosocial to work to the benefit of other people. Van Hoya (2013) transferred these findings from work motivation to work-related

Word-of-Mouth. Consequently, some employees are likely to engage in WOM because they are satisfied with their job. Van Hoyer's (2013) results ranked this as the most important motivator. Furthermore, van Hoyer (2013) found two different prosocial motives: Helping other job seekers to find joy or helping the organisation to find good employees. These were the second most important motive. The least important motive, based on van Hoyer's (2013) study were positive rewards such as gifts or financial benefits.

Consistently with WOM in consumer marketing, Cable and Turban (2003) also found the motive of self-enhancement because an employer is an important part of the self-concept of individuals (Dutton et al., 1994). Cable and Turban (2003) conclude that the influence of the reputation of an organisation is an important mediator for this. Another theory is that some personal traits further WOM more than others. Looking at the five-dimensional model of personality, van Hoyer and Lievens (2009) saw extraversion and conscientiousness as beneficial for engaging in Word-of-Mouth. Van Hoyer and Lievens (2009) ascribe this to the larger social networks extraverts have. And even with equally large networks, they will interact more with the members than others. Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz (2001) see a high neuroticism as uncondusive for Word-of-Mouth communication behaviour. Additionally, Breugh (1981) found that age, sex, education and tenure did not have an impact on the willingness to engage in Word-of-Mouth.

Construct	Definition	Antecedents	Outcomes
Word of Mouth	Interpersonal communication independent of the organisation's recruitment activities about the organisation as an employer or a specific job.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - identification - satisfaction - loyalty - reward (organisational factors) - involvement (job-related factors) - personality (personal factors) - reputation (external factors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Employee Referral, being an advocate - more pre-hire knowledge - higher likelihood to apply - better applicant pool - longer tenure, - more satisfaction - better performance

Table 3: Word-of-Mouth definition, antecedents and outcomes.

Table 3 shows the construct of Word-of-Mouth with its antecedent and outcomes. The so-called second-order constructs are the antecedents and determined by some of the other factors in the list; identification is, for example, also influenced by personality factors, so forms a link between these other factors (personal factors, organisational factors, job-related factors and external factors) and the construct of Word-of-Mouth. Organisational factors all describe what the organisation does for the employees. Job-related factors only apply to a specific job; they

would change if the employee took another job. The cultural factors express how things are handled within the organisation and personal factors are dependent on the individual and his or her specific characteristics. External factors are factors that are outside of the organisation's control. The construct Word-of-Mouth is mostly influenced by other second-order constructs, the antecedents such as identification, satisfaction and loyalty, but also by rewards, which is an organisational factor, involvement - a job-related factor; and personality components such as extraversion and conscientiousness, but also reputation of the organisation, which can be seen as an external factor. The table does not demand completeness but is rather a summary of the above-stated literature review, and shows that the motives for WOM are complex; only understandable if the antecedents (identification, satisfaction, commitment and loyalty) are examined more closely. There is little literature on Word-of-Mouth in recruiting and the existing body is rather unsteady; neglecting the interplay between the different constructs and the multiple stages such a construct takes.

2.4.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

2.4.3.1 Types of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The other concept that can be best used to explain Employee Advocacy besides Word-of-Mouth is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), which is defined as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (Organ, 1997, p.95). This means that employee behaves in a way that is positive for the organisation. Organ (1997) thereby distinguishes between Interpersonal Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, which is directed towards co-workers but can nevertheless help the firm, and organisation-related Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, which helps the organisation directly. Interestingly, Bowling (2010) sees it as rewarding the organisation which has something done for the employees with good behaviour. In past research, two questions were of the most interest; on the one hand, what constitutes Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and on the other, what encourages it.

In answering the first question, the literature suggests that it can have many different facets. In their critical review of studies on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516) identified six different types: "1) Helping

Behaviour, 2) Sportsmanship, 3) Organisational Loyalty, 4) Organisational Compliance, 5) Individual Initiative, 6) Civic Virtue, and 7) Self-Development". Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) review describes these. Helping behaviour was often also subsumed under the term altruism, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) included helping a person into a specific face-to-face situation, such as orientation for new people or helping someone with a heavy workload. Organ (1988) saw help as next to altruism, which he defined similarly, also courtesy, which meant consideration and thoughtfulness in respect to others interests, the action of peace-making to avoid conflict and cheerleading, which means encouraging co-workers for development or performance. Moorman and Blakely (1995) focussed also on helping others when they needed help. Sportsmanship is the second type according to Podsakoff et al. (2000). Based on Organ (1990) they define sportsmanship as being tolerant towards inconveniences uncomplainingly.

The most important aspect of OCB for Employee Advocacy is type 3) Organisational Loyalty. This means contributing to the good reputation of the organisation and behaving representatively in public (Graham, 1991; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; George and Brief, 1992). Moorman and Blakely (1995) refer to it as loyalty boosterism, which means promoting the image of the organisation to outsiders. Here, it becomes clear that with organisational loyalty, Podsakoff et al. (2000) refer to the outside directed aspects of OCB, which are those on which Employee Advocacy as Tsarenko et al. (2018) defined it is based. 4) Organisational Compliance refers to obtaining rules, such as punctuality (Smith et al., 1983) or task completion (Graham, 1991). 5) Individual initiative is similar and means taking over housekeeping duties (Organ, 1990) or help others to improve their performance (Moorman and Blakely, 1995). 6) Civic virtue means the involvement in organisational politics with expressing opinions (Organ, 1988) and the participation in the organisational life, such as in attending non-required meetings (Graham, 1991). George and Brief (1992) also see protecting the organisation as civic virtue. 7) Self-development, the last aspect, was only mentioned by two of the analysed authors by Podsakoff et al. (2000). George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997) see it as all steps taken voluntarily to advance in the job personally or academically, such as taking training or learning new skills.

2.4.3.2 Motives for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Besides the different types and manifestations of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, there is another important stream of research, which is key to the research topic of this project that refers to the motivational aspects of Employee Advocacy in respect to Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. In their critical review, Podsakoff et al. (2000) found four major categories of motivations: individual characteristics, comprised of employee attitudes such as satisfaction, fairness, organisational commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment and the trust in leader, the dispositional variables which comprised the personality of the employees, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness and positive and negative affectivity, the role perception comprised of ambiguity and conflict and the demographic variables gender and tenure. The second major category included the task characteristics, such as feedback, routinization and an intrinsically satisfying task. The third category, organisational characteristics, included formalization, inflexibility, organisational support, cohesion and rewards. The fourth major category was the leadership behaviours, which included the leadership type, transformational leadership, goal acceptance and high-performance expectations, as well as the relevance of rewards and punishment, roles and procedure and the leader-member exchange. Relying on these factors, Saifi and Shazhad (2017) pointed out that the impact of personality according to Organ (1994) is very low, and that the attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as employee engagement, seemed to be of highest importance (Organ et al., 2006).

In later studies, different types of leadership have become more and more important as an aspect that furthers OCB, such as authentic leadership (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Juthans and May, 2004), transformational leadership (Tsai, Chen and Cheng, 2009), or ethical leadership (Brown and Trevino, 2006). Wang and Sung (2016) gave empirical evidence that ethical leadership had a positive effect on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Ethical leadership is here referred to as leadership focussing on the management of employees' ethical conduct. Vijaylakshmi and Supriya (2016) mention based on Rioux and Penner (2001) and Williams and Anderson (1991) three key motives: 1) prosocial values, which means employees wanting to help others, 2) organisational concern, employees wanting to help the organisation, and 3) impression management, which means

that the employees wanted to be seen in a positive light and not in a negative light. The latter proposes a model of two aspects, namely Organisational Citizenship Behaviour benefitting the individual or benefitting the organisation.

Newer studies also made a distinction regarding the motives between self-serving and selfless Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Whereas selfless motives comprise benefitting the organisation or an individual within the organisation, meaning the prosocial values and the organisational concern, self-serving motives comprise of the impression management. Donia, Johns and Raja (2016) refer to studies that postulate that the selfless motives are positively associated with other-oriented empathy, leader-member exchange and organisational justice and commitment and perceived organisational support, while self-serving motives are positively associated with Machiavellianism, meaning a strive for power. Mai, Ellis, Christian, and Porter (2016) see selfless motives as positive emotional states and positive performance ratings, and self-serving motives positive related to supervisor anger.

Also, an aspect that is included a lot of later studies is the antecedent organisational justice, which encompasses the feeling of just allocation of resources to those who performed adequately (Otto and Mamatoglu, 2015). The opposite, workplace jealousy, has a negative effect: Some studies revealed the impact the feeling of being worse off than the co-workers. (Parrott and Smith, 1993) It hinders OCB, whereas the feeling of being better off than the co-worker increases OCB (Spence, Ferris, Brown and Heller, 2011). Wang and Sung (2016) also found empirical support in their hypothesis that workplace jealousy has a negative effect on both Organisational Citizenship Behaviour directed to the individual and the organisation. Saifi and Shahzad (2017) found that job satisfaction is a mediator of organisational justice and even reinforces Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. In turn, job stressors (Pooja, De Clercq and Belausteguigoitia, 2016) and the intention to leave (Mai et al., 2016) are aspects that decrease Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Fisher (2002) found that positive emotions were positively related to OCB. In a recently published article, Wu, Liu, Kwan, and Lee (2016) argue that organisational identification increases OCB whereas ostracism decreases it, because “workplace ostracism signals a differentiation between the ostracized target and others in the workplace and thus mitigates the sense of similarity and organizational identification” (Wu et al., 2016, p. 364).

In conclusion, it can be stated that especially in recent research on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour there was put an emphasis on the attitudinal motives of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. However, the constructs of the various researchers fall short on connecting the individual and attitudinal motivations with the organisational motivations that may include cultural aspects such as leadership and organisational support. This research project seeks to join these to streams in order to get a deeper understanding what enhances Employee Advocacy.

Construct	Definition	Antecedents	Outcomes
Organisation Citizenship Behaviour	Performance that supports the organisation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - satisfaction - commitment - rewards (organisational factors) - task (job-related factors) - justice/fairness (cultural factors) - role discretion (cultural factors) - trust (cultural factors) - leadership (cultural factors) - personality (personal factor) - gender (personal factors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helping behaviour - Initiative - Civic virtue - Contributing to the organisation's good reputation

Table 4: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour definition, antecedents and outcomes.

Table 4 shows the construct of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. It is influenced by satisfaction and commitment, as well as by the job itself and the rewards gained. The most important role seems to play the cultural factors with perceived fairness, role discretion, trust and leadership. Personal factors also play a role. External factors seem to not play a role or simply have not been researched. Also, identification did not directly appear in the publications used for this literature review. The table does not claim completeness but rather shows where the focus of the research lay in the past.

2.4.4 Conclusion

The aim of this research project has been to understand what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. As



Figure 5 shows, Employee Advocacy can be best explained as an interplay of two better researched constructs; Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Word-of-Mouth (WOM), but with limitations.

Most studies regarding Word-of-Mouth relate to marketing, but only a few explore the concept from an employee perspective. In such studies, the researchers relate to identification, loyalty, commitment and satisfaction as antecedents for Word-of-Mouth. There is a large body of literature on OCB, but being such a wide construct ranging from skilling up to civic virtue, contributing to the organisation's good reputation is only one part and has not been researched in a differentiated manner. Current research shows mostly satisfaction and commitment as responsible for OCB and neglects identification and loyalty. This calls for more in-depth research on the antecedents and their direct relationship to Employee Advocacy.



Figure 5: Antecedents and underlying factors of Employee Advocacy.

Also, job-related and cultural factors such as involvement, reward, personality and reputation for WOM and role discretion, tasks, leadership and personality for OCB have also been researched regarding their influence. However, they have also been found to influence the antecedents (identification, loyalty, commitment, and satisfaction) directly, which means that the antecedents play a central role for Employee Advocacy and need to be looked at in detail for their influencing factors, such as organisational, cultural, job-related, personal or external factors. Only by looking at Employee Advocacy in a two-step model as proposed in



Figure 5 a deeper understanding of the true motives of Employee Advocacy and their interplay can be reached. Chapter 2.5 will give a detailed overview of the antecedents and their influencing factors.

2.5 Antecedents of Employee Advocacy

2.5.1 *Identification*

The Antecedents which contribute to Employee Advocacy are Identification, Loyalty, Satisfaction and Commitment. This literature review will show that they are also complex constructs that cannot be easily understood or determined by just a few variables.

The first antecedent of Employee Advocacy, which is going to be discussed is identification. Freud (1955, p. 137) argues that identification “can arise with any new perception of a common quality shared with some other person.” Identification means either to recognize in the organisation the own self-concept or to change the own self-concept in order to make the values and beliefs become more similar to the organisation (Pratt, 1998). Dutton et al. (1994, p. 242) describe the self-concept as composed of a “variety of identities” depending on race and gender but also on the membership in social groups, such as organisations. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) ascribe three different aspects to organisational identification: The adoption of the organisation’s goals and values, the readiness to work hard for the organisation, and a wish to stay with the organisation, here it overlaps with affective commitment.

Tajfel (1984), identified three components of identification: The cognitive component describes the knowledge of being a member of the group. The affective component describes the emotional attachment to the group and the evaluative component describes the value connotation assigned to the group. Van Dick (2001) postulates to add a fourth component, based on Phinney’s (1991) research, the conative component, which means to take part in activities of the group. Dutton et al. (1994) include the affective component an identity forming component: “When [employees] identify strongly with the organisation, the attributes they use to define the organisation also define them” (Dutton et al., 1994, p. 239).

The degree of identification varies to the degree of which the person embraces the organisation into their own self-concept and how strongly this self-concept is tied to the membership in this organisation. The degree of identification can also change with time. Mael and Ashforth (1992) were established a valid scale for

measuring identification of alumni with their alma mater and defined distinct criteria. They measured the perceived distinctiveness (Oakes and Turner, 1986) of the organisation, the prestige of the institution (March and Simon, 1958), the competitiveness to other institutions in the group (Brown and Ross, 1982) as factors for identification and measured as outcomes: the willingness to make financial contributions to the institution, to advise others to go there and to take part in various organisational functions (Mael and Ashford, 1992).

The degree of identification is influenced by age and tenure (Fombelle, Jarvis, Ward and Ostrom, 2011), prestige and reputation of the organisation (Dutton et al., 1994), sentimentality (Mael and Ashforth, 1992) and personality factors (Hatch and Schultz, 1997). While the latter is relatively stable, age and tenure, as well as prestige and reputation, do change with time. Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970) found out that the identification with a certain company would increase over the years, which is demonstrated by the importance an employee attaches to the goals. Riketta (2005) proposes in his meta-analysis about organisational identification also job level, female gender and education as factors that correlate with organisational identification. As work-related attributes, he names amongst others attitudinal organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and involvement. Hall et al. (1970) also relate the satisfaction of higher order need to an increase of identification. Dukerich, Golden, and Shortell (2002), point out that the values and especially the fit of the own values with those of the organisation enable organisational identification.

Organisational identification can have positive and negative outcomes, on the one hand, it predicts participation and extra-role behaviour (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). This also relates to the construed external image: If members believe that outsiders see the organisation in a positive light they are proud (Dutton et al., 1994). This can have intra-organisational cooperation and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as a positive outcome. Schuh, van Quaquebeke, Göritz, Xin, De Cremer and Van Dick (2016) also see Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as an outcome of identification. On the other hand, it also can also result in a feeling of shame, disgrace and embarrassment, if the firm a person works for is struggling with a bad reputation. Also depression and stress are seen as negative outcomes (Dutton et al., 1994). Riketta (2005) here also sees absenteeism and the intention to leave. So, identification can be also seen as integrating the self into

an organisation and sees loyalty to an organisation as thereby loyalty to themselves, so ultimately every act of supporting the organisation is “self-realization” (Adler and Adler, 1988, p. 408). Lievens et al. (2007) argue when an employer is viewed positively by others it enhances the self-esteem. When the employer is held in low regard, it is the other way around. They call it the ‘cocktail party test’, where individuals can see if the employer is judged positive or negative by outsiders.

Organisational identification was also often seen as a component of other constructs. Mowday et al. (1979) saw it as a component of attitudinal organisational commitment (AOC). Riketta (2005, p. 361) describes it as “more or less similar to other concepts of organisational behaviour research such as involvement and satisfaction and above all AOC”. Saxena (2014) has pointed out that it is important to distinguish it from the concept of job involvement, which is defined as being involved in a particular job and being participating in it (Gorn and Kanungo, 1980). Saxena (2014, p. 72) describes job involvement as being “more of a cognitive construct” and thereby agrees with some other researchers (Kanungo, 1982, Paullay, Alliger and Stone-Romero, 1994). She concludes that job identification will ultimately result in job involvement.

The limitations of organisational identification research are pointed out by Schuh et al. (2016) who describe organisational identification as focussing too much on the strength of identification, the degree to which the members identify with the organisation. It thereby overlooks how multi-faceted organisations are. They think it is an oversimplification to anticipate that employees have the same feelings towards all aspects of the organisation, and postulate that there has to be more research into ambivalent identification within organisation, where employees might identify with the innovativeness of the organisation but disapprove of its flightiness.

Construct	Definition	Antecedents	Outcomes
Identification	Recognizing the own self-concept in the organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - commitment - satisfaction - goal alignment (organisational factors) - gender (female) (personal factors) - education (personal factors) - age (personal factors) - tenure (personal factors) - personality (personal factors) - sentimentality (personal factors) - prestige (external factors) - reputation (external factors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pride /Shame - Disgrace / Embarrassment - Loyalty - Stress / Depression - WOM - Organisation Citizenship Behaviour

Table 5: Identification definition, antecedents and outcomes.

Table 5 shows the construct of identification. Here a lot of emphasis seems to be on personal factors, since the construct is also mostly about the self. Organisational and job-related factors seem to have an only subordinate role in the research until now. Of course, here also the table does not claim completeness but tries to show the complexity of the different factors and the difference to the other constructs that focus more on the cultural and job-related factors.

2.5.2 Satisfaction

The second antecedent of Employee Advocacy, which is going to be discussed is job satisfaction. Locke and Latham (1990, p. 78) describe job satisfaction as “the positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job, and the perception of how well their job provides the things that are viewed as important to the employer.” Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) relate job satisfaction to extrinsic or hygiene and intrinsic of motivational factors. If the hygiene factors are missing, it leads to dissatisfaction. But the presence of the hygiene factors not necessarily leads to satisfaction; it rather establishes a neutral state. Herzberg et al. (1959) see the issues related to the task and the work environment or relationships to colleagues and superiors as hygiene factors. The motivational factors establish job satisfaction, if present and lead to a neutral state, if missing. Amongst them are a challenging task, recognition and responsibility and development in the career. Based on this, O’Connor and Srinivasan (2010) see job dissatisfaction as a determinant for absenteeism and low job performance. Ellig (1998) subsumed that employees want job security, an interesting work, recognition, fair treatment and a good Work-Life-Balance, all of these can only be provided by the employer. The support an employee feels from the organisation either realized by leadership or organisational rules and structure is an important

antecedent to satisfaction. He, Pham, Baruch and Zhu (2014) also see a strong effect of organisational support. Gillet, Colombat, Michinov, Pronost and Fouquerau (2013), for example, saw perceived support that is reflected in procedural justice, as important for satisfaction and identification as well.

Hirschman (1970) developed a concept that offers three ways employees deal with dissatisfaction: exit, voice or loyalty. Hirschman (1970, p. 81) describes exit as the “painful decision to withdraw or switch.” This could either mean that they leave the whole company or maybe just transfer to another department or division. The second option Hirschman mentions is voice, where the employees raise their voice, trying to change the thing that they think makes them unsatisfied. The third option is to stay at the firm without saying anything, but hoping that things will change on their own or because somebody else does something. Hirschman calls this construct loyalty. The first concept is probably the most discussed in the literature.

Construct	Definition	Antecedents	Outcomes
Satisfaction	The positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - work environment (organisational factors) - task (job-related factors) - challenge (job-related factors) - responsibility (job-related factors) - growth (job-related factors) - relationship with colleagues (cultural factors) - relationship with superiors (cultural factors) - recognition (cultural factors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Turnover - Absenteeism - Performance - Voice - Commitment - WOM - Organisation Citizenship Behaviour

Table 6: Satisfaction definition, antecedents and outcomes.

Table 6 shows the construct of satisfaction which is important for both Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Word-of-Mouth. In the table, the job-related factors take the biggest space as antecedents but also cultural factors are important to the construct. The table does not claim completeness, but gives an overview of the different aspects and shows that personal factors have been neglected or simply could not be brought into connection as well as external factors. Looking at the table satisfaction seems to be the least complex of the four antecedents.

2.5.3 Commitment

The third antecedent of Employee Advocacy that is going to be discussed is commitment. A lot of researchers agree that low job satisfaction is related not only to high turnover (Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth, 1978; Porter and Steers 1977;

Price, 1977), but also to low commitment (Mobley et al., 1978). Low commitment in turn leads to high absenteeism and low performance (Hammer, Landau and Stern, 1981). Williams and Hazer (1986) distinguished satisfaction and commitment as follows. They described organisational commitment as a response to the organisation and job satisfaction as a response to the job. Research distinguishes between normative, rational and affective commitment. Martensen and Gronholdt (2006) pointed out that leadership influences satisfaction and satisfaction leads to commitment. Commitment, in turn, if it is normative, leads to loyalty (Coughlan, 2005). Strödter (2008) made an extensive literature review about the influencing factors of each type of commitment. Normative commitment is influenced by job security (Felfe, 2005), the relationship to the superior (Wasti, 2003) and satisfaction (Irving, Coleman, and Cooper, 1997; Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1994), whereas rational commitment is influenced as well by the relationship with the superior, but also by age and tenure (Kondratuk, Hausdorf, Korabik and Rosin, 2004; Felfe, 2005; Iversson and Buttigieg, 1999) by the rules (Jernigan, Beggs, Beggs and Kohut, 2002) and by the possibility to participate (Mayer and Schoorman, 1998). The influence of education was inconsistent. Lee et al. (1991) found a positive correlation, whereas other studies found negative correlations (Kondratuk et al., 2004; Mayer and Schoorman, 1998). Age was found to have a positive correlation with affective commitment (Felfe, 2005; Carmeli, 2005; Iversson and Buttigieg, 1999), whereas the results regarding tenure were inconsistent. Beck and Wilson (2000) found a negative correlation; Kondratuk et al. (2004) found a positive one. Education had only negative effects on affective commitment (Felfe, 2005; Mathieu and Hamel, 1980; Mayer and Schoorman, 1998).

Gregersen and Black (1992) found four kinds of characteristics that shape commitment. The personal characteristics by which they subsume the personal investments and so-called side bets employees take the longer they are staying in one firm, such as paying into the company pension funds. The job characteristics include the feeling of responsibility (Salancik, 1977) and the role discretion. The more the roles are discrete, the more the employees feel responsible for their field (Angle and Perry, 1983). By contrast, role conflict and role ambiguity decrease the feeling of responsibility and hence lower the feeling of commitment (Morris and Koch, 1979). The organisational characteristics relate to how de-

pendable and supportive the organisation is perceived. This can vary from employee to employee (Steers, 1977). The non-job characteristics describe the environmental factors.

Construct	Definition	Antecedents	Outcomes
Commitment	The willingness to stay with the employer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - satisfaction - job security (organisational factors) - responsibility (job-related factors) - relationship with superior (job-related factors) - rules (job-related factors) - role discretion (cultural factors) - support (cultural factors) - paying into company funds (personal factors) - tenure (personal factors) - age (personal factors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Turnover - Absenteeism - Loyalty - Organisation Citizenship Behaviour

Table 7: Commitment definition, antecedents and outcomes.

Table 7 shows that commitment is influenced by personal factors as well as organisational, cultural and job-related factors. The table does not demand completeness but shows the different areas that can influence an employee's willingness to stay with a certain employer.

2.5.4 Loyalty

The last antecedent of Employee Advocacy is loyalty. Loyalty "is the (perceived) probability of work continuance in an organisation by an employee with greater or lesser commitment – and certain emotional attachment towards the organisation regardless of its image on the market – thanks to employees' or other staff's well-being or due to lack of other opportunities to find a different job or high costs of changing the employer" (Lipka, 2012, p. 20 cited by Lipka, Waszczak and Winnicka-Wejs, 2014). Lipka et al. (2014) include three aspects into the loyalty concept: positive commitment, habit and trust. When all three are prevailing, loyalty is the strongest. Adler and Adler (1988) rather describe it as a bond with an organisation (or person or group) that encompasses feelings of belonging and willingness to follow. They describe identification and commitment as elements of loyalty. Here, commitment would be just a mechanism that encourages loyalty and identification inspires loyalty. Other elements of loyalty mentioned by Adler and Adler (1988) are domination, integration and goal alignment.

The literature review shows that loyalty is influenced by job involvement (Buchanan, 1974; Lodahl and Kejner, 1965) and organisational justice. The perceived justice also includes the influence on decisions regarding change. Otto and Mamatoglu (2015) describe another important aspect: interactional justice, the feeling of employees that they are provided with the information they need and if the superiors and employees are treated with mutual respect. They state that high perceived interactional justice leads to perceived social support which leads in turn organisational loyalty. Low perceived interactional justice makes the employees feeling bullied and leads to low job performance and mental impairment (Otto and Mamatoglu, 2015). Irving et al. (1997) pointed out that satisfaction with the job has a high influence on normative commitment, which can be seen as loyalty. Fullagar and Barling (1997) saw the extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction as loyalty constructing.

For example, Jins and Radhakrishnan (2012) examined the different factors for job change by studying five industries, such as aviation, banking, software, automobile, and financial services. They identified monetary factors, which were taken into account for staying by 77 per cent of the employees and 48 per cent of the employees would leave if they were absent, non-monetary factors, which were found favourable for staying by 78 per cent and a reason for leaving by 55 per cent. Among the monetary factors they counted the basic pay, increments and bonus as well as pension funds and travel concession. Among the non-monetary factors were career growth, which was the most important factor, designation and power, job security and recognition and rewards. They also questioned the factors of less work pressure, superior relations, safety and welfare, ethics and value, commute and a good corporate culture. The latter was found important for staying by 61 per cent and a reason for leaving for 19 per cent. The third kind of factors they examined was the personal factors for turnover. Here, they included proximity, family care, spouse employment, education of children, a lack of specialized company, friendship purpose and a fear of change. Most of the personal factors they examined were relating to location issues and other obligations, which prevented employees from leaving. 58 per cent saw proximity as a reason to stay, related factors such as family care (47 per cent) and spouse employment (42 per cent) were comparably important. The study shows, that there

is no huge gap between monetary and non-monetary factors and that they are equally relevant to employees.

Labov (1997, p. 114) concedes, “Yes, most performers are motivated by money but that is just one weapon in the war to your employees’ loyalty.” He advises executives also to offer non-monetary issues to the employees, such as recognition, by awarding the most valuable employee and giving credit not only to superiors but also to the little people. He advises executives to acknowledge that the way they treat employees is important to them, and that they appreciate it when the CEO takes time to talk to them. This makes them feel important. Other tips by Labov (1997) are to eliminate internal competition or to lead by example.

Construct	Definition	Antecedents	Outcomes
Loyalty	A bond with the organisation expressed through a feeling of belonging.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - commitment - identification - goal alignment (organisational factors) - money (organisational factors) - security (organisational factors) - rewards (organisational factors) - job involvement (job-related factors) - growth (job-related factors) - power (job-related factors) - recognition (cultural factors) - justice (cultural factors) - trust (cultural factors) - fear of change (personal factors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Turnover - Performance - WOM - Organisation Citizenship Behaviour

Table 8: Loyalty definition, antecedents and outcomes.

Table 8 shows the construct of loyalty. It is also influenced by identification and commitment, as other antecedents, but also first-order constructs such as job-related, organisational, and cultural factors play a role. Personal factors seem to have a subordinate role. The table does not demand completeness but rather provides insight into the interrelatedness of the construct with other constructs and its enormous complexity.

2.5.5 Conclusion

This chapter shows that the antecedents of Employee Advocacy; identification, job satisfaction, loyalty and commitment are in turn complex constructs that are influenced by various factors.

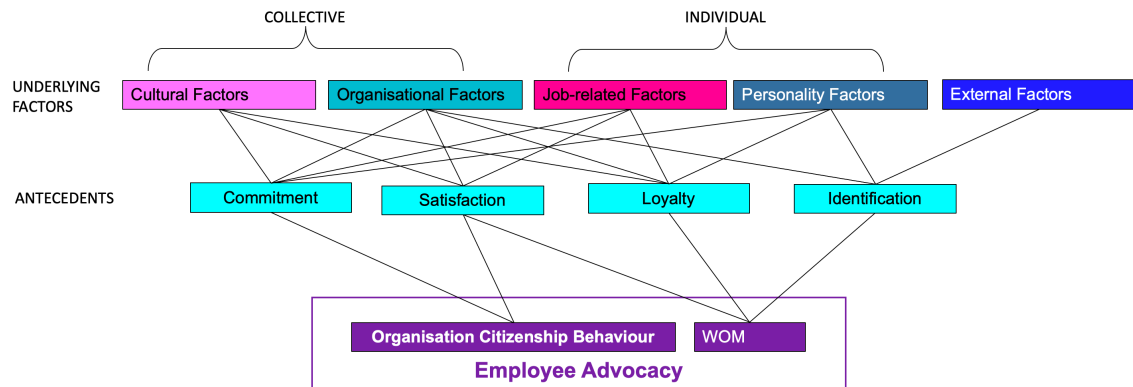


Figure 6: Constructs leading to Employee Advocacy

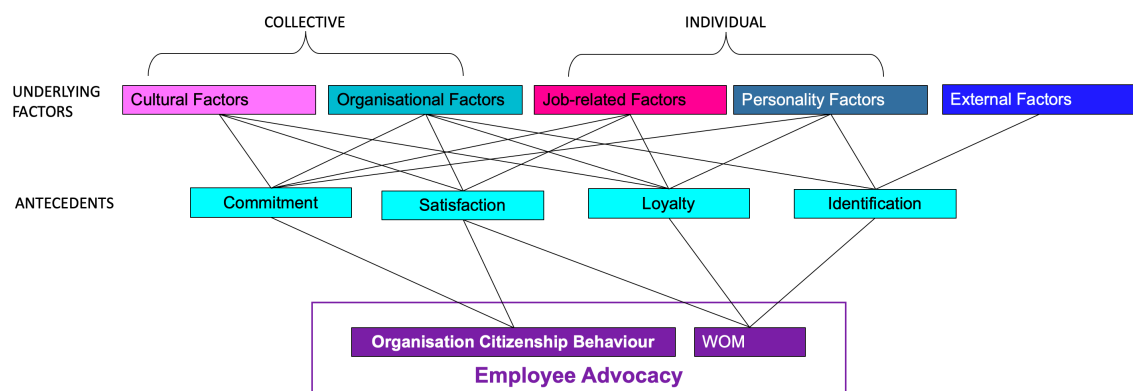


Figure 6 is only an indication for the constructs that might be important for the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. Existing literature suggests that job-related factors such as responsibility are important for commitment, satisfaction and loyalty, while personality factors are important for identification, loyalty, and commitment. Both responsibility and personality are rather individual factors, yet external factors such as the reputation are mostly seen as important for identification. Existing literature shows that the collective factors - cultural factors such as perceived organisational support and organisational factors such as goal alignment - influence all of the antecedents. Based on current literature they seem to be the most fruitful area to look into the motives of Employee Advocacy which is the central question of this research.

Another reasoning for focussing on the collective factors is that they also play an important role in business success (Collins and Porras, 2011) and are in turn responsible for other factors such as job-related factors, as culture, for example, influences responsibility. From a managerial perspective, the collective factors

are the most sensitive to changes, along with the external factors already addressed by marketing and branding efforts.

In order to understand what motivates employees to be advocates, the influence of organisational identity and culture on the antecedents (identification, loyalty, satisfaction and commitment) has to be researched in-depth. Current literature gives no holistic picture of collective factors and their influence, either on the antecedents or on Employee Advocacy itself. This study aims to provide a conceptual research on the three-step construct: Organisational and cultural factors influencing the antecedents, which in turn influence Employee Advocacy.

2.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter shows that Employee Advocacy is a relatively uncharted topic which has not yet been researched in the area of employee motives. Newer definitions see it as a combination of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Word-of-Mouth, where OCB forms the attitudinal basis for the WOM behaviour. While there is only limited empirical evidence supporting Word-of-Mouth in organisation context, there is a considerable body of research into OCB. However, Employee Advocacy only refers to one aspect of OCB. Therefore, the findings of OCB cannot be simply adopted to Employee Advocacy.

But what can be borrowed is that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Word-of-Mouth have certain antecedents that foster them: Identification, Loyalty, Commitment, and Satisfaction. They are in turn influenced by other constructs, namely by external, personal, job-related, cultural and organisational factors. In this research project, there is a focus on the cultural and organisational factors and their influence on the antecedents, as these factors are the most obscure and most difficult to influence. While external factors such as reputation and image can be influenced by branding, marketing and communication and personal factors and job-related factors can be influenced in the recruiting process, business strategies and HR. Cultural and organisational factors are more deeply rooted and work bottom up as well as top down. The second reason is that there are only a few research studies focusing on particularly these factors when it comes to the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. Looking at the organisation from a collective perspective has been neglected so far; individual aspects such as personality factors or job-related factors have been more in focus. This research project aims

to change this focus to cultural and organisational factors influencing the antecedents, thus enabling a deeper understanding of Employee Advocacy.

The next chapter will review organisational identity and organisational culture to get a theoretical understanding of the organisational factors for the purposes of this study. The two concepts will be explained based on a central definition, models and their conceptualization for this study outlined.

3 The organisational culture and organisational identity

3.1 Introduction

“Every group creates culture” (Hofstede, 2015, p. 558).

In the previous chapter, the state of the research on Employee Advocacy was explained. It was shown that cultural and organisational factors played a particularly important role in furthering strong Employee Advocacy, agreeing with Hofstede's quote above, but have been neglected in research so far. However, in order to provide organisational identity and organisational culture that further Employee Advocacy, the concepts first have to be understood. This chapter serves to grasp what has been researched to date within the two important constructs of organisational identity and organisational culture. Here, first definitions explain the constructs, then different models and conceptualizations are presented. Lastly, the social theories are presented that are the basis for the constructs.

3.2 Identity in human context

In order to fully grasp the concept of organisational culture and organisational identity, first human nature has to be understood to a certain degree. Hatch and Schultz (2000, p. 25) define identity as follows: “Identity involves how we define and experience ourselves, and this is at least partly influenced by our activities and beliefs, which are grounded in and interpreted using cultural assumptions and values”. Patchen (1970, p. 155) defines identity as composed of “(1) feelings of solidarity with the [collective], (2) affective and behavioural support for the [collective], and (3) perception of shared characteristics with other [collective] members”. These two definitions show that identity is not only the specific traits of a person, it is also his or her environment that shapes a person. It is a complex interplay of different influences. Figure 1 shows two identity models important for this research project. The pyramid after Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) is relevant because it shows the link between individual and collective identity. The upper box after McAdams and colleagues (McAdams and Pals, 2006; McAdams and Olson, 2010) is important, because it includes narratives as an essential part of identity. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) described the complex mental composition as a pyramid, which they called the Uniqueness in Human Mental Programming.

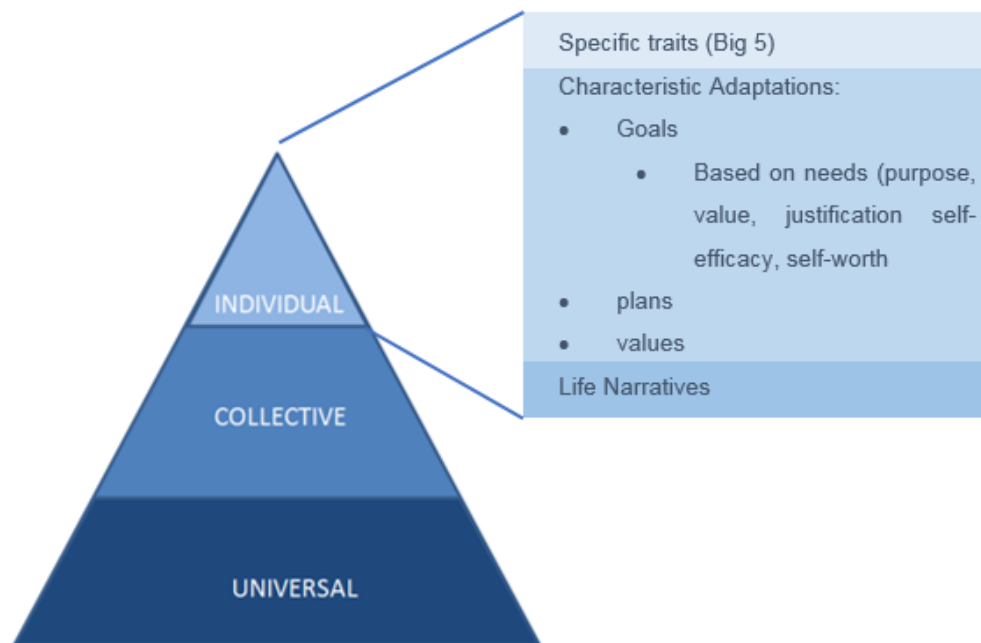


Figure 7: The human personality (Hofstede, 2007; McAdams and Olson, 2010; McAdams and Pals, 2006; Manczak et al. 2014; Baumeister, 1991).

Figure 7 shows at the bottom of the pyramid, the universal traits. This means the biological operating system of the human body, such as expressive, associate and aggressive behaviours. According to Hofstede (2007), these are mostly inherited and equal for all human kind, no matter what country they are from, or what gender they have. The second layer of the pyramid displays the collective traits. These are shared with some but not all other people and include subjective (national) human culture, language or the way we eat for example. They are mostly learned and socially transferred. The upper layer of the pyramid shows the individual traits. These are truly unique, constitute the individual personality and offer a wide range of alternative behaviours. They are partly inherited and partly learned. It is important to distinguish between collective programming and individual programming. This model shows that the individual identity is always linked to the collective identity and that the two are building upon each other. This will be important in the further course of the research because it shows how organisational identity depends on the individual identity of the employees.

The second identity model in Figure 7 shows an additional fundamental aspect of identity. According to McAdams and colleagues (McAdams and Olson, 2010;

McAdams and Pals, 2006; Manczak, Zapati-Gietl and McAdams, 2014) the specific traits are just one layer of a three-layered personality. These dispositional traits form the foundational level. They display the person as a social actor and have broad consistencies in behaviour, thoughts and feelings. Here, the second layer consists of the characteristic adaptations. These are the goals, plans and values of a person and thus, display self as a motivated agent. The values are a concept often seen as part of the identity and are important in this research project. Hofstede (1991) sees them as bidirectional, such as evil vs. good, unnatural vs. natural, dirty vs. clean, dangerous vs. safe, forbidden vs. permitted, decent vs. indecent, rational vs. irrational, moral vs. immoral, ugly vs. beautiful, paradoxical vs. logical.

Schwartz (1992) identified these values common in all cultures: conformity, tradition, self-directing, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, benevolence, and universalism. In a more recent study, Cieciuch and Schwartz (2012) added sub-values to self-direction (autonomy of action and autonomy of thought), universalism (protecting the environment and societal concern), achievement (ambition and showing success), security (national security and personal security) and tradition (tradition and humility). Schwartz (1992) grouped these values into four higher order values, which are bipolar dimensions. The first dimension is self-transcendence vs. self-enhancement, the second-dimension is openness to change vs. conservation. All the values can be placed somewhere in the continuum. In chapter 9, Schwartz's (1992) concept of values, one of the most used concepts in literature, will find application.

The second layer is systematically related to the first but could definitely not be reduced to it (Manczak et al., 2014). In relation to goals, Baumeister (1991) conceptualized if four basic needs are fulfilled, people regard their lives as full and successful. These needs are *purpose*, *value* and *justification*, *efficacy* and *self-worth*. *Purpose* means giving meaning to events and seeing causality in different events. *Value* and *justification* mean that the individual has found the right criteria to define their actions. *Efficacy* is the belief that one can make a difference in a positive way and lastly, *self-worth* is the regarding of the self better as others either by belonging to a group or by achieving something, that is admirable. Looking at the antecedents of Employee Advocacy, identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty, there can be seen parallels between those and the basic

needs, especially in regard to satisfaction. The fourth need is especially important when it comes to organisational identification. When the organisation is perceived as an elite, a membership helps to fulfil this need.

The third layer comprises the life narratives. It is the self as the autobiographical author. This layer is developed in late adolescence. Then, individuals start to compose life narratives about themselves, to make sense of their past (Habermas and Bluck, 2000) and determine their future ways, which can also be linked to *Purpose* in the concept of Baumeister (1991). McAdams (1999, p. 486) defines identity as “the internalized and evolving story that results from a person’s selective appropriation of past, present and future”. Stories give people the feeling that the numerous events in their lives have a coherence, they structure and organize lives and are as important for one’s personality as traits are (Bohanek, Marin, Fivush, and Duke, 2006; Conway and Holmes, 2004; Habermas and Bluck, 2000). McAdams (1996) even postulates that human traits find their expressions in stories. People, for example, also use stories to make sense of their careers (Bowdle and Gentner, 2005). Therefore, they use the typical arcs, such as transformation or rebirth, or a rags to the riches theme (Yost, Yoder, Helen, and Voetmann, 2015), which are going to be explained in more detail in chapter 4.2. McAdams (1996) identifies communion, agency, hedonic happiness or growth, as well as spirituality and calling as common life story themes. The life story is especially important for this research project, because it shows that narratives are not only a tool to access identity, if collective or individual, they are also part of this identity and therefore cannot be neglected in researching identity. The concept of the life story will be of relevance especially in chapter 9 when it is transferred to the organisation as Organisational Life Story, a newly developed concept.

These two identity models show that the individual and collective identity are linked and that we as humans can only perceive ourselves in relation to others. Forming an identity is an important aspect of existence and narratives help in making this identity coherent and meaningful. The focus of this research project is identity in the organisational context. The following chapter shows how organisational identity is formed.

3.3 Organisational Identity

3.3.1 *Definition*

Organisational identity is the first important concept when looking at the cultural and organisational factors that shape the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. Balmer (1998, p. 979) defined organisational identity as simply “what an organisation is” or “who we are” as an organisation agreeing with Albert, Ashforth, and Dutton (2000). According to Ashforth and Mael (1996), identity does not evolve randomly; it seeks self-knowledge, clear and accurate evidence about one’s attributes, self-enhancement, positive feedback about the self and self-improvement by moving towards an ideal self. Thereby organisational identity is strongly motivated by the needs of its members and their preferences. According to Ashforth and Mael (1996), it forms a more or less consistent system of pivotally beliefs, values and norms.

In their fundamental work about organisational identity, Albert and Whetten (1985) defined it as central, distinctive and enduring character of an organisation, which is based on aspects of mission, values, ideology and beliefs, as well as norms and competencies and customary ways of doing things. Here, it partly overlaps with the construct of organisational culture which will be discussed in the next chapter. On that note, Stensaker (2004) clarifies that organisational identity focusses not on how people act but more on how people make sense of their acts. Corley and Gioia (2003) here agree that organisational is about what provides meaning to the members of the organisation above the individual members, “a self-referential meaning, where the self is the collective” (Corley, Harquail, Pratt, Glynn, Fiol and Hatch, 2006, p. 87).

Other central issues on organisational identity research are, what it is and what it is not, whether it is the essence of an organisation or socially constructed (Corley et al., 2006). Robertson and Arachchige (2015) also see as main discussions in the field how it relates to constructs of reputation and image. In the following chapters first Albert and Whetten’s (1985) aspects central, distinctive and enduring are going to be explained and challenged. Then three theories that build the basis for organisational identity are presented: Institutional Theory, Social Con-

structivist Theory and Social Identity Theory. Another important aspect is the distinction from the perceived external image and reputation which will be discussed afterwards.

3.3.2 *Centrality, distinctiveness, endurance*

3.3.2.1 Centrality

When Albert and Whetten (1985) defined organisational identity as central, distinctive and enduring, they did not specify on the criteria for these claims, for example, what constitutes centrality or distinctiveness (He and Brown, 2013). It will become clear that all these three aspects are arguable and organisational identity moves within a continuum of centrality and multiplicity as well as sameness and distinctiveness and stability and evolution.

Ashforth and Mael (1996) saw the centrality of organisational identity in a core set of attributes that denote the essence of the organisation. Mujib (2017) sees the centrality also in the core attributes. These attributes are considered by the members as essential to the organisation (Whetten and Mackey, 2002). This could be tied to the mission according to the saying 'we are what we do' (Ashforth and Mael, 1996) or to institutional structures such as 'we are a bank' (Glynn and Marquis, 2007). Whetten and Mackey (2002) subsume them under the self-evaluation. This means without which attributes the organisation would be a different organisation. Corley et al. (2006) go so far as to say that it makes up the soul of the organisation. These central beliefs are widely shared within the organisation and by many organisation members. In Whetten and Godfrey's (1998) onion metaphor the centrality is shown by removing outer layers until only organisational identity, as the essence of the organisation remains.

It was often discussed whether the centrality of an organisation contradicts the possibility of an organisation having multiple identities. A lot of scholars followed that school of thought. Solomon and Casey (2017) draw on Mead's (1934) social categorization frameworks and argue that individuals have several identities which interact: social identities, ethnic identities etc. so they can simultaneously identify with several types of groups. According to Pratt and Foreman (2000), in the same way, organisations can have multiple claims or be hybrids with conflicting claims, which can also compete with each other. They can also come from

different collectives within the same organisation. Another aspect that is in favour of the belief that organisations can have multiple identities, is the phenomenon that not every member has the same perception of the organisation's identity (Martin, 2002).

The theory that organisations can have multiple identities also involves the question of how individuals within the organisation deal with these multiple maybe also contradicting identities. Bartels, Pruyn, de Jong and Joustra (2007, p. 175) describe organisations as "a melting pot of all kinds of sub-cultures and sub-identities". Empirical evidence of how these sub-identities interact is limited (Bartels et al., 2007). Some scholars suggest that it complicates organisational identification (Foreman and Whetten, 2002; Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Cheney, 1991). In a study of Foreman and Whetten (2002), participants saw two different identities a research organisation; namely a family identity with focus on traditions and altruism related to the own branch of the organisation they belonged to, and a business identity related to the overall organisation with focus on values such as profit maximization and self-interest. Reade (2001) found that in a multinational organisation, the local branch influences identity with local aspects such as local prestige, whereas the global organisation influences identity with umbrella aspects that are in turn influenced by local aspects. Several studies have shown that the stronger an employee identifies with one level of the organisation, the stronger the identification is with all other levels (Van Knippenberg and Van Schie, 2000; Scott, 1997). This will be particularly important in the empirical findings, because the researched organisation is also a sub-branch of a much larger corporation.

Pratt and Foreman (2000) see four possible ways of responding to multiple identity claims: 1) *compartmentalization*, acknowledging all claims but not bringing them together, 2) *deletion*, removing one or more of the claims, 3) *integration*, trying to produce a distinct new whole identity by bringing all claims together, and 4) *aggregation*, trying to create connections between the different identities. Thompson and Fine (1999) have a similar assumption of how members deal with these multiple identities: dividing them into portions, holding them in common and partaking in an agreement arrived at via consensus.

Summarizing the above it can be said that centrality is an important aspect of organisational identity, because it defines the core and shapes aspects of identity. But centrality, on the other hand, does not mean that there is only one identity within an organisation. Multiple different identities can coexist on different levels and branches of an organisation that interact with each other and have all their own central factors that shape them. This issue is particularly important for the research project because the researched organisation is also a sub-branch of a much larger corporation, a subsidiary.

3.3.2.2 Distinctiveness

In Albert and Whetten's (1985, p. 90) definition distinctiveness comprises of "the features that distinguish the organisation from others with which it may be compared". It delineates the boundaries to other organisations. Distinctiveness is an organisation's claim to uniqueness (Ashforth and Mael, 1996) and organisations actively look to positively distinguish from other organisations by comparing themselves with direct competitors (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Social comparisons flatter the organisation, because they have persisted during time unlike others (Ashforth and Mael, 1996).

But distinctiveness is also an aspect of Albert and Whetten's (1985) definition that is argued in research. Some researchers believe that distinction can only happen by comparison: Gioia (1998) goes so far as to say that organisations maintain their identity through interaction with other organisations. Thereby they are both relational and comparative (Tajfel and Turner, 1986), which means that organisations do not exist in an absolute sense; they vary with context (Ashforth and Mael, 1996). In order to distinguish from others, they must first be defined; only then a comparison can take place. Organisations must follow rules and norms to be able to be put into a group of which they then can distance from. So, distinctiveness not only looks at how the organisation differs from others but also how similar it is to others (Snihur, 2016). Brewer (1991) sees the reason for this in two competing human needs: the need for assimilation; how we are similar to others, and the need for uniqueness; how we are different from others. He thereby created the 'principle of optimal distinctiveness' as serving both of those needs in order to prevent dysfunctional self-references or loss of other focusses, meaning that this avoids being either too inwardly or too outwardly focussed.

Summarizing the above, it can be said that distinctiveness is an important factor of organisational identity. But it does not come without negotiation. An organisational identity cannot be perceived in negligence of other organisations that stand in relation to it, be it as competitors or suppliers. The factor of distinctiveness is especially important for this research project and will be discussed in chapter 7.3, when the renegotiation of identity between the subsidiary and the parent company is analysed.

3.3.2.3 Endurance

The stability of organisational identities is probably the most disputable of the three factors. In their definition of organisational identity, Albert and Whetten (1985) believe that it is stable and would change only with major disruptions of organisational life. They have the conception that the enduring characteristics could be drawn to the organisation's continuity over time (Mujib, 2017). This conception derives from drawing on personal or individual identity that also endures throughout a person's life, at least within some attributes like race, gender or physical attributes (Robertson and Arachchige, 2015). The belief that organisational identity is enduring also builds on the aspect that the members of the organisation are resistant to change and therefore foster a certain inertia (Ravasi and Philipps, 2011). Erikson (1963) coined the theory of the social psychological approach to identity. In his theory identity formation happens in the 5th (adolescence) of an eight-stage process from birth until old age. In his opinion, this identity formation comes from an interplay between past experiences and future expectations and is essentially "a subjective sense and observable quality of personal sameness and continuity, paired with some belief in the sameness and continuity of some shared world image" (Erikson 1970, p. 12). The model of Erikson (1963) will be relevant again in chapter 9.2, when the conceptual metaphor of the research project is discussed. Robertson and Ararachchige (2015) draw the connection to group identity and see also here the defining sameness in objectives, rules and characteristic features and attributes. Whetten and Mackey (2002) go so far as to say, that if it changes, it is not identity. But Erikson (1963) also sees the evolution of identity, namely in the interplay between this core identity and environmental process.

Here is also a growing school of thought that sees the organisation as evolving entity. According to He and Brown (2013), it does not only answer the question 'who we are' but also 'whom we want to become'. Ashforth and Mael (1996, p. 26) perceive that like individuals also organisations acquire multiple identities over time and "are constantly in the process of becoming", similar to individuals that are growing up and growing old. Ashforth and Mael (1996) see identity enriched when the organisation grows. In their opinion, it gains depth with more experience and breadth, when it copes with environmental complexity.

The change an organisation goes through is an important subject of organisational life. It deals with existential questions of the organisations' persistence (Corley et al., 2006). The school of thought that believes identity change is possible mostly addresses questions of how change happens and how it is dealt with by the members. Corley (2005 in Corley et al., 2006) suggests five dimensions of change of organisational identity. The *nature of the changes* addresses questions of which aspects of identity are changing, how the change is symbolized and are only the labels or also the underlying meanings of identity changing. The second dimension, *frequency of change*, asks questions about the tempo of the change and whether it is episodic or continuous. The *speed of change* asks about the pace of change and how long it takes for the change to occur. And the last dimension asks about the *mode and motives for change* and the unit of identity change.

Believing that organisations go through gradual and evolutionary change also gives room for theorists who argue that identities are essentially narratives that are "crafted to provide meaning and closure to phases of one's life" (Ashforth and Mael, 1996, p. 27). So also, organisations tell the stories about who they are, where they came from and where they are going (Ashforth and Mael, 1996). But narratives do not only exist within organisations to tell their history, but they can also be interpreted and thereby generate multiplicity of perception of identity and help self-understanding (Robertson and Arachchige, 2015). So, narratives encompass all three aspects of organisational identities, the perspective of centrality and multiplicity, the aspect of distinctiveness and assimilation and the aspect of enduringness and change. This conception will be taken one step further in chapter 9 when the new concept of the Organisational Life Story, which has been developed in this research project, is presented.

Summarizing the above, it can be said that there is an academic body that believes if the identity changes it is not identity. But there is also a group of academics that sees the change of organisational identity as an important aspect, because like humans they grow up and grow old. Here, narratives play an important role because they provide meaning to the change. But they also help in understanding centrality and distinctiveness.

3.3.3 *Existing theories foundational of organisational identity*

3.3.3.1 Social Identity Theory

There is a growing academic body that argues that identity is a complex system and can only be understood by taking different kinds of identity into account. Reza (2009) sees the interplay between social identities, personal identities, role identities, relational identities, organisational identity, national identities and cultural identities as constructive for an individual's identity. The role identity is, for example, constructed by gender, status and skills. Mead (1934) was already persuaded that there is a mutual influence between society and self, and the self consists of different fractured parts; some of which are independent, some interdependent, and sometimes different parts are even conflicting (Reza, 2009). All these efforts of categorizing and self-defining ultimately serve the question 'who am I?' (Turner, 1982). Identity is a complex system that is not only shaped by our traits and abilities, but also by our relationships and memberships in groups. In this chapter, the persisting theories around organisational identity are shown.

Goffman (1959) was the first to use the term social identity. He used it with two other concepts, personal and ego identity. The personal identity is what differentiates the individual from others, the ego identity is the conscious self. For the social identity, the self is a social construction which depends on the situation. Tajfel (1981, p. 255) describes social identity as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group." According to Tajfel (1981), the relevance of the social identity for the individual is based on emotional attachment and valence of the group. This could mean that, for example, the social identity regarding an organisation is strong because of the time one spends there and its valence to it, on the other hand, the social identity of a fan club regarding a special celebrity could also be strong, because of emotional attachment.

Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) bring social identity in connection to identification and commitment. They rely on Ellemers, Kortekaas, and Ouwerkerk (1999, p. 372) who propose three components contributing to social identity: “A cognitive component (a cognitive awareness of one’s membership in a social group- self-categorization), an evaluative component (a positive or negative value connotation attached to this group membership - group self-esteem), and an emotional component (a sense of emotional involvement with the group- affective commitment)”. Here affective commitment and group self-esteem are the motivational forces and self-categorization is the cognitive basis (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000).

According to Rao, Davis, and Ward (2000), Social Identity Theory works with the concepts of *categorization*, *identification* and *comparison*. Social categories are “discontinuous divisions of the social world into distinct perceptual classes that provide actors with a systematic means of defining themselves and others” (Rao et al. 2000, p. 269). The *categorization* helps individuals to anticipate expected and appropriate behaviours. Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that social identity works by sorting the self and others in various social categories, such as religion, organisational membership, nationality, gender etc. Everyone has different schemas and patterns of assignment. The different categories are based on root characteristics. According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), the categorization serves two functions, segmentation and localisation. On the one hand, putting people into different segments helps to simplify the world around us and make sense of it. On the other hand, one can define the own position in the environment.

The *identification* in Rao et al.’s (2000) concept, lets them see themselves as part of and belonging to the group. *Comparison* helps them to clarify their membership by distinguishing between an in-group and out-group (Rao et al., 2000), thereby the in-group is seen as better than the out-group. Often also through evaluative judgments that are marked by bias and see the out-group in a negative light (Brown, Condor, Mathews, Wade, and Williams, 1986). This is called inter-group differentiation. Reza (2009, p. 91) describes that “self-identities and social identities can only be understood in relation to the meanings ascribed to social categories and the salience of in-groups and out-groups that emerge from the social context in which the person is situated.” Salience, in this relation, can be understood as the activation a specific group evokes in the individual (Reed, 2002). Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reiner and Wetherell (1987) even go so far as to say that

the more salience a social identity has, the less important the personal identity. Here, the social identity becomes a paradigm for behaviour more than own values or traits might do or as Stets and Burke (2000, p. 231) put it, “depersonalization, or seeing the self as embodiment of the in-group prototype”.

When the in-group is suddenly not seen as good as the out-group, because it receives negative feedback, identity members according to Tajfel and Turner (1979) respond with three strategies: *Social mobility*, *social creativity* and *social change*. *Social mobility* is the exit from the in-group and the strategy most often used, *social creativity* makes the group member change the evaluation of the group, by changing the basis of comparison and making the in-group favourable again. *Social change* is the strategy when the members of the in-group compete directly with the out-group to define the winner of the competition as the more favourable one. According to Rao et al. (2000), individuals only use other strategies than exit, when exit is impossible. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) link in-group favouritism comprised of affective commitment and group self-esteem to citizenship behaviours and point out that the greater the feeling of belongingness and attachment the greater the Organisational Citizenship performance. Social Identity describes the basic social processes responsible for organisational identity. The concept helps to understand organisational identity better.

3.3.3.2 Social constructivist vs. institutional theory

There are two branches of theory that constitute organisational identity: Institutional theory and social constructivism. In institutional theory, identity is seen as institutional claims that distinct the organisation from another (Whetten, 2003), whereas in social constructivism, it consists of the shared beliefs and understandings about the features of the organisation (Gioia, Schultz and Corley, 2000). In the following, the two theories are first contrasted, then an integrated approach is shown.

In social constructionism, sometimes also referred to as social cognition or interpretive approach (He and Brown, 2013), reality is not something naturally given that can be objectively assessed, but rather something that is socially constructed (Nica and Potcovaru, 2014). “Individuals actively and symbolically articulate the world around them, representations of reality are subjective and relative” (Nica and Potcovaru, 2014, p. 57). Followers of the social constructivist of Mead’s

(1934) school of thought think that identity is shared perceptions among members (Whetten and Mackey, 2002), encompassing the shared beliefs of an organisation (Hogg and Terry, 2001). These shared beliefs are built through the interaction of the members (Elstak, 2008), so they can be spoken of as a perceived organisational identity and not a set of collective traits (Whetten, 2006). Here, the identities are “created, threatened, bolstered reproduced and overhauled” (Alvesson, Ashcraft and Thomas, 2008, p. 11).

Organisational identity in social constructionist perspective is the social constructed product of relationships among the members within the organisation. The image of who the organisation is, is created by the individual views of the members (Corley et al., 2006). Here, the most important question is how the identity is constructed (Nica and Potcovaru, 2014); how the members of the organisation perceive this identity and which individuals matter in interpreting the identity (Whetten and Mackey, 2002). Pratt (2003) opposes *aggregate* perspectives, which are composed of what resides in the individual minds of members and *gestalt* versions which suggest that they reside not in the minds but in the relationship ties that bind people together.

Looking at the perception of the criteria of Albert and Whetten (1985), according to the social constructivist perspective, sense-making processes form a shared understanding when members interact and discuss their opinions on central and distinctive attributes of the organisation (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). Social constructionism believes that these shared understandings are renegotiated from time to time among the members and thereby there is more emphasis on change than endurance looking at the continuum.

In institutional theory organisational identity is formed of a set of institutional claims (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). These claims are regardless of those of the organisation’s individual members (Elstak, 2008). The members can only develop their own perception of this given identity. Sometimes institutional theory is also referred to as social actor theory, because social actors do not act as individuals but as a collective which possesses the rights and responsibilities as if the collective was a single individual (Czarniawska, 1997).

In social actor perspective, respectively institutional theory, the sense-giving comes from organisational self-definitions, these in turn, come from leaders or

other members in form of a consistent narrative. These narratives are legitimate and official, whereas in social constructionist theory the narratives come from the members and are interpreted and retold leading to a multiplicity of meanings. In institutional theory, these claims are explicitly stated (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006), whereas in social constructionist theory, on the contrary, these beliefs could be tacit and implicit. Looking at Albert and Whetten's (1985) criteria, identity is lasting and resistant to change (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). "Advocates of this perspective generally conceive of organisational identity as a set of emotionally laden, stable, and enduring self-descriptions or characterizations" (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006, p. 435). The criteria that make an organisation distinctive and are central to it are defined by the leaders who construct the collective sense of self (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006).

Elstak (2008) points out that past research focussed rather on the social constructionist approach than the institutional theory approach. So the focus of research had only been towards the perceived organisational identity. An integrated approach seems to be timely, since sense-giving as well as sense-making equally happens within organisations. Only a few studies examine the interaction between socially constructed and institutionally claimed identity types. Ravasi and Schultz (2006, p. 436) point out that only an integrated approach could give an accurate understanding of organisational identity, because there is always a "between who members say they are as an organisation (identity claims) and who they believe they are (identity understandings)". They see claims and understanding rather as two interrelated dimensions. In their processual model of identity, they put the disrupting changes that challenge the identity at the beginning and bring the members to think about how the organisation is perceived externally and the cultural artefacts of the organisation. This leads to a revised sense-making and questioning of what the organisation really is about and revised identity claims, which then leads to a revised definition what the organisation really is about, where claims about culture and about the image are embedded, leading in turn to a revised identity understanding among the members.

3.3.3.3 Perceived organisational identity vs. construed external image

Building on the relational and comparative factor of organisational identities, focussing only on the internal processes would not live up to the complexity of organisational identities (Corley et al., 2006). Hatch and Schultz (2000) relate the organisational identity concept to the organisational image, arguing that they overlap, since identity is also constructed by the outside not only by the inside. In Dutton and Dukerich's (1991) definition organisational identity is perceived as the central, distinctive and enduring aspects, and construed external image is what members of the organisation believe outsiders think of the organisation. It is also known as "perceived external prestige" (Fuller, Marler, Hester, Frey and Relyea, 2006, p. 704) and seen as the reflection of the public opinion. Dutton et al. (1994) linked the members' identification to their belief that the group was seen favourably by outsiders. They saw a construed external image as attractive when (1) individuals believe that outsiders see the organisation in a unique and distinctive way, (2) outsiders view the organisation like the self-concept of the individual, helping them to maintain a consistent self-concept, and (3) it helps the individual to maintain a positive self-concept. This also relates to the external factors of the antecedents of Employee Advocacy, which seem to be linked also to organisational identity. This is another reason to examine the organisational factors more closely.

Hatch and Schultz (2000) also plead for a multiplicity of images that constitute an identity. According to Dutton et al. (1994), one can thereby not speak of a collective identity that represents all members shared beliefs about what is distinctive, central and enduring. So, there is the construed external image and also the internal individual image. Dukerich et al. (2002) integrate the concepts in a later article and propose that the attractiveness of the construed external image and the attractiveness of the perceived organisational identity influence the strength of organisational identity, which then in turn influences the willingness to engage in cooperative behaviours.

According to Albert and Whetten (1985, p. 269), organisations need to balance internal and external focus: "The greater the discrepancy between the ways an organisation views itself and the way outsiders view it, the more the health of the organisation will be impaired". Mujib (2017) goes so far as to say that excessive

focus on either narcissism or hyper adaptation can ultimately lead to an organisation's failure. Another negative effect can be that if the members see the construed external image as unfavourable, they can experience stress and depression (Dutton et al., 1994).

3.3.3.4 Constructs followed in this research project

Figure 8 shows the conception of the different models relating to organisational identity. The most central model for organisational identity is social identity theory. Having the knowledge of belonging to a group and then knowledge of the shared meaning the group consists of is central for social identity theory. It is the most fundamental of the theories presented in this chapter. The understanding of a collective, social identity forms the basis for shared perceptions (Social constructionist theory) and institutional claims (Institutional theory). These two theories are only two manifestations of a collective identity with emphasis on different aspects; either the individuals acting as a collective or the collective acting as individual. In this research project, an integrated approach of institutional theory and social constructionist is followed, indeed the focus will lie on the shared sense-making of the employees within the organisation, but also the sense-giving of higher hierarchies within the organisation will be considered. This will be of importance in chapter 6.

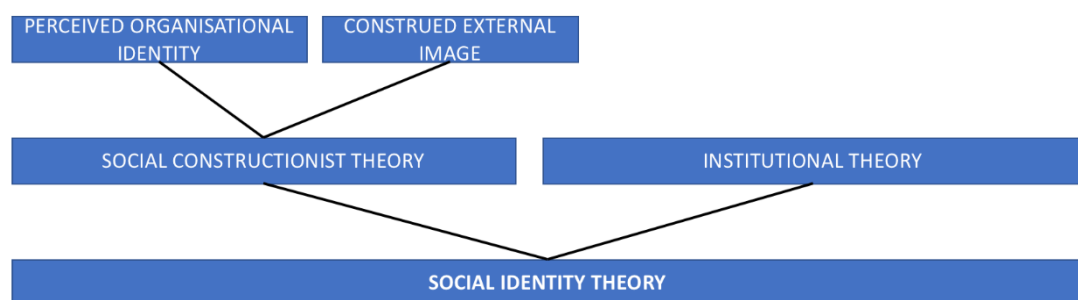


Figure 8: The basic theories for organisational identity in this research project.

Also, perceived organisational identity and construed external image are only the consequences of social constructionist theory. They describe the interplay between internal and external focus of an organisation and thereby rely on the principles of social identity theory and social constructionist theory, because the focus lies on the collective assumptions about the organisations, either from the inside or from the outside. The basics of social identity theory therefore will be respected in all further aspects of the research project, since it is the most important theoretical construct.

3.3.4 Models of organisational identity

In the following chapter organisational identity is looked at from a more practical perspective. First, three models of organisational identity with their manifestations are presented and compared. Secondly, the possible outcomes of organisational identity are outlined. Margolis and Hansen (2002) developed a model of organisational identity that incorporates as core attributes of an organisation its philosophy and its purpose. Figure 9 shows the model of Margolis and Hansen (2002) with its different layers. The inner layer encompasses purpose and philosophy, in the outer layers of the onion model, Margolis and Hansen (2002) see the application of attributes which they do not count as organisational identity, namely priorities, practices and projections. Margolis and Hansen (2002) describe as the purpose of the organisation, why it is important that the organisation exists and as philosophy, the source of how members do their work in a way that is different from the rest. The application of the attributes is more fluid and can be modified and changed more often such as the priorities, which are the values that guide the organisation through specific phases, such as customer orientation or sustainability. Practices are the internal systems, procedures and services. Projections in their view, are the external images of the organisation which also are applying the core values. In their model, they adhere quite strictly to Albert and Whetten's (1985) definition of organisational identity but leaving out the aspect of endurance. The application of the core attributes seems to be derived from organisational culture and organisational image models without naming those.

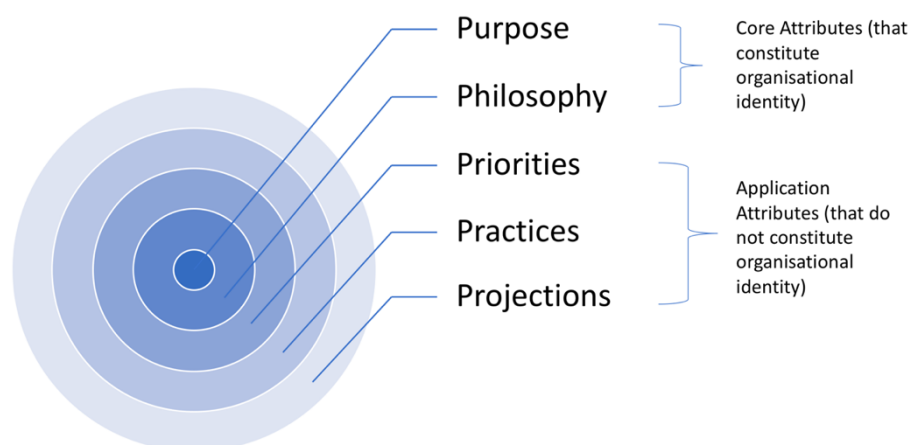


Figure 9: Margolis and Hansen's (2002) model of organisational identity.

Another frequently used model is the vision-culture-image alignment model of Hatch and Schultz (2008), which they developed to improve brand creation and management. This simple model in Figure 10 shows that there has to be a coherence between the vision - of what top managers want to accomplish, the culture - what has been known or believed by the employees, and the image - what external stakeholders perceive of the organisation. They hereby think of *vision*, *culture* and *images* as pieces of a jigsaw puzzle, which need to form a whole. They also name different gaps that can exist: The *vision-culture* gap, which can arise if the vision does not inspire all employees or does not live up to its values in practice. The *vision-image* gap can arise if the organisation fails to live up to the stakeholders' expectations and the values are not attractive to the stakeholders. The *image-culture* gap describes when employees do not care about what the stakeholders think of the organisation and do not interact with them in good ways. The model shows not only the relationship between organisational identity and culture it also shows its interrelatedness to the other concepts of image and vision. However, it is not described what organisational identity constitutes in the core, as in Margolis and Hansen's (2002) model.



Figure 10: Culture, vision, image alignment model of organisational identity by Hatch and Schultz (2008).

Another model of organisational identity is the Organisational DNA Framework, which was introduced by Booz & Company. The DNA shape in Figure 11 shows four different bases of organisational DNA, which each have a formal and an informal component (Kronenberg, 2011). The first base is *decisions* (formal) / *norms* (informal). It describes on the formal side the decision processes and analytics and on the informal side the values, standards and unwritten rules as well as habits and routines. The second base are *motivators* (formal) / *commitments*

(informal). The motivators in an organisation are its career models, monetary rewards and talent processes. The commitments are shared visions, individual aspirations and its sources of pride. The third base are *information* (formal) / *mind-sets* (informal). Information in an organisation is according to the model composed of KPIs and knowledge management. Mindsets are influenced by shared languages, assumptions and biases and mental models. The last base is *structure* (formal) / *networks* (informal). Structures are roles and responsibility as well as business processes. Networks are relationships and collaboration and the design of teams.

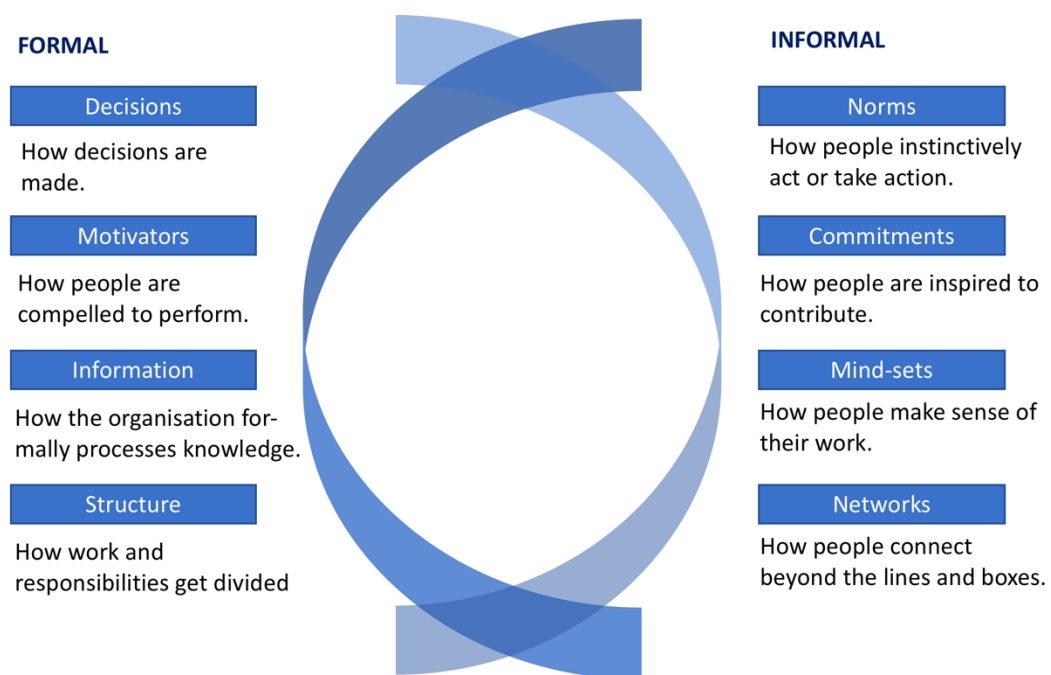


Figure 11: Organisational DNA model after Booz and Company (Kronenberg, 2011).

This third model is probably the most concrete and holistic one of the three. It manages to integrate the social constructionist perspective with the informal components, and the institutional theory perspective with the formal components. However, one contentious point of the model is that it looks at the organisation from a management perspective, trying to influence each and every aspect of the bases to achieve a greater performance. This leads to neglecting aspects such as the culture and the company's philosophy. It also completely neglects the external views on the organisation.

3.3.5 Conclusion

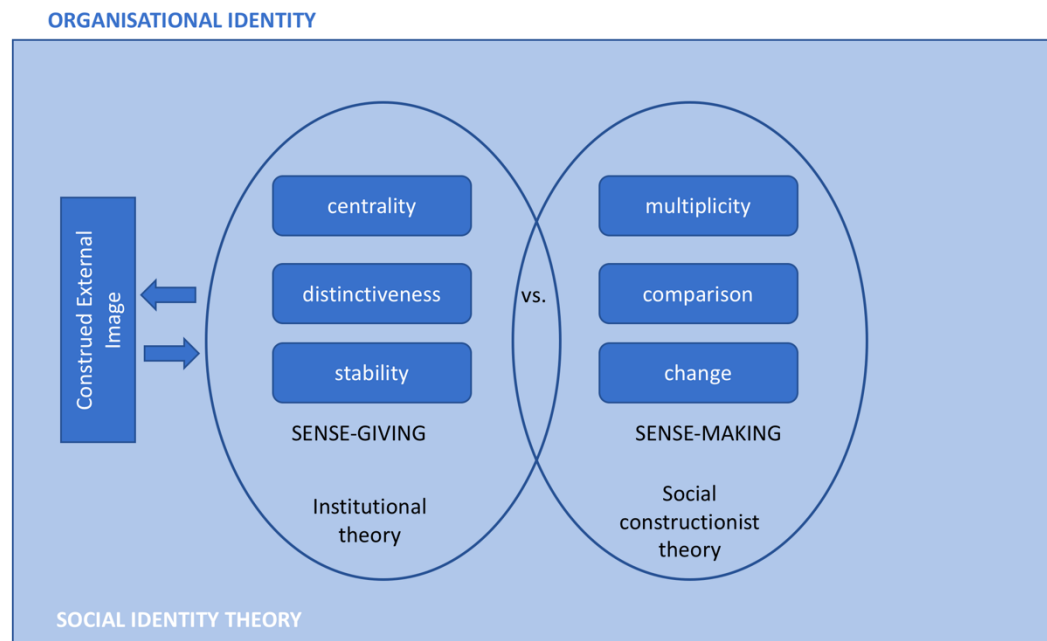


Figure 12: Construct of organisational identity.

In conclusion, it can be said that organisational identity comprises the core attributes of an organisation. Figure 12 shows how the different theories relate to each other. The core attributes are moving between the poles of centrality and multiplicity, distinctiveness and comparison, and stability and change. They also contribute to sense-making among the members of an organisation which follows a social constructionist perspective and to sense-giving of organisational leadership which follows the institutional theory perspective. Social identity theory forms the basic theory of organisational identity, because it describes the knowledge of belonging to a group and the shared meanings this group is understood to have. In terms of answering the research question it will be especially important how sense-making among the members and sense-giving by management takes place. The distinctiveness of the organisations, as well as organisational change, are two central aspects which will be addressed in chapter 7.2 and 7.3.

3.4 Organisational culture

3.4.1 Definition of culture

There are different approaches to organisational culture. Whilst the sociological approach assumes that organisations have cultures, the anthropological approach takes the view that organisations are culture (Cameron and Ettington 1988), which outlines how different the views of culture and its relevance are seen

in research. Cameron and Ettington (1988) define culture as the social glue binding organisations together.

Also, assumptions differ in how objective or subjective culture is and how consciously or unconsciously ceremonies, rituals, stories and language are perceived and understood (Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983). Schein (2010) points out that different organisational cultures vary in both *strength* and *stability*; meaning by *strength* that in weak cultures, there is less consensus about the way things are done. *Stability* means that unstable cultures may change rapidly over time; the more intense and more emotional the actual history of the organisation is, the stronger the culture. Stability and change are two aspects that will be addressed in chapter 7.2.

There are different assumptions about culture. Some researchers emphasize more the attitudinal aspect of culture, which manifests in the values and beliefs its members have (Lahiry, 1994; Goffee and Jones, 1998). Goffee and Jones (1998) describe organisational culture as an unconscious process that involves thinking and decision-making as well as emotions and behaviour. This means culture is first of all something prevailing in every employee's head. Other authors focus more on the behavioural aspects of culture, that manifest in norms and practices as well as rituals and ceremonies which are held by the organisation regularly (Ashkanasy, Widerom, and Peterson, 2000; Van Maanen, 1979).

Another difference in the definitions is the origin of culture. While Goffee and Jones (1998) presume that culture is just a mix of every single member's existing values, Schein (2010) emphasizes that culture must first be verified by the members, and then is taught to others. Hence, an evaluation of culture takes place. This assumption differs from other views, that most of the culture functions unconsciously (Goffee and Jones, 1998). According to Marchand, Haines, and Detras-Gauthier (2013, p. 443), organisational culture is "formed through meaningful accumulated learning at the organisational level"; experiences of success and failure are retrieved and incorporated into the culture of an organisation and shared by the members.

Alvesson (2002) refers the differing interpretations and definitions of culture to the different purposes of the publications and agrees also with Hofstede (1999) that there are a few things that authors will agree on the following characteristics

of the organisational and corporate culture construct: it is holistic, historically determined, socially construed and difficult to change. Trice and Beyer (1993) also add that it is not only difficult to change but also difficult to grasp and that organisational culture is always related to understandings, beliefs and other intangibles.

Whilst depending on the perspective the overall importance of culture is argued, there is no arguing about the importance of culture to distinguish the organisation from others, to make it unique (Martin, Feldman, Hatch and Sitkin, 1983; Mosley, 2007; Parasuraman and Deshpande, 1984). Culture gives employees orientation and a feeling of belonging together. The aspect of orientation in culture is very strong. Culture provides structure and meaning to members (Schein, 2010) and also affects the commitment; the bond the members have with the organisation. The stronger a culture is, the more its members agree with it and commit to its values (Sorensen, 2002). If the commitment is strong the goal alignment is enhanced, which means organisational culture can influence how people set personal and professional goals, perform tasks and administer resources to achieve them (Lahiry, 1994).

Summarizing the above, it can be stated, that there is as much discord as there is agreement within the theory of organisational culture. There is discord whether organisational culture is objective or subjective, conscious or unconscious, or affects more behaviour or attitude. However, the scholars agree that culture is holistic, historically determined, socially construed and difficult to change.

3.4.2 *Sub-cultures in organisations*

"It would be a mistake to think that any particular organisation has only a single homogeneous culture" (Trice and Beyer, 1993, p. 173).

Although most of the studies concerning cultures saw organisational cultures as monoliths, there is a growing academic body (Li and Jones, 2010) that also takes the concept of subcultures into account. Lok, Westwood and Crawford (2005), for example, have studied the ward culture of nurses in hospitals, Adkins and Caldwell (2004) studied subcultures of competency groups in a consulting firm and Kekale, Fecikova and Kitaigorodskaja (2004) examined if different age groups have different subcultures. However, the studies are each very different from the other and a structured comparative review has not been made so far (Li and

Jones, 2010). In this research project, the subcultures are especially important because the research object is a subsidiary of a big multinational corporation that has an own culture as well as it is taking over parts of culture from the parent company.

Trice and Morand (1991, p.1) define subcultures as “distinct clusters of understandings, behaviours and cultural forms that identify groups of people in the organisation”. These clusters are distinct from the greater organisational culture as they either carry the understandings to the extremes or stray from them. Egan (2008) proposes that several mutually compatible subcultures can exist at the same time. Each subculture has its own values and beliefs. They act as subsets in an overarching context. This overarching context may be challenged if the subcultures are particularly strong and the organisational culture is not strong enough. Then subculture has a higher priority than the organisational culture (Brewer, 1993). Lok et al. (2005, p. 496) see subcultures as a “more immediate and engaged work context for people”. This would imply that they are closer and more focused on the everyday life of the employees than the organisational culture. Therefore, employees would rather identify with the subculture than with the organisational culture (Lok et al. 2005). This will be especially important in chapter 6.3.3, when identification and its link to culture are analysed.

Egan (2008) draws from the organisational culture index that was developed by Wallach (1983) to describe organisational subcultures. The organisational culture index includes the *Innovative Culture* that is creative, exciting and dynamic and offers constant stimulation, but also is adverse for stressed and burned-out employees. The *Supportive Culture* is open and warm and treats employees like an extended family. People in this culture are friendly and help each other. Wallach (1983, p. 33) describes it as “warm and fuzzy place”. The *Bureaucratic Culture* is hierarchical, departmental and cautious. Everyone knows their place and there are clear lines of responsibility and authority that may not be overstepped. Egan (2008) sees subcultures as an opportunity for cultures with less positive attitudes, such as the bureaucratic culture. A supportive or innovative subculture, for example, in the research department could motivate people that are in the *Bureaucratic Culture*.

In a case study, Hofstede (1998) examined a mass insurance company and identified three subcultures in different departments of the organisation. "The split into three subcultures fits amazingly well with a theoretical prediction by Jones 1983." (Hofstede 1998, p. 9). He uses Jones's (1983) three types of culture, which mainly consist of two dimensions: work standardization and process routine. The *Productive Culture* has complete process routine and high work is standardization. The *Bureaucratic Culture* has non-routine elements in the tasks but still has formal areas of authority and specified processes. The *Professional Culture* has non-routine and difficult tasks, hence fixed processes do not work. Hofstede (1998) found the *Productive Culture* in the administrative department of the insurance company, where a lot of paperwork had to be done. The *Bureaucratic Culture* was found in the subculture of the customer interface departments, who had new situations at all-time but fixed rules for behaviour. The *Professional Culture* was found in the management and specialist departments of the firm. There, the employees acted very pragmatic and result-oriented, also parochial but not employee oriented.

The case study of Hofstede shows that different subcultures can exist in one organisation, which can arise from different structures, different importance of strategy, or even from different leadership. The concept of subcultures is especially important in this research project because the distinction from the parent company is always an important issue for the employees of the subsidiary.

3.4.3 *Anthropological vs. sociological conceptions of organisational culture*

As mentioned before, in organisational research, there are two conceptions of culture: a sociological view that says organisations have culture and an anthropological view that says organisations are cultures (Cameron and Ettington, 1998). Figure 13 shows what this means for the overall importance of culture. In the sociological view, culture is seen as a variable; it influences the organisation in the same way the structure, the technology and the business concept do. The interplay between these different variables forms the organisation as a whole. One can be taken out and has a measurable aspect. Smircich (1983) describes two different forms of variables: culture as independent variable and as internal variable. As independent variable, it is a background factor (Ajiferuke and

Boddewyn, 1970) or a broad framework (Cummings and Schmidt, 1972). As an internal variable, organisations are seen as culture producing phenomena (Deal and Kennedy, 1982), they produce not only goods but also culture. Hence, it can be seen as an organisational outcome (Smircich, 1983). Hofstede (2015) shares the conception that organisations have cultures. He argues that the connection to a group is deeper, the earlier the member enters the group. Hence, national groups are the most internalized and strongest cultures and organisational cultures since entered after adolescence are only superficial. He admits that employees of Google enjoy the high status the organisation gives them, but it would not deeply affect their deep assumptions.

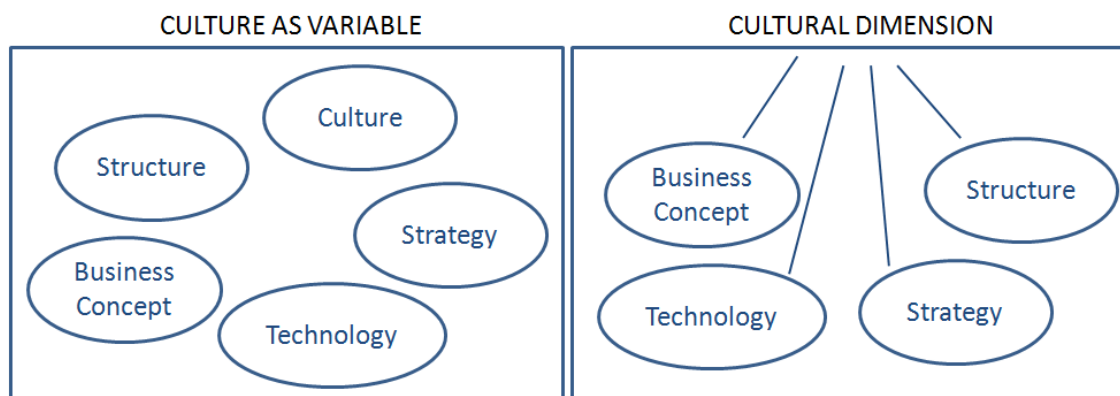


Figure 13: The sociological and anthropological perception of organisational culture. Author's presentation based on Smircich (1983).

In the anthropological view, all the aspects, such as business concept, technology and strategy are part of the culture; are cultural dimensions. Culture influences all of them. In the anthropological view, culture serves as a metaphor for the whole organisation. Even objective things like the number of employees or the turnover can be seen from a cultural perspective. For example, the limited size of an organisation can be seen as family-like (Alvesson, 2002). In the anthropological view, there are also different conceptions. In cognitive anthropology, culture consists of shared knowledge (Goodenough, 1971), in symbolic anthropology, it is a system of shared meaning (Geertz, 1973) and in structural anthropology and psychodynamics culture is a manifestation and expression of the mind's subconscious operation (Rossi and Higgins, 1980). Trice and Beyer (1993, p. 21) combine these views by saying cultures, which naturally occur, are "real systems of thought, feeling, and behaviour that inevitably result from sustained human interaction". They argue against the conception of culture as a metaphor, by saying it is a too broad concept and too similar to the organisation itself.

Or as Pacanowsky and O'Donnel-Trujillo (1983, p. 146), put it: "Organisational culture is not just another piece of the puzzle, it is the puzzle".

3.4.4 Models and manifestations of organisational culture

3.4.4.1 Simple models

There are numerous researchers that tried to fit culture into a model by identifying several types and dimensions and their manifestations of culture. The academic body is growing steadily. In this chapter, a selection of models with their advantages and their limitations is shown. The models have been chosen according to the relevance in research they have, their uniqueness of interpretation of the culture, or the closeness to the topic of this research project.

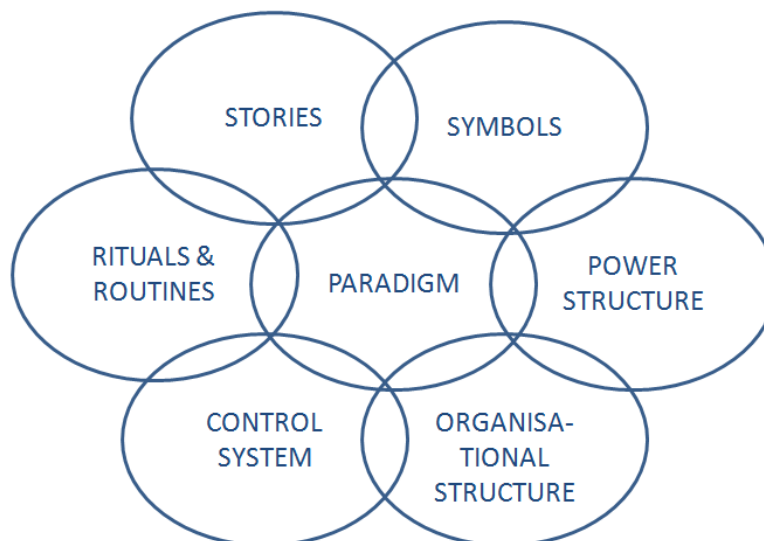


Figure 14: Cultural Web of Organisations by Johnson and Scholes (1993).

The analysis of the different models starts with the simple models. Johnson and Scholes (1993) developed the cultural web, see Figure 14. The simple model shows the different manifestations of culture and that everything is intertwined, while the paradigm of the culture forms the core. The paradigm in this case is the organisational purpose based on values and is presented as a mission. Control systems mean procedures written down or not controlling what happens. The symbols in a culture display, for example, logos and designs. The stories are the anecdotes which employees tell in an organisation and constitute meaning. Here stories are shown as important and consistent manifestation of culture with the same relevance as structure. The routines and rituals are the automatisms such as management meetings. The organisational structures as part of the cultural

web describe hierarchies and the allocation of work. The power structures describe the kinds of power that apply in the organisation; they define how many people are in charge.

Johnson and Scholes' (1993) model successfully shows the culture effects of different areas and their overlaps. The paradigm being in the core is another well-elaborated part of the model. However, it falls short on relating this core back to organisational identity and in describing the different manifestations of this dimensions and the difference in importance they might have. In this model, it seems like they are all equally important. But other models such as Hofstede's show that they might happen on different layers. Another point is that the structure takes up a huge part of the model; three of the seven circles are about the structure of some areas of the organisation. Furthermore, some other important aspects of culture like cultural actors or heroes don't appear at all in the model. Bushardt, Glascoff, and Doty (2011) included in their manifestations more emotional terms such as ceremonies, which are rituals but more solemn, heroes that accept the prizes given in the ceremonies and storytellers who tell stories about these heroes. They also mention gatekeepers who monitor and affect information flows. Hence, both conceptions of cultural manifestations seem incomplete. The model of Johnson and Scholes (1993) was chosen because it values the importance as stories and is thereby close to the research project.

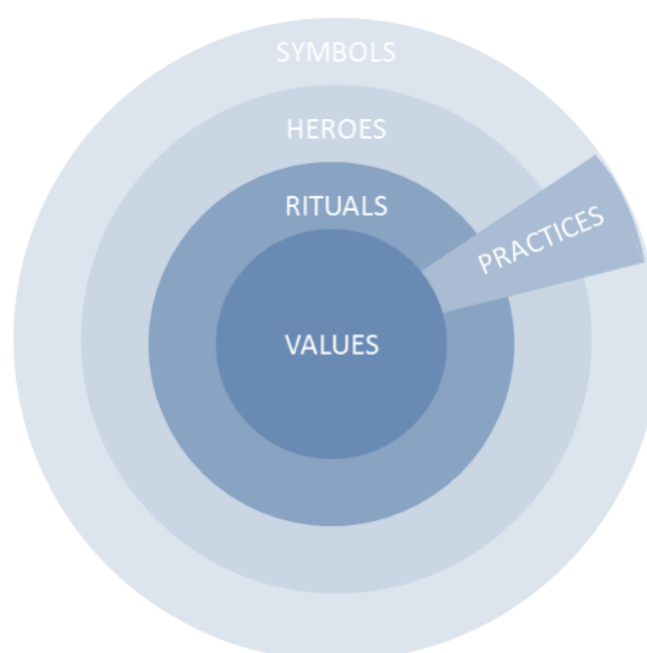


Figure 15: Cultural Onion (Hofstede et al., 1990).

Another important model is Hofstede et al.'s (1990) cultural onion (see Figure 15), which shows the various levels of culture. They separate culture in visible and invisible layers for an observer. The three outer layers: symbols, heroes and rituals, can be seen by an observer. Hofstede et al. (1990) describe symbols as words, gestures, pictures and objects that comprise a particular meaning in the specific culture. Heroes are important persons in the culture. Here, it doesn't matter if they are real or fictive, dead or alive: The heroes possess characteristics that are valued in the culture and are thus models for behaviour. The values here form the core of a culture; they are not observable, because they are unconscious feelings that manifest in the behaviour.

In the same study, Hofstede et al. (1990) identified six dimensions which are important for the manifestations of different organisational cultures. They divide between cultures that are more process-oriented and result-oriented cultures, between parochial vs. professional cultures, normative vs. pragmatic cultures, loose vs. tight cultures, employee vs. job oriented, open vs. closed cultures. Hofstede et al. (1990) argue that the first four dimensions are industry related, whereas the last two cultures are independent of the industry. This model was chosen because it is a very relevant concept in literature, includes the concept of values and puts the different manifestations in relation to other, which the model of Johnson and Scholes (1993) falls short of. On the other hand, one might criticize that the model does not address the relations of structure and culture, and also does not mention organisational stories.

Lahiry (1994) defines three different types of culture: Constructive culture, passive and defensive cultures and aggressive cultures. In the first type, interaction with others is furthered: Dominants are achievement and reward, self-actualization and encouraging employees to fulfil their wishes. In the passive and defensive culture, the own security is the most important thing; interaction with others is shaped by this belief, conflicts therefore are avoided, and behaviour must be approved by others. In the third type of culture, status is very important: The culture is shaped by power over others and the interaction is very competitive and tolerates no mistakes. Worth mentioning in this model is that it is very unlike the model of Deal and Kennedy (1982), who focus on the individual. This culture model focuses on the behaviour and interaction towards others. It also correlates with a much newer framework by Barsade and O'Neill (2014) that focuses on the

importance of emotions and companionate behaviour, and the affection the members of a culture hold towards each other. Barsade and O'Neill (2014) postulate that emotions are mostly neglected in cultural models but are very important cultural artefacts.

3.4.4.2 Two dimensional models

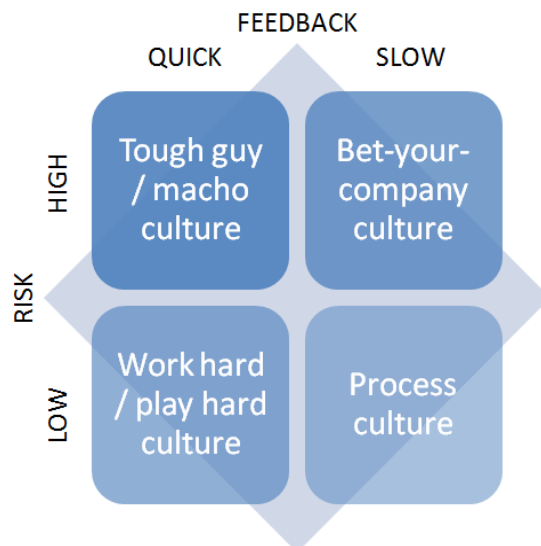


Figure 16: Two-dimensional model of Deal and Kennedy (1982).

In research, there are a lot of models that divide cultures up into different dimensions with two manifestations each. Figure 16 shows one of these models is the two-dimensional framework by Deal and Kennedy (1982), who defined four types of culture by two dimensions. One dimension relates to the time it takes a member to get feedback after an action (quick and slow feedback), and the other relates to the risk an employee must take. The quick feedback – high-risk culture type is named the *tough guy/macho* culture. The employee here notices the consequences of his or her behaviour immediately. The climate is rather rough, and the stakes are high, errors are not tolerated, and only the fittest survive. In the second form, *the bet your company* culture, the risk an employee can take is also high, but the consequences do not appear immediately. In the *work hard and play hard* culture, one receives quick feedback, but the risk, and so also the radius of operation is not as big. In the last type, the process culture, feedback is slow, and the risks are low. Everything takes its own slow course, and the scope of action is predefined.

The interesting thing about this model is that it emphasizes the individual very much in the culture and not so much the collective of how people work together in a team. Feedback only relates to superiors and subordinates.

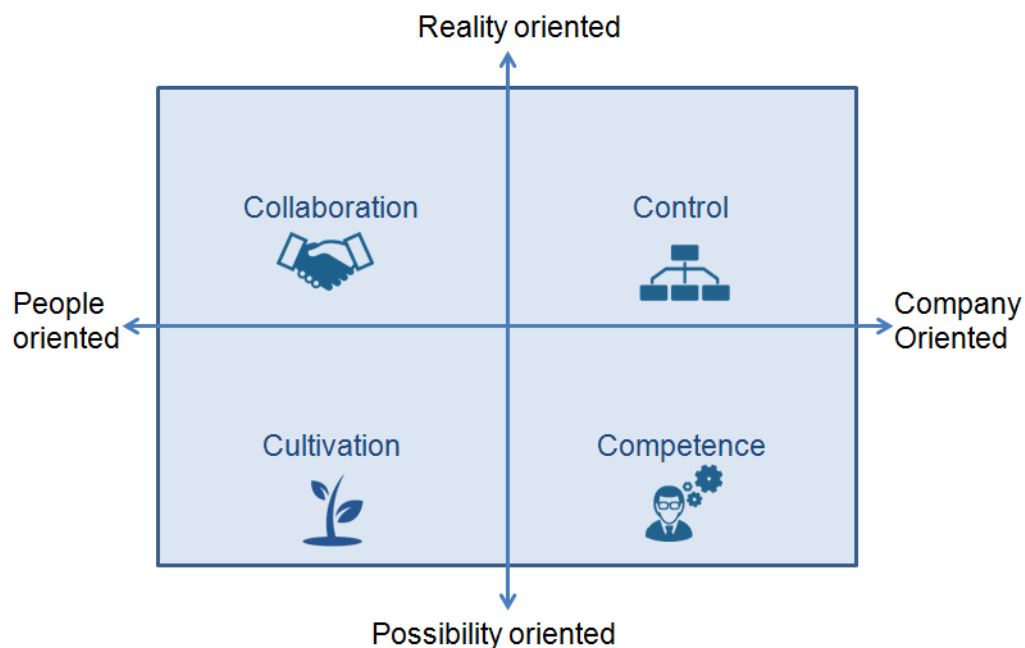


Figure 17: The reengineering alternative. Schneider (1999).

Schneider (1999) also developed a two-dimensional framework. The first dimension answers the question of whether the organisation is people-oriented or company-oriented, which in this case means, oriented on its own persistence. The second dimension focuses on the orientation on present or on future (reality oriented vs. possibility oriented). Figure 17 shows the four types. The culture types here are defined by the perception of how success is achieved, in the *Collaboration* type they succeed by working together, the *Control* type succeeds by getting and keeping control, the *Cultivation* type by growing people who fulfil the vision, and the last type by being the best. The interesting thing about this model is that the overarching purpose of a culture is the success of the organisation and the culture seems as the enabler for fulfilling its purpose. It also shows that even though it is also a two-dimensional model as the model of Deal and Kennedy (1982), it puts emphasis on completely various aspects.

Handy's (1993) framework mentions four different types of culture: The power culture, the role culture, the task culture and the person culture, and thereby it tries to include more than two different dimensions. Hence, it seems to be the

most encompassing framework. It also builds on the concept of person-organisation-fit and mentions the kinds of people that are attracted to the different types. In the *Power Culture*, people respond quickly to events, successes must be continuous and often. This culture attracts risk-takers and power-oriented people. The *Role Culture* is strongly specialized and formalized. Position equals power. Rules and procedures play a key role. This culture type is attractive to people that are looking for security and are not ambitious. The *Task Culture* is matrix or project-based; it relies on teamwork for success. People who are objective and result-oriented feel at home in this culture. The last type is the *Person Culture*, which puts emphasis on the individual. Everything serves one's own objective. People who have specialized in one area are drawn to that organisation.

Trompenaars (1993) identified similar types of culture: The family culture, the Eiffel tower, the guided missile and the incubator. The family culture is similar to the power culture of Handy (1993). It is people and hierarchy-oriented. The people are in committed long-term relationships with the organisation and a father figure is leading. Promotions are not given because of effort but because of seniority. The second culture type is the Eiffel tower, which is similar to the role culture of Handy (1993). A structure like in the Eiffel tower is the most important thing; even more important than the business purpose. In the guided missile culture which is the equivalent of the task culture of Handy (1993) is hierarchy is not important. In the incubator culture, which is similar to the people culture of Handy (1993), there is little structure and even less hierarchy. Ideas and motivation of employees are the most important.

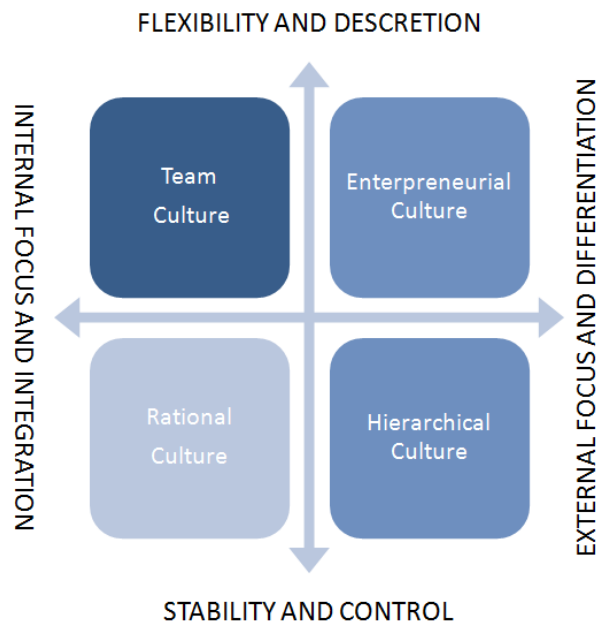


Figure 18: Two-Dimensional Model based on Marchand et al. (2013).

Marchand et al. (2013) have also identified four different types of culture: The four types *Group*, *Hierarchical*, *Developmental* and *Rational* Cultures are displayed in Figure 18. The criteria for the categorization were here the principal values that are prevailing in the different types. In the *Group Culture*, the values of trust, teamwork, openness, cooperation and morale are the most important. In the *Hierarchical Culture*, stability, rationality, security and predictability are the key values. In the third culture, the *Developmental Culture*, flexibility, creativity, risk, innovation and readiness are most desired. In the *Rational Culture*, productivity, result orientation, competitiveness, aggressiveness and goal setting are appreciated. Interestingly, Marchand et al. (2013) have also evaluated the different culture types regarding health outcomes. The *Group Culture* is associated with positive health outcomes whereas the *Rational Culture* is quite consistently associated with negative health outcomes.

3.4.4.3 Complex models

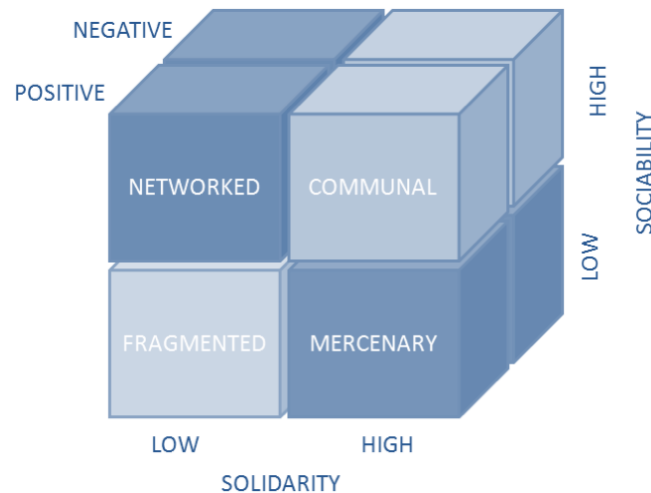


Figure 19: Three-Dimensional model based on Goffee and Jones (1998).

Besides the two-dimensional models, there are also models that have more than two dimensions. One example is the Goffee and Jones (1998) model of culture. Figure 19 shows, that it has three dimensions with two manifestations each. The dimensions are sociability, solidarity and a positive or negative connotation. Here sociability means the degree of socializing in which the individuals participate. Solidarity, on the contrary, means the degree of cohesion and team spirit. This results in four different kinds of culture which Goffee and Jones (1998) each display with a positive and a negative manifestation. The *Networked Culture* is a culture of high sociability and low solidarity. In a positive manifestation, people help each other and pass on information. In return, they do not expect anything. Information transfers smoothly over departments and there are a lot of informal networks. Where people feel like they can talk to each other. In a poorly *Networked Culture*, there is a high degree of clique generating, in which cliques have their own policies and are highly consensus driven. Processes are slowed down in such a situation because there is too much talk, which is not good for innovation.

The diametrically opposed culture to the networked culture is the *Mercenary Culture*. In mercenary cultures the solidarity is high, but the sociability is low. In a good *Mercenary Culture*, there is a clear understanding of what the organisation's goals are and how to achieve them. This is quick and efficient. By contrast, bad *Mercenary Cultures* do not innovate well because they lack in creativity. They are

not networked, and people don't talk, so unit A does not know what Unit B does – they are mostly motivated by rewards. The culture where both solidarity and sociability are high is the *Communal Culture*. Here, people bond closely with each other and consider externals as enemies, whom they hate. In other words, a communal culture is characterised by a clear external focus, which has a strong cohesion and a good communicative culture but can also be bad because its members only believe in their own similar worldview. The fourth type is the *Fragmented Culture*, which lacks both sociability and solidarity and is a very individualistic culture that acts not on the greater good for the collective but for the individual. This can work well in an expert organisation where everybody does what they know, and knows best about what they do, but can also be bad for the obvious reasons of a lack of cohesion and talking; no one is helped when needed and the information is not passed on quickly. The concept of Goffee and Jones (1998) is relevant, because it depicts no ideal culture type; rather it shows that every dimension can be either good or bad. It captures the thought that for some kinds of organisations or industries some cultures might be more suitable than others.

3.4.4.4 Summary of the different models

Dimension	Authors
Manifestations	Hofstede et al., 1990; Johnson and Scholes, 1993.
Hierarchy / Status / Power	Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Wallach, 1983; Trompenaars 1993; Lahiry, 1994; Handy, 1999; Marchard et al., 2013.
Structure / Rules	Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Jones, 1983; Wallach, 1983; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Johnson and Scholes, 1993; Trompenaars, 1993; Handy, 1999; Marchard et al., 2013.
Strategy	Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Jones, 1983; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Lahiry, 1994; Schneider, 1994; Handy, 1999; Marchard et al., 2013.
Social Converse	Wallach, 1983; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Lahiry, 1994; Schneider, 1994; Goffee and Jones, 1998; Handy, 1999.
Communication	Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede et al., 1990; Goffee and Jones, 1998.
Values	Hofstede et al., 1990; O'Reilly, 1991; Johnson and Scholes, 1993; Schneider, 1994; Handy, 1999.

Table 9: Cultural Models Review. Sources as in the table.

Many models display various kinds of cultures. Table 9 shows the models presented in this research project, which is only a selection of the existing models. Some have been mentioned because they were ascribed as of particular relevance and cited by many authors, such as the model of Hofstede et al. (1990) or the one of Deal and Kennedy (1982), some because of their particular closeness to the research question, such as the model of Goffee and Jones (1998) or Johnson and Scholes (1993). Most of the models work with two dimensions; however, these differ widely. Table 9 shows the twelve models discussed in this chapter. The models considered seven different dimensions. *Manifestations*, meaning forms by which culture is expressed, are included in three models. Hofstede et al. (1990), and Johnson and Scholes (1993), saw the practices and symbols as manifestations of culture.

The dimension of *Hierarchy*, that also includes themes of power and status, appears in five of the twelve models. Johnson and Scholes (1993) name one of their circles in the cultural web after this manifestation, the power structure. Wallach's (1983) Bureaucratic culture is based on hierarchy. In the Aggressive Culture of Lahiry (1994) status and power are the most important things. Some of the models name a whole type after this manifestation, such as Handy's (1993) Power Culture and Marchand et al.'s (2013) Hierarchical Culture. In the model of Trompenaars (1993) there is one culture where hierarchy is very important, the family culture that is based on status, and another culture where it is almost non-existent; the guided missile culture.

The most mentioned dimension of culture by the models listed in chapter three is *Structure*, which refers to all characteristics that revolve around task allocation and coordination and the adherence to rules and procedures. In Johnson and Scholes' (1993) cultural web, organisational structure is a characteristic of the culture just as important as rituals and power. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), structure plays such a strong role that in some cultures it shapes the communication. In some types of culture feedback is slow due to the structure, and in some it is immediate. The role culture of Handy (1993) demonstrates how structure interacts with hierarchy, hence equating position with power. This culture type relies very much on procedures and rules. Also, in the Eiffel Tower culture of Trompenaars (1993) structure is the most valued good, whereas in the Incubator culture, there is neither hierarchy nor structure. Marchand et al.'s

(2013) Rational and Hierarchical culture rely on stability. Also, in O'Reilly et al.'s (1991) Organisational Culture Profile stability is a characteristic of the culture. Jones' (1983) model relies on process routine and work standardization as two dimensions. The productive culture, for example, has complete process routine.

Seven of the cultural models listed include *Strategy* in their understanding of culture. Strategy means all characteristics that include the company goals or purpose and the plans for reaching it. In Deal and Kennedy's (1982) model it appears in the form of the willingness to take a risk. The Bet-your-Company and the Tough Guy/Macho culture types are both culture types with a risk-taker mentality, whereas the Process Culture and the Work hard/Play hard Culture are not. Handy (1993) also includes risk-taking as a manifestation of the power culture and sees the person culture as a culture without a shared objective. Other culture types include the importance of innovation in their models; such as the model of Schneider (1999) which describes the cultures of Cultivation and Competence as possibility oriented, meaning with a focus on the future, not on the present. The organisational culture profile of O'Reilly et al. (1991) lists the innovative orientation as a characteristic of a culture. Lahiry (1994) divides his models into passive/defensive and aggressive culture types, which also indicate a strategic direction. Marchard et al. (2013) divide cultures into the ones with an external focus, such as the entrepreneurial and the hierarchical cultures, and the ones with an internal focus, such as the team and the rational cultures. Jones's (1983) culture model includes cultures with high and low work standardization and high and low formalization.

Six of the models listed in chapter 3 include the dimension of *Social Converse*, meaning how people treat each other, which is an important dimension. Wallach (1983) names, amongst his three types of culture, the supportive culture, where people treat each other warmly and almost like family, whereas in Wallach's other culture types this is not the case. O'Reilly et al. (1991) also describe organisational cultures that are team oriented. Lahiry (1994) describes as one of the culture types of his model the constructive culture, where interaction is furthered. In his other culture type, the aggressive culture, mistakes are not tolerated. Schneider (1999) also has a model with two dimensions and four different types of culture. The orientation in the one dimension describes the culture as reality oriented or possibility oriented and in the other dimension as people oriented or company

oriented. The four types that arise from that are Collaboration, Control, Cultivation and Competence. The two types that are rather people oriented and where a fruitful social converse is rated as important are collaboration and cultivation. In the model of Goffee and Jones (1998), the social converse is the main aspect of their dimensions that sociability and solidarity address. The third dimension here evaluates if the culture is good or bad: There are well networked and communal cultures and bad ones. In Handy's (1993) cultural model, only one of four culture types values collaboration and team work: the task culture, but good social converse only plays a subordinate role here.

Three other authors expressed *Communication*, which means how people in organisations communicate with each other, as a dimension of culture. Deal and Kennedy (1982) included the way of giving feedback, whether it is immediate or not in their two-dimensional model. Hofstede et al. (1990) addressed stories as cultural dimension. Goffee and Jones (1998) named the dimension of sociability in their model, which means the act of socializing with others as one of their two dimensions. By the other models, the factor of communication itself was neglected.

Five of the cultural models include *Values* as a dimension, meaning the shared beliefs of members. Johnson and Scholes (1993) call these values paradigms, which means an ideology that is shared by the members. In Hofstede et al.'s (1990) cultural onion, the values form the innermost core of culture, which is encompassed by the other layers of culture such as practices and rituals. Schneider (1999) somehow includes the values, by calling them orientation. He describes some cultures of organisations as people oriented and some as company oriented. In Handy's (1993) four types of culture: power culture, task culture, role culture and person culture, values play an implicit role, regarding what is valued most in which type of culture. In power culture, hierarchy has the highest value, in task culture, teamwork and results have the highest value, in the role culture it is most important which position in the structure somebody has, and in the person culture, the individual has the highest value. In their organisational profile, O'Reilly et al. (1991) also mention values regarding orientation; they include cultures that are outcome oriented, people oriented, team oriented, detail oriented.

3.4.5 *Concept of organisational culture in this research project*

In the previous chapter, several prevailing assumptions have been presented; some contradictory. This research project follows a sociological view, which understands organisations as culture-producing phenomena and not culture as a metaphor for the whole organisation. Yet, it agrees with the anthropological view that culture consists of shared values and has a holistic approach to culture, and that culture affects all aspects of the organisation and manifests in the behaviour as well as the attitudes of its members.

Regarding the different models shown in the in the previous chapter, this research does not follow one model because of the explorative character of the study; instead, the various aspects of the models will be taken into account and focus lies on the collective rather than the individuals. A special focus will lie on the values, as in organisational identity and the aspect revolving around the members of the organisation, such as social converse and communication. The aspects structure, power and strategy will play a role insofar as they affect values and interaction and are in turn affected by those.

3.5 The relationship between organisational identity and organisational culture

“The relationship between identity and culture is clear: A particular culture [...] may, or may not, be part of the answer to the identity question: Who am I? What kind of firm is this?” (Albert, 1998, p.3)

The nature of the relationship between organisational identity and organisational culture is not as clear as Albert (1998) constitutes in the quote above. There is an academic discourse about the distinction between organisational culture and organisational identity. In their extensive work on a comparison of organisational culture and identity, Hatch, Schultz, and Skov (2015, p. 57) defined organisational culture as “shared beliefs, understandings and/or meanings, expressed through behaviour, language, ritual, tradition, and other symbolic artefacts that govern how individuals work together in and as an organisation” and organisational identity as “shared understandings and beliefs, but traces to social psychology and focuses more narrowly on what members believe and understand about who they are as an organisation”.

So according to these definitions, both schools' organisational culture and organisational identity researchers claim their construct as key for expressing the organisation's uniqueness. The researchers consider that organisational culture and organisational identity both contribute to sense-making in organisations; helping employees to understand what is going on and why this is happening. And they both encompass certain values of an organisation. Here, organisational identity researchers argue that organisational identity is not the same as the organisation's values; it only relates to the values that are viewed as centrally distinctive and enduring (Corley et al., 2006). Some researchers say that organisational culture can add uniqueness to organisational identity (Whetten, 2003) providing the unique values and beliefs manifesting in rituals and artefacts which help the organisation's members to distinguish themselves from other cultures (Albert and Whetten, 1985).

Some view the two concepts both as collective interpretive schemes and see identity as the rational part of these schemes and culture as the deeper rooted and more unconscious part (Hatch and Schultz, 2000; Fiol, Hatch, and Golden-Biddle, 1998). Hatch and Schultz (2002) see organisational identity as the inter-relationship of the organisational image. For them, identity expresses the cultural understandings and mirrors the construed external image. Stensaker (2004) sees organisational identity as one of several possible cultural artefacts in an organisation and thereby as a narrower concept than culture. On the other hand, Swidler (1986) treats organisational culture as a toolkit or repertoire, to form an organisational identity or make identity claims. So organisational culture is the interpretative context that helps organisational members to act within an organisation (Hatch et al., 2015).

Fiol (1991) proposed that organisational identity is the mediator of the relationship between behaviour and cultural norms that guide and direct it. These behaviour patterns reflect the unique identity. In a later study, Fiol et al. (1998) have a more elaborate view of the two concepts. They see the two concepts as mutually influencing each other on different levels. According to them, identity answers the question of who we are in relation to a larger context. Following social constructionist perspective, Hatch and Schultz (1997, p. 360) argue that cultural artefacts help in expressing organisational identity and interpreting it by others. They believe that "the culture-image-identity system is fairly self-contained", when only

members of the organisation are involved in those interpretations and expressions. When it is opened to external influences the constructs become more interdependent. According to them, all three form a circular process: Organisational culture forms organisational identity through the members' experiences (Social constructionism) and top management vision on leadership (Institutional theory). The managers are in turn influenced by the organisational image which moves within an external context and the experiences of an external group. While this model integrates well all three aspects of identity, culture and image, it neglects to define the nuances of the relationships.

When we perceive organisational identity as *who we are* and culture as *how we do things* then we cannot ignore their interrelationship. In this research project, organisational identity forms the central and distinctive core of the employees shared beliefs. It here follows an integrated perspective that looks both for social constructionist sense-making and institutional sense-giving; whereas culture is seen as the basis for manifestations of values, communication, hierarchies, structures and social converse.

3.6 Summary of the chapter

The chapter discusses two of the most important constructs in this research project: Organisational identity and organisational culture. Organisational identity is the construct of human identity applied to organisations. It describes who the organisation is and what its core traits are. Organisational identity theory is based on social identity theory; the fundamental theory in this chapter. It claims that individuals define themselves in terms of membership to a group. Thereby there are two prevailing perceptions: social constructionist theory believes that identity is the shared beliefs among the members and helps sense-making, institutional theory believes that identity is the institutional claims and helps for sense-giving from top management to the employees.

The most common features of organisational identity are simultaneously the most discussed: Centrality, distinctiveness and stability. Centrality describes the central aspect of identity without which it would be a different one. On the other hand, there is the conception that organisations can have different identities in different units and departments. Distinctiveness is what makes one organisation different from the rest, but it happens also on a comparison level. The third aspect stability

is the most argued: Many researchers see organisational change as the most important to organisations. Here, narratives form an important part since they help draw a coherent line in the Organisational Life Story and help with sense-making. In this research project, an integrated approach is taken that sees identity as helping sense-making as well as sense-giving in organisations and puts special focus on the continuum stability and change, but also looks at centrality and multiplicity and distinctiveness and comparison.

The second important construct in this chapter is organisational culture. There is an ongoing argument of what organisational culture is and what it is not. The arguments range from whether it is subjective or objective, subconscious or unconscious and whether it affects behaviour or attitude. The conceptions also vary in the belief of whether organisations are cultures in the anthropological view or whether they have cultures in the sociological view. However, there is a common ground of assumptions that organisational culture is holistic, historically determined and socially construed.

Similarly to organisational identity, in organisational cultures, there is a belief that one organisation can have several cultures and is not per se monolithic. The subculture can differ depending on the department and its function. The subcultures are important for this research because they examine one subsidiary of a larger corporation. In research, it has been found that subcultures either carry the values to the extreme or deviate from them. In this chapter, several different models are described; ranging from simple models over two dimensions to more complex ones. The research project does not adopt one single model but focusses on the aspects these models describe: Collective aspects and interaction of the members and their interrelation with structure, strategy and hierarchy; looking at the difference between identity and culture and connection. It can be said that both concepts help the sense-making within organisations, but while culture is the shared beliefs that are expressed, identity is the shared beliefs that are understood and are more inwardly directed. It is important to understand what identity and culture are and how they overlap or interact when finding out how they relate to Employee Advocacy and its antecedents.

The important theoretical concepts to understand the motives Employee Advocacy from an organisational perspective and their state of literature have been

presented. The challenge of the research project is now to access the employees' perceptions about the antecedents and the organisational factors. Therefore, the project has a narrative focus. Narratives are the lens through which organisational identity, organisational culture and the antecedents of Employee Advocacy are seen. They act like a looking glass that magnifies the insights. To use them in a methodological way, first the concept of narratives must be understood. Besides their methodological relevance, narratives have even a larger relevance for conceptual metaphor of this research project, the Organisational Life Story, which is described in chapter 9. Therefore, the whole chapter 4 is dedicated to narratives: To fully understand the concepts of plot, narrator, themes and story arcs.

4 A narrative perspective

4.1 Introduction

Narratives form a particularly important aspect of human communication; they shape our identity (McAdams, 1996; Mair, 1988), our relationship with others (Koenig and Trees, 2006; Frost, 2011) and the culture we live in (Granitz and Forman, 2015; Scuzarello, 2015; Levine, 1984). In recent years the concept of narratives has also attracted interest in fields other than literary criticism (Foster-Harris, 1959) and linguistics (Bakhtin, 1986), such as anthropology (Rosenwald and Ochberg, 1992) human and social sciences (Polkinghorne, 1988; Flottemesch, 2013), dramatics (Quiller-Couch, 1916), philosophy (McAdams, 2006), psychology (Freud, 1955; Jung 1954, 1981) and medicine (Hinyard and Kreuter, 2007), film and media (Denning, 2005), and journalism (Früh and Frey, 2014; McKee, 2003). In the following chapter, the importance of narratives in organisations will be examined. This is necessary to understand how they can be used as a looking glass that magnifies truths of organisational culture and organisational identity. Starting with a definition, the chapter will then proceed to examine narratives in relation to the organisation.

4.2 Definitions and etymology

4.2.1 Synopses

In the following chapter, the terms *narrative*, *story* and *storytelling* will be examined. The word narrative derives from the Latin word *narrare*, meaning the re-telling or recounting of some actions. Table 10 shows three key definitions of narratives.

Definition	Author
"Narrative is defined here as one way of recounting past events, in which the order of narrative clauses matches the order of events as they occurred."	Labov/Waletzky (1967, p. 4)
"Narrative is the representation of at least two real or fictive events or situations in a time sequence, neither of which presupposes or entails the other. [...] Narratives may be expressed in a variety of ways. As a matter of fact, a narrative may be rendered through language, film, pantomime, dancing and so on."	Prince (1992, p. 4)

“Story, in a word, is vicarious experience, and the treasury of narratives into which we can enter includes ambiguously, either reports of real experience or offerings of culturally shaped imagination.”	Bruner (1990, p. 54)
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Table 10: Synopsis of definitions of narratives. Source: Authors in the table.

A minimum definition is one way to go in defining stories and narratives. Schmid (2005), defined the story with three minimal conditions: 1) *A temporal structure* with an initial state and a final state, which must be 2) *coherent in some way*, but not identical and have to 3) *relate to the same subject*. The following synopsis shows the three most important definitions of stories according to Fröh and Frey (2014) in chronological order. In their monography about narration, Fröh and Frey (2014) researched the most cited definitions in 386 publications. Included were Bruner’s definitions, which were cited the most frequently with 23 occurrences. Labov and Waletzky (1967) were cited 19 times and Prince (1982, 1987) 13 times. Labov and Waletzky (1967) focus on the events which occur in a certain order and come close to a minimum definition. Prince (1992) additionally focusses on the expression of narratives and the forms they can take.

Bruner (1990) holds a holistic and constructivist view of narratives and postulates that humans simply have no other way than describing lived time as narratives, since they are the only way to organize memories, bring them in order and make sense of them. He thereby relates to Oscar Wilde’s (1891) famous quote: ‘Art imitates life imitating art’. “Narrative imitates life, life imitates narrative. Life itself is only a product of our imagination as well as narratives are” (Bruner 1990, p. 692). This quote implies on the one hand, that a story does not exist for itself; it only comes into existence if it is told by somebody, which gives the act of telling a special relevance.

This holistic view has met with criticism in literature. Strawson (2004) sees this as only partially true; there are some who construct their lives through narrative whereas others do not. The reason why this conception is so pervasive is that the narrators shape the current discussion; they are the narrative types themselves. “We don’t have to story ourselves to live good”, Strawson (2004) states.

4.2.2 *The act of narrating and the narrator*

The act of narrating is also an important characteristic of the narrative. According to Fröh and Frey (2014), the act of telling is the characteristic most definitions contain. In the definitions above, not only the term *telling* but similar phrases are used like *recounting*, *representing*, *reporting* (Bruner, 1990; Labov and Waletzky, 1967; Prince, 1992; Denning, 2000). For Bruner (1990) narratives can be about both fictive and real events; it does not make a difference, since if fictive, they are always culturally shaped, and thus are oriented in the truths of a society's culture. In contrast, the early definitions of Labov and Waletzky (1967) and Bremond (1973) only mention past events, which implies that they only speak of real events which are supposed to be accurately retold; imagination is not addressed here.

Only later, the distinction between narrative of fiction and reality became more and more important. Prince (1992) does not further specify what 'real or fictive events' mean but mentions the two different kinds. Denning (2000) distinguishes in telling or recounting, which also hints at a distinction of reality and fiction; thereby recounting describes something that has really happened, whereas telling can describe a figment of the imagination. Argo, Rhui Zuh, and Dahl (2008) postulate in this relation that there is no absolute distinction. A story can fall along a continuum of functionality from entirely make-believe to completely real (Argo et al., 2008). In conclusion, telling a story means bringing events together in a coherent order.

The narrator is the third most mentioned part of the definition. This person is seen as someone who is speaking; who tells the story. Mulvey (2004) postulates that the narrator is always prevailing, whether mentioned as a person or not. In literary and communication theory, it is the prevailing concept that words can only emanate from someone who speaks (Martin, 1986, cited by Mulvey, 2004). A character is always created out of the words mentioned on the page by an act of natural personification. If the narrator is mentioned he or she has a persuading effect, because the narrator attracts attention and enhances the credibility (O'Keefe, 1990).

4.2.3 *Concept of story*

The second part that appears most often in definitions is the concept of *story* (Früh and Frey, 2014). In literature, there has been a discourse between the distinction of story and narrative and whether it can be used as a synonym or not. Following Polkinghorne (1988), Bruner (1990) uses the two as a synonym, whereas in Ricoeur's (1983) definition, the plot of a narrative and story are synonyms, but not the narrative concept as a whole. According to Denning (2000), narratives can take the form of a story, meaning that narratives could have other forms as well, such as *accounts* and *tales*. Chatman (1990) has a similar approach, namely that a story is only a part of a narrative and a narrative is rather the composition of story and discourse. By discourse, Chatman (1990) means the actual act of telling the story. In his words *story* is the 'what' in a narrative that is depicted; discourse the how. Bal (1985) uses a different approach. In his three-layer-model, the text is the first the reader sees of the narrative and constitutes the semiotic form; the second layer is the story, providing the content of the narrative. The story gives colouring and elaboration to the fabula, which is the third and most important layer and constitutes the result of mental reading; a trace of memory that lasts in the listeners' mind (Bal, 1985).

In the light of organisational storytelling research, recently a new discourse has started. John Hagel, Chairman of Deloitte, argues that stories and narratives are different in two aspects: While narratives are open-ended, stories always have a resolution. Secondly, narratives, in contrast to stories, have an implicit invitation to participate, because they operate on personal, institutional and social levels (Hagel, 2013). Corman (2013) picks up on this point and defines narratives as a system of stories; some open-ended, some not. He stresses that in their structure they are interdependent and rely on each other, which is the key point.

4.2.4 *The plot of the narrative and narrative frameworks*

Another term to describe the content of a narrative is the plot; namely the events that take place after one another. The plot can be translated with structure, which keeps it together and engages listeners (Lundqvist, Gummerus and Riel, 2013). Forster (1956) goes even further and defines plot as the cause-and-effect

relationship between events in a story. Papadatos (2006) takes the approach that each plot contains core elements: anticipation; a hope or outlook in the future, and crisis; a conflict, something bad that happens. The third element is the help along the way the hero gets, in the form of a miracle. Finally, the story ends with a goal achieved. Labov and Waletzky (1967) see this structure as being fundamentally important, because temporal junctures are essential for the reception of the story; the listeners must ask what happens next, after one narrative clause is concluded.

In literature, it is often discussed whether there is a limited number of different plots. In 2004, Christopher Booker published a book that postulated that there are only seven different kinds of stories. In the first plot, everything that happens is threatened by a monstrous and evil figure. The hero (or heroine) has to fight against and ultimately defeat. Booker called this plot: 'Overcoming the monster'. *Beowulf* and *James Bond* are famous examples of it. In the second plot, 'rags to riches', the protagonist, poor at first, achieves wealth, power and companionship, before he or she loses it and gains it again. Examples here are *Cinderella* or *Jane Eyre*. In 'the quest', an important object such as a treasure or a cure for someone, or a location is sought; the mission is filled with many obstacles. The *Iliad* and *Lord of the Rings* belong to that basic plot type. In 'voyage and return', the hero sets out and returns with nothing but experience. The *Odyssey* and *Alice in Wonderland* are famous examples. In comedy, most importantly the character faces a happy ending. The protagonist faces a conflict that becomes more and more confusing before it hits a single clarifying event, such as in a *Midsummer Night's Dream* or *Bridget Jones's Diary*. In the sixth plot form, 'tragedy', the hero or heroine experiences first a good event, but step by step his or her dream turns into a nightmare and finally the story comes to a climax, often the self-destruction of the hero (Booker, 2004). There are many examples of this plot, such as *Macbeth*, *Romeo and Juliet* and TV drama series, such as *Breaking Bad*. The final basic plot Booker (2004) mentioned is 'rebirth', where a cathartic event forces the protagonist to change his or her ways *Dickens's Christmas Carol* or *Disney's Frozen* are examples.

Booker's book on the basic plots was taken up by the media. Some authors like Kakutami rejected Booker's concept completely, stating that Booker was generalizing too much and not valuing the literary content of the stories he examined (Kakutami, 2005). Mars-Jones (2004) counterposes that position saying that Booker's book only examines stories in the context of structure and does not judge their individual merits. Mars-Jones (2004) states that novels should not be simply reduced to their plots. Even Booker himself stated that with masterpieces like *Hamlet* or *Oedipus Rex*, there are exceptions to the rule and these exceptions must be examined not only by their plot. Mars-Jones (2004) also raises the question that if plot is the genetic code of a piece of art, how can different productions of films and remakes be different? In contrast, Philosopher Roger Scruton (2013) called Booker's book a brilliant summary.

The concept of a limited number of plots is not new. Booker's predecessors included inter alia Quiller-Couch (1916), who described the different kinds of conflicts that shape a story: *Man against Man*, *Man against Society*, *Man against Nature*, and *Man against Self*. This is another perspective to take, and almost every story also fits in this framework. Foster-Harris (1959) postulates three main plots categorized by the ending; the happy ending where the hero or heroine sacrifices one thing to rescue another, the unhappy ending where the hero or heroine fails to make this sacrifice, and the literary plot that does not depend on the decision of the author but on fate; where a critical incident determines the course of the story at the very beginning.

Tobias (1993) proposes that there are twenty different plots that partly overlap with Booker's, including *Ascension*, *Metamorphosis* or *Quest*, and adds others such as *Revenge* or *Wretched Excess*, which could ultimately be incorporated into Booker's seven plots. Polti (1921) mentions 36 different plots that partly are reused by Booker, but also describes less concrete topics such as *Madness* or *Murderous Adultery*, which are rather emotional states or simple deeds; or more concrete, such as *Slaying of a Kinsman unrecognized* or *Necessity of sacrificing loved ones*. The conception of a limited number of plots will be especially important when frameworks that define narratives on the organisational side are discussed in chapter 4.3.2.

4.2.5 *Structure of the narrative*

In literature, the importance of a structure has been widely discussed. It is always intertwined with the question: What makes a story good? While some authors only describe the structure (Booker, 2004; Bal, 1985), others point out that this is a crucial issue (Gergen, 2002; Fog, Budtz and Yakaboylu, 2005). Gergen (2002) identified four elements that are important to the structure of a story: 1) the goal - an aspired ending connected with strong emotions, 2) events that are relevant regarding the ending, 3) the order of events and 4) the causal relationship of events that make the structure. The better the four elements are managed, the better the story. For the credibility of a story, an ideal structuration is more important than content (Gergen 2002).

Gergen (2002) sees every element as just as important and emphasises the way they interplay as the most important thing. This is a very questionable view because it thoroughly neglects other aspects of the story such as the elaboration of its characters or its emotive aspects, as only then can a story be thrilling (Biesenbach, 2016). Biesenbach (2016) also describes ingredients of stories, differing from Gergen's. He speaks of Character, Connect with Emotion and Less is More. The character puts a face on an issue; people do not care about processes, people care about people. The ideal character is one the audience can relate to. "Emotion trumps logic" invites Biesenbach (2016). The connection with emotion is the second ingredient; it nurtures the audience's wish to know something about the character. His third piece of advice is to keep it focused and to make it short. This relates more to marketing stories than to the actual concept of narrative but is true in a way that storytelling means to make choices and has to "cut the clutter" and be strategic by having a specific goal and sticking to it (Biesenbach, 2016).

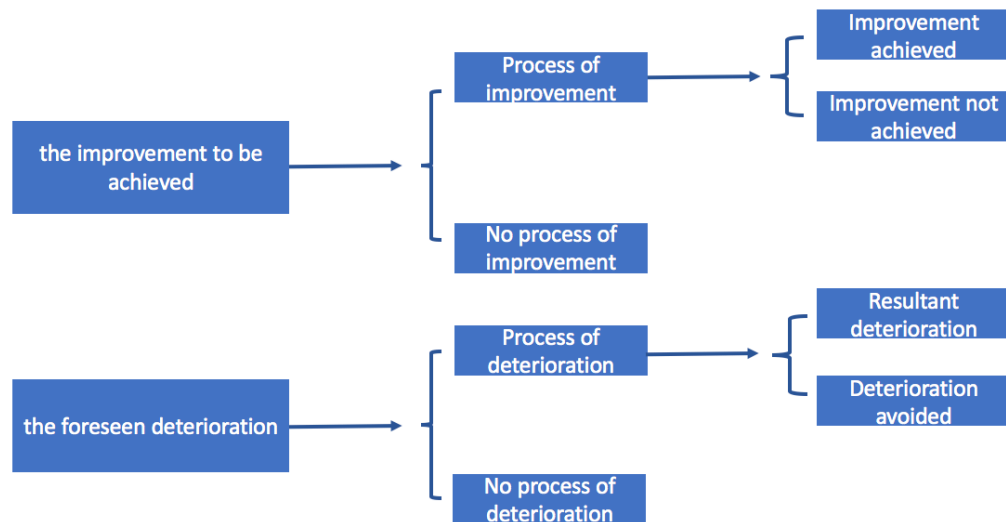


Figure 20: Process Model of narratives (Bal, 1985).

Fog et al. (2005) also describe different core elements of a story, but add four other elements in storytelling: message, conflict, characters and plot. In contrast to Gergen (2002), they don't see every element as equally important. They see conflict as the driving and most important force of a good story. They postulate that when there is no conflict, there is no good story, because conflict forces action to restore harmony. "A good story always centres on the struggle to attain, defend or regain harmony" (Fog et al., 2005, p. 33). Bal's (1985) process model, which is depicted in Figure 20, shows this in its several styles; he always sets the struggle at the beginning, whether to improve a bad situation or to retain a status quo, when a deterioration is foreseen. This is similar to Fröh and Frey (2014). They see the plot as a process, which often includes a risk. This process is coherent over content and time.

4.2.6 Conclusion

Narratives are of great importance in human lives. There is one conception in research; that narratives are the only way humans can think and make sense of events that happen to them. Figure 21 shows the summary of the literature review on narratives. It shows that narrative is basically a sequence of events linked by a plot. The plot determines the structure and conflict, characters and emotions, which are essentially what makes a story good. The conflict is seen as the driving force of the story. Characters and emotions fill it with life, and structure awards the story with credibility. The story is the sequence of events

including the plot and its resolution. The narrator tells the story, which is either real or fictive or something in between to an audience, making discourse happen. This basic knowledge of narratives is important to this research project because it helps to identify and access the stories and narratives the employees have in mind about organisational culture, organisational identity and Employee Advocacy.

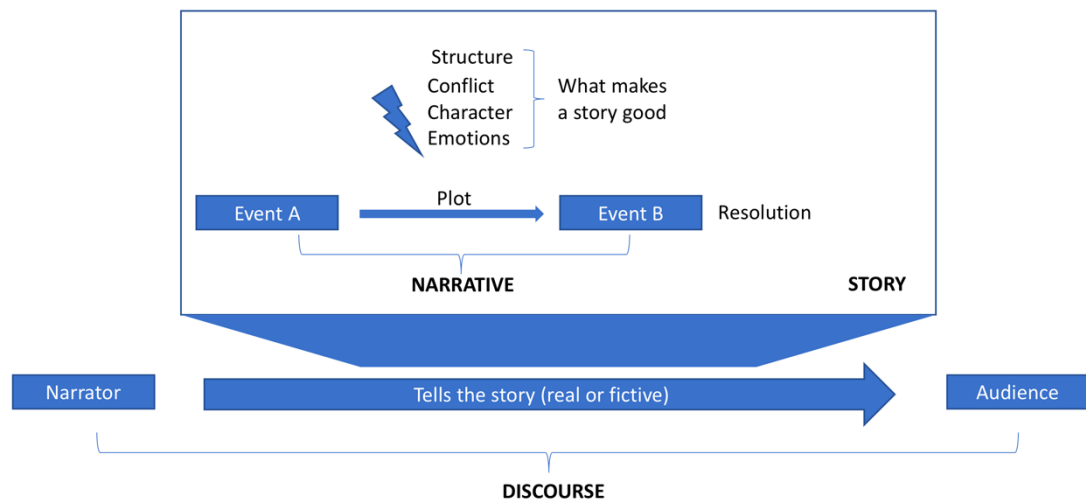


Figure 21: Summary of the literature review on narratives.

4.3 Narratives and organisations

4.3.1 Definition

In past years, the interest in organisational stories has grown markedly (Gabriel, 2011). Swap, Leonard, Shields, and Abrams (2011, p. 103) define the organisational story “as a detailed narrative of past management actions, employee interaction and other intra- organisational or extra-organisational events”. In the research of the past years, two topics have been increasingly examined: the narrative process that underlies the organisational story (Boje, 1995; Khalid and Mahmud, 2008; Jones, 1991; Wilkins and Thompson, 1991) and the functions (Browning, 1992; Boyce 1996; Haghirian and Chini, 2002) and effects (Gabriel, 2011; Parry, and Hansen, 2007) organisational stories have. The latter branch of research is divided into whether narratives can be seen as part of understanding the organisation and organisational life (Boje, 1991, 1995; Gephart, 1991;

Weick, 1995), or as a powerful management tool (Brown, 1985, 1990; Neuhauser, 1993; Barker and Gower, 2010). This is similar to the discussion about whether organisational identity is used for sense-making and sense-giving. The RSA (the Royal Society of Arts) postulated that the arts, including stories, “have a unique contribution to make in helping the workforce of tomorrow develop the very skills that business is crying out for: the quality of inspiration, creativity, imagination, commitment enterprise and ambition” (RSA, 1996).

The two purposes of narratives; giving meaning on the one hand and being a management tool on the other, are not mutually exclusive and can exist simultaneously. This might be due to Martin et al.’s (1983) view that stories generate as well as reflect. Thereby the generating part is the stories that managers use to motivate and calm down employees, whereas the reflecting part is the interpreting and sense-making of organisational life.

In research, there is a dispute over whether stories are discursive constructions (Czarniawska, 1997; Grant, Keenoy and Oswick, 1998), whereby they fully construct the organisation. This would mean that organisations emerge through communication (Taylor and Van Every, 2000; Dailey and Browning, 2013). The other view is that they are just constitutive of organisations and contribute to the organisational realities (Hardy, Lawrence and Phillips, 1998; Weick, 1985). Some researchers assume that storytelling organisations exist to tell and live out their collective stories and to be constantly struggling with distinguishing between stories of insiders and outsiders (Jones, 1991; Wilkins and Thompson, 1991). This is similar to the discussions on culture; whether cultures are organisations or just contribute to the organisation. In the last years the discourse has moved more and more in favour of the sense-making perspective of organisations, which will be further addressed later in this chapter.

4.3.2 *Narrative themes and forms in organisations*

In order to recognize a narrative in organisations Pentland (1999) identified five of their properties and set them in relation to organisation theory: *Sequence* indicated by patterns of events, the focal actors indicated by their role in the organisation; *social network and demographic*, the narrative voice indicated by

the point of view; the *social relation and power structure*, which reflects hierarchy and group cohesion; *moral context indicated* by cultural values and assumptions; and *other indicators* (Pentland, 1999). Khalid and Mahmud (2008) made a similar but more extensive framework of stories in organisations including purpose, form and characteristics. They stated that the purpose of organisational stories is to report organisational events, facilitate organisational change and transfer knowledge, and described three possible forms: case anecdotes, (Sole, 2002), news and a drama plot. As other characteristics, they list *shorter than a novel, true or fictional* and an *account of events*. Interestingly, they left out any moral implications of stories that Pentland (1999) pointed to and focus exclusively on the outer form and process.

These moral implications are important, because they encompass a crucial aspect of organisational storytelling. Collison and Mackenzie (1999) point out that in tribes, the earliest form of organisations, people used stories to pass on ideals and values important to them, recorded in form of myths and legends. Heroes and heroines embodied the culture's values, so the group could learn collectively about these. Gabriel notes here that little systematic research has been done about stories and group cohesion and discussed the content and meaning of stories as epiphenomena of the real issues (Gabriel, 1991a).

The question of whether organisational stories have a positive or a negative connotation is answered by Martin et al. (1983). They claim that there can be positive or negative versions of every story type in organisational storytelling. This balance between positive and negative stories is, according to Martin et al. (1983), due to the dualities that prevail in the organisation. Cooper and Burrell (1988) defined dualities as concepts that are too complex for one term but exist because there is a conflict between individual employee values and organisational exigencies: On the one hand, employees' value equality, security and control; on the other hand, organisations may threaten these values in order to survive. Dualities cannot easily be resolved. Martin et al. (1983) list three different dualities: *Equality vs. inequality* (mostly in stories that revolve around rules and hierarchy); *Security vs. insecurity* (mostly stories organisational decisions about single employees); and *Control vs. Lack of control* (stories about organisational change and obstacles). These dualities that can also be seen as

themes that emerge in many of the researched stories even if not explicitly named. In organisational research, there is also a request for defining the different story types and themes because they are so diverse and could range from office gossip to boardroom legends (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999).

Collison and Mackenzie (1999) listed three types of stories in modern organisations. The first one is the type of anecdotal or biographical stories that reinforce feelings and assumptions, e.g. the shared hopes for a new project that might be successful. The second is the creative characterization that opens a new perspective when transformed into a story. An example of this could be a legendary battle between two managers. The third one is the story as a metaphor, where a metaphor is created for a situation or process and helps to reach more imaginative levels by thinking more with the right-brain side than the left. An example of this could be, the metaphor of the organisation as a family, catering for all the employees.

When it comes to themes, the terms stories and metaphors are used interchangeably. Riad (2011) pointed out that two metaphors are particularly relevant: The life cycle metaphor (including the cash cow metaphor) and the parenting and family metaphor. Both stories value growth. The life cycle story conceptualizes the birth, growth and decline of an organisation (Riad, 2011), developed after the BCG (Boston Consulting Group) matrix (Riad, 2011) of cash cow, star, question mark and dog. The “cash cow” (Riad, 2001, p. 378) here means a segment with great market shares but little growth opportunities, i.e. positive because of the big market share but negative because it is moving towards the end of its life cycle. Another family metaphor was the “Dragging a child kicking and screaming” (Riad, 2011, p. 380), signalling both paternalism and resistance. In this metaphor, there are two key roles; the parent, who drags, and the child, who resists. Translated, this metaphor means the need for some new ideas to be forced upon undiscerning other members of the organisation. The “big brother” metaphor describes two organisations, whereby one fosters the other and keeps an eye on them. The family metaphor is very commonly used in sense-making stories of organisations. Sometimes it describes its caring and sharing and prevailing climate of trust. In other cases, it describes the relationship of members who have worked together since the start. It can also be seen

in a negative way as some kind of collectivist socialist culture (Riad, 2011). The findings of Riad are quite important for the research question because they show how narratives through metaphors can access complex interplays of conflict, change and distinction within organisations.

Likewise, Gabriel (1991a) clustered stories into three different key themes and two hybrid themes. Key themes are the comic theme, the tragic theme and the epic theme. An example of the comic story is if the hero jams in an important lecture given by a businessman just at the right moment, but this could also be a tragic story if he faces consequences in his job because of that. Misfortune is a common element of both tragic and comic themes, and often there are jokes at the expense of the superiors. Organisational culture also often encompasses stories of a serious character, and they all bear one key feature: The attribution of responsibility or guilt to a supernatural principle such as fate, a malevolent agent or a scapegoat (Gabriel, 1991a). The hybrid theme derived from comedy and tragedy is the tragic-comic story. This theme is dependent on time, where tragedies are slowly transformed into comedies because in retrospect the situation was not as bad as originally thought. The third key theme is the epic story. Epic stories revolve around agency or noble and heroic deeds. They highlight the resolution of crises through great deeds. Gabriel (1991a) here mentions that heroic stories are not always aligned with the corporate values. Often even the most persisting stories are contrary to the existing value frameworks. The second hybrid is the epic-comic story a humorous version of the epic story. This could, for example, involve luck in solving the problem.

Erbert (2016) interviewed 22 employees, who told 54 organisational stories and identified five key story themes. The most recognized story theme was the *Lack or Lapse in Professionalism* theme. A story was assigned to this theme, when company norms for behaviour were clearly demonstrated by an employee doing something wrong, for example, having an emotional fallout during a meeting. The theme that was found the second most was *Uncertainty*. This included strange experiences without any closure, explanation or justification. An example of this story theme is people panicking because of an unannounced stock split; uncertainty being the driving force. This theme can occur in real corporate experience; for example, when outsiders menace the organisation or the work

environment. A theme that also occurred quite regularly (occurred in six of the stories) was *Embarrassment*, either experienced by the storyteller him- or herself or just being watched. *Suddenness* as a theme was experienced in five of the stories, for example, unexpected quick decisions by management. The theme *Inequality and fairness* occurred in two of the stories where people believed themselves or others were not treated fairly. In his study, Erbert (2016) also identified response themes and the respective reactions of the individual that experienced the story. A theme often used was responding to the individual need of the person in the story; calling 911 for example. Other themes were adaptation, humour, panic, surprise, inquiry, challenges to individual and supervisor and/or management, positive psychic change, judgment, and negative psychic change (Erbert, 2016). Erbert (2016) also identified attribution themes which is an aspect of sense-making to attribute the occurrence of such stories to specific causes these were: personal problems, poor communication, organisational change (reorganisation, promotions, business routines), management and supervisory practice, uncertainty and emergency medical problems.

The most renowned framework for organisational stories is probably the one of Martin et al. (1983). By working with a content analysis scheme based on script theory they developed a framework which has been cited by many scholars (such as Erbert, 2016; Dailey and Browning, 2013; Boudens, 2005; Swap et al., 2001; Pentland, 1999; Boje, 1991, 1995) In contrast to Erbert (2016), Martin et al. (1983) did not quantify the stories and their occurrence, but postulate that their common types occur with great regularity in a wide variety of organisational contexts. The first type of story raises the question: *What do I do if a higher-status person breaks a rule?* It describes two starring characters: One a high-status manager, usually one of the highest-ranking figures of the organisation; the other a low status employee, either very young or new to the organisation. The high-status person draws attention to him or herself and then breaks a company rule. The subordinate then confronts the superior. Optional is the outcome of the situation; either the manager compliments or fires the low-status employee.

The second type of story asks the question “Is the big boss human?” (Martin et al., 1983, p. 442). Here also a high-status manager obtains the main role. He or

she has the opportunity to perform an equalization act and does or does not seize it. The third story revolves around the question of “Can the little person rise to the top?” (Martin et al., 1983, p. 442) meaning that all employees have or do not have the same opportunities. It is also about the fit between employees’ abilities and their status. “The Will I get Fired?” (Martin et al., 1983, p. 443) story depicts a situation where the organisation has the possibility of firing or laying off people and does or does not take it. In the story first, a reason for the layoff is given. In the second stage, the decision is made. “Will the organisation help me when I have to move?” (Martin et al., 1983, p. 443) is the theme of the fifth organisational story. When employees are moved from town to town, they rely on the support of the organisation in relation to the personal difficulties involved in a major shift. The question is whether the organisation will help or not. The hierarchy theme, which already appeared in the rule breaking and the human big boss story, is also stressed in the “How will the boss react to mistakes?” (Martin et al., 1983, p. 444) story, involving the role of the mistake maker and the more superior employees. The employee is either forgiven or not. The “How will the organisation deal with obstacles?” (Martin et al., 1983, p. 444) story is the last story type mentioned in Martin et al.’s (1983) framework. The employees are starring here, no restrictions on status. The plot consists of their efforts to overcome obstacles. Both ends are possible; the employees succeed or fail. Although desisting from a general quantification of the stories, Martin et al. (1983) proclaimed that this story type was the one that occurred most frequent.

In this chapter, four different story type frameworks are depicted. Gabriel (1991b) draws from literature story plots and transfers them into organisational stories. He does not apply any specification but claims completeness because it is a closed framework. According to Gabriel (1991b), every story that is circulating in an organisation is either tragic, comic, epic or a hybrid of the three themes. Martin et al. (1983), Riad (2011) and Erbert (2016) advanced further in the specific content. In the framework of Martin et al. (1983), which is the oldest of the four, always a question is raised with possible positive or negative result. The story themes are very concrete; depicting a specific situation, often dealing with hierarchy issues in the organisation. Due to their concreteness, they cannot claim completeness. Many other stories that raise questions might be possible. Erbert’s (2016) themes are more abstract and characterize emotional themes

that can occur in various situations. Organisational change is one main overarching theme of the stories (suddenness, uncertainty, threat of the organisation). The story themes of Martin et al. (1983) and Erbert (2016) only overlap in two themes: the *rule breaking* (Martin et al., 1983) story with *the lack in professionalism* (Erbert, 2016) theme, which seem to be very similar, and the story about *obstacles an organisation has to face* (Martin et al. 1983) versus a threat to the organisation by outsiders (Erbert, 2016). While Martin et al. (1983) claimed this was the most frequent story type, in Erbert's (2016) more quantitative study, it was only third. This could be due to the time span between the two studies or the different perceptions of culture people now have. But there are more parallels between Erbert (2016) and Martin et al. (1983), when looking at the more overarching dualities (inequality and equality; security and insecurity; control and lack of control) of Martin et al. (1983). Erbert's (2016) uncertainty theme as well as the suddenness theme fit the *insecurity and security* duality, and the inequity and fairness of Erbert (2016) are similar to the *inequality and equality* theme of Martin et al. (1983).

Riad (2011) did not specifically postulate that her themes were all-encompassing, because she only investigated two organisations and had only two key stories. Nevertheless, she did come upon different themes (the life cycle and the family theme) that were not included by Martin et al. (1983) or Erbert's (2016) frameworks. This implies that a more common framework can only be created if one looks not at specific plots or situations but rather at inner emotions, such as feelings of inequality or insecurity and the dissonance between own values and the organisation's goals. The great divergence between the different frameworks indicates that there is more need for research particularly in that branch of organisational storytelling. In chapter 8 this aspect will be given specific attention.

4.3.3 *Purposes and effects of organisational stories*

4.3.3.1 Knowledge transfer

Looking at the effects and purposes of stories, stories told in organisations are "most effective" (Kalid and Mahmood, 2012, p. 324) when they evolve from personal experiences, ideas and questions relating to issues at hand (Yoder-Wise

and Kowalski, 2003). Collison and Mackenzie (1999) even define stories as experiences and images, which employees use to communicate their views and imaginations to others. They work best when they inspire, teach or add meaning to an organisational situation (LeBlanc and Hogg, 2006). In his blog, Gabriel (2011) states that a rather recent development in research is the embracing of stories as a management tool. As earlier mentioned in this chapter, humans learn better through stories.

So, it is apparent that stories are used as tools for learning and knowledge transfer. Even in the earliest cultures myths and legends encompassed the culture's values and ideal qualities. Stories belonged to the tribe's collective learning (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999; Boje, 1991; Czarniawska, 1997). Understanding the myths helped to convey these fundamental values (Meyer, 1995; Collison and Mackenzie, 1999), because stories shape our perception of what is moral (Gabriel, 2000). In more recent times, it is used to transfer tacit knowledge within the organisation (Haghirian and Chini, 2002; Khalid and Mahmud, 2008), which involves knowledge sharing and knowledge management (Denning, 2000). Besides internalizing existent things, stories also foster creative output and innovation, which means that stories inspire people to be creative. Via stories, the status quo can be challenged and new ideas can be embedded (Gabriel, 2011; Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). New ideas can also include organisational change (Denning, 2005) and challenges with organisational diversity (Barker and Gower 2010; Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). The positive effect of stories on employee well-being was also researched. It was found that stories reduce uncertainty in organisation (Brown, 1985, 1990) and help employees to cope with pain (Gabriel, Gray and Goregaokar, 2013).

4.3.3.2 Management tool

Stories help the management to communicate meaning to the employees and thereby socialize new members (Brown, 1985, 1990). For managers and leaders, storytelling was found to help them to develop themselves (Morgan and Dennehy, 1997) as well as their communication and presentation skills, and explore different leadership styles (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). Managers and leaders thereby can manage meaning and emotions with stories (Gabriel, 2011). A hero story has an impact on successful leadership; for example, if a

leader tells the story of how the organisation successfully survived a crisis against all odds (Neuhauser, 1993). Such hero stories inspire followers (Parry and Hansen, 2007) and articulate ethos (Boyce, 1996). Browning (1992) points out that these epics differ fundamentally from everyday communication discourse and comprise detailed heroic selfless acts of founders. Finally, organisational storytelling also has an emotional aspect. It draws connections between employees and to the organisation by forming organisational commitment (McCarthy, 2008) building trust and solidarity (Gabriel, 2011) and generating emotional connections (Sole and Wilson, 2002). It reveals relationships among motives, stories and language use and unfolds human dramas (Burke, 1984, 1985).

4.3.3.3 Sense-making in Organisations

A lot of researchers have pointed out that stories are also important to members of organisations, because they are an important aspect of organisational sense-making (Boje, 1991, 1995; Weick, 1995; Gephart, 1991). Sense-making means that stories give some meaning to the employees and shape their fears and hopes for the future (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). They also give them some perspectives and help them to understand the reality of the organisation, like management decisions or sales strategies (Weick, 1995, 2001). If these issues are presented to the employees in the form of a story they can be understood more easily (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). Often, these stories are interpreted and reinterpreted in retrospective over time (Weick, 1995, 2001).

Stories also play an important part in passing on organisational culture to newcomers (Pettygrew, 1979) and reinforcing organisational culture as a whole (Hatch, Larsen and Schultz, 2000). Thus, James and Minnis (2004) claim that organisational stories are cultural artefacts (Schein, 2010) and might also be able to change the culture (James and Minnis, 2004), which is a very hard thing to do (Hendry, 1992). Erbert (2016) experienced that a feeling of strangeness, any experience or event that is regarded odd, unusual or unexpected, can be also expressed via stories and stories sometimes help to make sense of this strangeness and overcome it.

4.3.4 Conclusion

No matter whether researchers think organisations are nothing more than their stories and only exist because of them or if they think they just constitute the organisation, all researchers agree that narratives have a powerful effect on the reality we experience. They do not only create but also reflect culture. Corporate stories and myths characterize the organisation's culture because they make it concrete and tangible. Complex themes are more easily understood. Only then can they be interpreted and become full of meaning for the employee. Some researchers regard storytelling so important for the sense-making process that they rate storytelling and sense-making synonymous. Organisational sense-making shows unexpected and unanticipated events that have captured the attention of the staff and are often interpreted as contrasting more normalized organisational practices and routines. No matter if stories are hero stories of organisational epics or rule-breaking stories that are against corporate norms, they all express cultural manifestations, like leadership styles, and thereby form a collective memory for the organisation which provides information for new as well as existing members of the culture.

Relating this to the research question this means that narratives provide valuable insights into organisational life, especially regarding organisational culture and identity. In order to gain the deepest possible insights using organisational narratives, these narratives have to be analysed in-depth. To gain the best possible aspects of analysis within narratives an in-depth literature review was undertaken that compares the dimensions narratives were analysed in organisations with how narratives are analysed in branding, which is another discipline in management research where narratives are often used, and narrative research has already taken one step further. The following chapter builds the basis for the thematic analysis in chapter 8 and is also part of a paper which is currently in review with the peer-reviewed journal *Organization Studies* (Zinkstein and Stevens, 2018).

4.4 A comparative study of narratives in organisations and branding

4.4.1 *Nature, Origin, Function, and Focus in organisational narratives*

Table 11 shows a structured literature review. The table shows four dimensions with each two manifestations: The *Nature* of the organisational narratives can either be collective or personal and conflicting. The second dimension is *Origin* of the narrative: It means whether the classification of a narrative was drawn from modern literature or from ancient myths and archetypes. The third dimension relates to the *Function* of the narratives; whether they are considered as having an emotional or cognitive function. The last dimension deals with the *Focus* of the narrative and describes whether the paper concentrates on the process or the structure of the narrative.

Dimension	Manifestation	Authors	Manifestation	Authors
Nature	Collective	Clark, 1972; Wilkins, 1989; Meyer, 1995; Boje, 1991; Aaltio-Marjosola, 1994; Gold, 1997; Abma, 2000; Humphreys & Brown 2002.	Personal / Conflicting	Martin et al., 1983; Kelly, 1985; Gabriel, 1991a, b; Boje, 1995; Collison & Mackenzie, 1999; Swap et al., 2001; O'Connor, 2002; Vaara, 2002; James & Minnis, 2004; Dailey & Browning, 2013; Yost et al., 2015.
Origin	Modern	Martin et al., 1983; Kelly, 1985; Gabriel, 1991a; Collison & Mackenzie, 1999; O'Connor, 2002; Vaara, 2002; Yost et al., 2015.	Ancient	Clark, 1972; Mahler, 1988; Bowles, 1989; Boyce, 1996; Abma, 2000.
Function	Emotional	Clark, 1972; Martin et al., 1983; Wilkins, 1989; Kelly, 1985; McConkie & Boss, 1986; Gabriel, 1991a, b; Boje, 1991, 1995; Aaltio-Marjosola, 1994; Meyer, 1995; Boyce, 1996; Collison & Mackenzie, 1999; Abma, 2000; Feldman & Skoldberg, 2002; Humphreys & Brown, 2002; O'Connor, 2002; Vaara, 2002; James & Minnis, 2004; Dailey & Browning, 2013; Yost et al., 2015.	Cognitive	Wilkins, 1989; Boyce, 1996; Gold, 1997, Smith & Keyton, 2001; O'Connor, 2002; James & Minnis, 2004; Rhodes & Brown, 2005.

Focus	Process	Clark, 1972; Weick & Browning, 1986; Mahler, 1988; Boje, 1991, 1995; Aaltio-Marjosola, 1994; Gold, 1997; Abma, 2000; Swap et al. 2001; Feldman & Skoldberg, 2002; O'Connor, 2002; Dailey & Browning, 2013.	Structure	Martin et al., 1983; Kelly, 1985; Gabriel, 1991b; James & Minnis, 2004; Yost et al., 2015; Rhodes & Brown, 2005.
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Table 11: Structured Literature review with different dimensions of organisational stories. Sources as in the table.

In literature, there are two notions about the *Nature* of organisational stories. The first has the conception that there is just one collective story all employees draw from; one uniting myth. Boje (1991), for example, sees the organisation as a storytelling system that constitutes an institutional memory that is ultimately formed out of the individual memories. Another article by Boje suggests Disney's *Tamara* as a metaphor for all these stories. Boje (1995) chooses this labyrinthine story, because in the play the audience can follow different characters into different rooms of a house that is displayed on the stage and listen to either one or different characters. Boje (1995) describes that in *Tamara* multiple voices tell the same story. This agrees with Wilkins (1989) and Meyer (1995). They both argue that stories express common values and norms and thereby have a collective theme. Abma (2000) also describes personal stories as all forming one common organisational myth; when studying art schools, he discovered the unifying myth about how to make it to the top of the school, and recurring issues such as exceeding one's own limits or asking teachers for help. Aaltio-Majosola (1994) described that the collective organisational story can change into multiple stories, depending on the change of the culture and whether it is strong or weak. Clark (1972) shaped the term of the organisational saga that is rooted in the history and claims uniqueness. The different stages of the saga are active initiation (1) and fulfilment (2), which can be done by personnel or a program or a social base.

The contrasting view is that there are multiple voices in an organisation that tell different and sometimes also conflicting narratives. This can be because they interpret them differently. Here, Dailey and Browning (2013) argue that this leads to dualities such as *control* and *resistance*, *differentiation* and *integration* and *stability* and *change*. Their research is based on Martin et al. (1983) who found seven basic stories in each organisation. O'Connor (2002) also describes

the stories in an organisation as conflicting and even contradictory. Furthermore, Gabriel (1991b) argues that the stories are expressing inconsistent wishes and can have different interpretations.

There are also contrasting views when it comes to the *Origins* of narratives. In classifying narratives researchers often draw from terms and motives already known from the literature. In the review, it became apparent that there are two kinds of sources researchers draw on; either rather new concepts or ancient literature concepts. The latter is, for example, archetypes and ancient myths (Boyce, 1996; Abma, 2000; Bowles, 1989). Abma (2000), for example, speaks of a collective myth, whereas Bowles (1989) refers to the functions of mythologies. Mahler (1988) sees stories as classic myths, reflecting ancient archetypes that show a lot of symbolism. Clark (1972) refers to organisational sagas and goes so far as to say that it would take the place of religion since religion's power is declining.

Other researchers rather draw on themes from more modern literature such as Gabriel (1991a) who refers to five types of stories: comic, tragic, epic, comic-tragic and epic-comic types. Such a story typology is a very common result of publication in organisational narratives. Vaara (2002) distinguishes between optimistic success stories and pessimistic failure stories. O'Connor (2002) identifies six basic narrative types: the founding, visionary, marketing, strategy, historical and conventional story. Yost, et al. (2015) describe different story arcs: negative ones, such as tragedy and survival, and positive ones such as the transformative journey, steadily building, rags-to-riches and Phoenix rising. Thereby they loosely rely on Booker's (2004) seven types, which is also a very modern book. They also found paradoxical and cyclical story arcs that do not resemble literature story types. Martin et al. (1983) also loosely rely on Booker's seven basic types, by building their own organisational story arc frame based on seven types.

The third dimension relates to the *Functions* addressed; whether these are emotional or cognitive functions. The emotional studies deal with sense-making in an organisation (Abma, 2000; Meyer, 1995; James and Minnis, 2004) and communicating corporate values and ideals (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999). For

Boyce (1996) it is especially important, that these values are shared and encompass shared experiences. According to Collison and Mackenzie (1999), they help to develop a relationship with the organisation. Gabriel (1991a) ascribes them to discharge emotions and express wishes and ideas (Gabriel, 1991b). In Martin et al.'s (1983) typology the narrative address dualities, which means these issues are too complex to just fit in one term, so they are expressed in two poles of a dimension, such as resistance vs. control.

The cognitive functions deal specifically with learning in organisations via narratives (Swap et al., 2001; Gold, 1997; Rhodes and Brown, 2005). Wilkins (1989) puts it more broadly by describing stories as an important source of information in organisations. Gold (1997) also sees fast learning as a goal to which organisations should aspire. He shows how relationships contribute to a diverse pattern of learning within the organisation. Smith and Keyton (2001) have a contrasting view. They describe how storytelling serves as an internal control device in organisations. In his literature review, Boyce (1996) mentions as cognitive functions also enabling decision-making and co-creating a strategy. O'Connor (2002) sees next to the decision-making also the function of convincing others to give money to the company. However, there are only a few articles that evolve around the cognitive functions.

The last dimension in organisational narratives revolves around *Focus* of the article; whether it deals with the structure of the narrative itself, including themes and story arcs, or with the process of telling, retelling (Boje, 1995), and interpreting (Feldman and Skoldberg, 2002; Mahler, 1988) the story heard. While Boje (1995) argues that a story is constantly retold and fragmented and changed, Dailey and Browning (2013) see stability in interpretation. Abma (2000) mentions in the process of telling also a way of deconstructing the myth to its key parts and making it an own story. Swap et al. (2001) see in the process as particularly important for organisational learning. Aaltio-Majosola (1994) see an importance in organisational change management. On the other hand, there is a huge academic body that rather deals with the structure of the story itself, such as Martin et al. (1983) who see seven basic types of stories in organisations or Yost et al. (2015) that deal with different story arcs and themes. Gabriel (1991b) describes that each organisational story has one of three themes, either

turning *passivity into activity* (1), *powerlessness into control* (2) or *offering consolations against pain and suffering* (3). Kelly (1985) found similar issues addressed by stories in organisations, such as equality, security and control.

In conclusion, most of the dimensions are balanced, although not all dimensions appear in every article. The dimension of functions appears in 25 of the 29 journal articles. Eight articles address the cognitive functions, whereas 17 articles address the emotional functions. The *Nature* of stories was the second most discussed issue in the articles. Eight journal articles discuss the conception of a collective story, whereas twelve articles revolve around personal and conflicting stories. The *Focus* of narratives was discussed by 13 papers, in which seven dealt with the process of telling and six with the structure and themes of narratives. *Origins* of narratives were discussed by thirteen papers as well. Here seven publications revolved around literary motives whereas six articles dealt with the comparison of organisational narratives to ancient myths and archetypes. Of course, it might be added the distinction may not always be clear-cut. Sometimes some papers also mention the other manifestations of the dimension, so the allocation is given according to the focus of the paper.

4.4.2 *Origin, Nature, Focus and Function in brand narratives*

The structured literature review of the brand narratives There were eight dimensions identified, four congruent with organisational narratives and four new ones. The additional dimensions indicate that the topic is richer and also rather unexplored and also straying in more directions.

Dimension	Manifestation	Authors	Manifestation	Authors
Nature	Collective	Allen & Olson, 1995; Padgett & Allen, 1997; Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Mattila, 2000; Papadatos, 2006; Stevens & Maclaran, 2007; Brown & Patterson, 2010; Cooper et al., 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Lundqvist et al., 2013; Lueck et al., 2014; Aaker & Aaker, 2016.	Personal / Conflicting	Fournier, 1998; Stern et al., 1998; Shankar et al., 2001; Escalas, 2004, 2007; Ahuvia, 2005; Woodside et al., 2008; Koll et al., 2010; Megehee & Woodside, 2010; Phillips & McQuarrie, 2010; Schembri et al., 2010; Megehee & Spake, 2012; Ardelet et al., 2015.

Origin	Modern	Fournier, 1998; Schroeder, 2005; Brown & Patterson, 2010; Paharia et al., 2011.	Ancient	Stevens & Maclaran, 2007; Woodside et al., 2008; Cooper et al., 2010; Megehee & Woodside, 2010; Megehee & Spake, 2012; Aaker & Aaker, 2016.
Function	Emotional	Fournier, 1998; Stern et al., 1998; Mattila, 2000; Shankar, et al. 2001; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Papadatos, 2006; Stevens and Maclaran, 2007; Woodside et al., 2008; Megehee & Woodside, 2008; Philipps & McQuarrie, 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Megehee & Spake, 2012; Lueck et al., 2014.	Cognitive	Padgett & Allen, 1997; Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Ahuvia, 2005; Schroeder, 2005; Escalas, 2007; Polyorat, Alden, and Kim, 2007; Koll et al., 2010.
Focus	Process	Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Escalas, 2004; Schroeder, 2005; Luedicke & Giesler, 2008; Woodside et al., 2008; Philipps & McQuarrie, 2010; Lueck et al., 2014.	Structure	Allen & Olson, 1995; Fournier, 1998; Stern et al., 1998; Shankar et al., 2001; Ahuvia, 2005; Papadatos, 2006; Brown & Patterson, 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Aaker & Aaker, 2016.

Table 12: Structured Literature review with different dimensions of brand stories. Sources as in the table.

Table 12 shows that the same dimensions as in organisational narratives were also found in brand narrative publications. The *Nature* dimension can be easily clustered into brand narratives and consumer narratives, because brand narratives tell one coherent story, the story of the brand (Paharia, Keinan, Avery and Schor, 2011) whether it is an underdog story or the story of an archetype, like the siren. Cooper, Schembri and Miller (2010) identified three archetypes; the lover, the superhero and the outlaw, which are used by different brands. Paharia et al. (2011) specifically researched the underdog narrative and its effects in their research. Consumer narratives - on the contrary - tell multiple different stories of a consumer's experience (Escalas, 2007) or relationship with a brand (Fournier, 1998). Woodside, Sood, and Miller (2008) describe how consumers use brands as props or anthropomorphic actors in stories they report about themselves and others, here they can take multiple different roles. Fournier (1998) depicts seven different relationships consumers can have with brands which in turn lead to multiple different stories. Megehee and colleagues (Megehee and Woodside, 2010; Megehee and Spake, 2012) show how consumers enact their own archetypes in their interaction with luxury brands, which can be seen as a combination of the collective brand story with the individual consumer enactment.

Also, the *Origin* dimension is similar to the organisational narratives. In order to understand brand narratives, researchers often draw on other literary concepts of narratives. Some draw on archetypes such as the *Hero* (Aaker and Aaker, 2016), the *Outlaw* (Cooper et al., 2010), the *Seducer* (Stevens and Maclaran, 2007) or the *Siren* (Megehee and Spake, 2012), which can be traced back to ancient literature. Others also use the myth metaphor for the narratives, such as Woodside et al. (2008) who postulate that consumers form powerful myths drawn from archetypes in order to enact their own narrative. On the other hand, some researchers make use of more modern concepts in literature such as the underdog metaphor (Paharia et al., 2011) or of Booker's (2004) seven basic plot theory (Brown and Patterson, 2010). Also, Fournier's (1998) relationship model is based on modern narrative concepts such as *Secret Affairs* or *Flings*. There are more articles published about brand narratives than consumer narratives that draw on literary themes.

The dimension of *Function* also relates to cognitive and emotional/attitudinal function (Escalas, 2004; Fournier, 1998), similar to organisational narratives. In the emotional manifestation, Lueck, Miller, Cavanah, Kim, Peng, and Liu (2014) predominantly discuss the effects of attitude changes in narratives and the influence of the narrative structure. Mattila (2000) ascribes brand narratives a positive effect on the customers' mood. Woodside et al. (2008) researched the emotional intensity consumers experience when interacting with brands. Philips and McQuarrie (2010) studied the forms of engagement among others to feel or to immerse with the brand. Besides engagement, an interaction can also be to draw a self-connection to the brand in order to adapt the self-concept (Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Shankar et al., 2001). Another form of self-connection is identification. Paharia et al. (2011) found out that consumers had a higher purchase intention and identified more with underdog brands. Stern, Thompson, and Arnould (1998) addressed the sense-making theme. According to them, consumers use brands to make sense of events in their lives. Papadatos (2006) describes other feelings like anticipation, crisis, being helped and success.

There are only a few articles about the cognitive effects, such as purchase intention (Paharia et al., 2011), information processing (Adaval and Wyer, 1998) or brand knowledge (Koll, von Wallpach and Kreuzer, 2010). Padgett and Allen

(1997) suggest narratives help in better understanding advertising messages. Ahuvia (2005) points out, that narratives about brands are a strategy for consumers to form coherent selves. Since strategic decision-making is a rather cognitive process, Ahuvia's (2005) research is counted as research about cognitive functions. Escalas (2007) also describes self-referencing as a cognitive and analytical process rather than emotional, and states that narrative self-referencing is less critical than non-narrative self-referencing. Lundqvist et al. (2013) describe that consumers exposed to a narrative are willing to pay more for a product. Some researchers address both cognitive and emotional functions, such as Schembri, Merrilees, Kristiansen (2010), relating them to symbolic, iconic and indexical brand relations.

The fourth dimension relates to the *Focus*, which means whether the article addresses the different forms, structure and themes of narrative or the process of telling, interpreting and retelling the narratives. The articles that revolve around the structure describe several types of stories (Aaker and Aaker, 2016; Brown and Patterson, 2010; Fournier, 1998) or only one type in specific, such as the underdog (Paharia et al., 2011). Others deal with how they are structured and constructed (Papadatos, 2006; Shankar, Elliott and Goulding, 2001). Shankar et al. (2001) describe consumer narratives as a way of constructing a coherent self-narrative. Woodside et al. (2008) describe a master plot that displays the time (past, present and future) and the emotional intensity. Allen and Olson (1995, p. 210) describe it as "In sum, the stories consumers tell about service incidents reveal information in both structure and theme".

The articles that relate to the process of telling and interpreting, meaning discourse, often involve narrative advertising (Lueck et al., 2014; Schroeder, 2005). Information, for example, about the brand is better processed when it is included into a story (Adaval and Wyer, 1998). Ahuvia (2005) describes three different ways of dealing with stories; demarcating, compromising and synthesising. Luedicke and Giesler (2008) constructed a consumer meta-brand narrative map that is formed by the interplay of various consumer narratives similar to the organisational narratives that all form one myth (Abma, 2000). Escalas (2004) describes narrative processing to help the enhancement of self-brand connections.

Schroeder (2005) describes the interplay of artist, brands and culture that ultimately form the narrative.

In sum, every dimension that could be identified in organisational narratives can also be identified in brand or consumer narratives. There are fifteen articles that address brand narratives, whereas thirteen address consumer narratives. Thereby it is the most common dimension that was addressed by most of the researchers. The dimension of *Function* was the second most discussed dimension. Thirteen narratives addressed the emotional functions and seven addressed the cognitive ones. The third most discussed dimension was *Focus*. Seven of the researched articles described the processes of telling and interpreting narratives, whereas nine dealt with the structure and themes of narratives. The least discussed dimension was *Origin*. It was discussed by ten articles; six with ancient literary forms such as archetypes and myths and four with more modern concepts. This could indicate that more research is needed in this area, which will be returned to in chapter 8.

4.4.3 *Connection, Actor, Relationship and Value in brand narratives*

Besides the dimensions congruent with the organisational narratives, others were found during the structured literature review. Table 13 shows these additional dimensions. The first additional dimension is *Connection*. It indicates if there is a connection drawn either to the in-group or the out-group; terms that have already been discussed in relation to social identity theory. There are only three articles that take these dimensions into account. Escalas and Bettman (2005) relate to the out-group regarding unfavourable self-brand connections if the brand is linked to it. Paharia et al. (2011) discuss the identification with the underdog as part of an integrative in-group. Aaker and Aaker (2016) relate to both by including the customer and supplier as part of the out-group, as well as the founder as part of the in-group. That this dimension does not appear in the organisational stories could be ascribed to the issue that organisational publications are mostly inwardly focussed and, in most cases, leave the outside world out of their focus. This will be changed in chapter 8, when the additional dimensions of brand narratives are applied to organisational narratives.

Dimension	Manifestation	Authors	Manifestation	Authors
Connection	In-group	Paharia et al., 2011; Aaker & Aaker, 2016.	Out-group	Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Aaker & Aaker, 2016.
Actor	Self	Stern et al., 1998; Escalas, 2007; Ahuvia, 2005; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Woodside et al., 2008; Megehee & Woodside, 2010; Schembri et al., 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Megehee & Spake, 2012.	Brand	Allen & Olson, 1995; Padgett & Allen, 1997; Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Fournier, 1998; Mattila, 2000; Shankar et al., 2001; Schroeder, 2005; Papadatos, 2006; Polyorat et al., 2007; Stevens & Maclaran, 2007; Luedicke & Giesler, 2008; Brown & Patterson, 2010; Koll et al., 2010; Philipps & McQuarrie, 2010; Lundkvist et al., 2013; Lueck et al., 2014; Ardelet et al., 2015; Aaker & Aaker, 2016
Relationship	Partner	Allen & Olson, 1995; Fournier, 1998; Escalas, 2004; Woodside et al., 2008; Megehee & Woodside, 2010; Schembri et al., 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Megehee & Spake, 2012.	Enabler	Padgett & Allen, 1997; Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Stern et al., 1998; Mattila, 2000; Shankar et al., 2001; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Schroeder, 2005; Papadatos, 2006; Escalas, 2007; Polyorat et al., 2007; Stevens & Maclaran, 2007; Brown & Patterson, 2010; Koll et al., 2010; Philipps & McQuarrie, 2010; Lundkvist et al., 2013; Lueck et al., 2014; Ardelet et al., 2015; Aaker & Aaker, 2016
Value	Identity	Allen & Olson, 1995; Fournier, 1998; Shankar et al., 2001; Escalas, 2004; Ahuvia, 2005; Stevens & Maclaran, 2007; Woodside et al., 2008; Cooper et al., 2010; Megehee & Woodside, 2010; Philips & McQuarrie, 2010; Schembri et al., 2010; Megehee & Spake, 2012; Ardelet et al., 2015	Utility	Padgett & Allen, 1997; Adaval & Wyer, 1998; Stern et al., 1998; Mattila, 2000; Schroeder, 2005; Papadatos, 2006; Escalas, 2007; Polyorat et al., 2007; Brown & Patterson, 2010; Koll et al., 2010; Paharia et al., 2011; Lundkvist et al., 2013; Lueck et al., 2014; Aaker & Aaker, 2016.

Table 13: Structured Literature review with additional brand specific dimensions of brand stories. Sources as in the table.

The second dimension is the definition of the *Main Actor* of the narrative not being consistent with the dimension *Nature* but shows some correlations. All articles that are brand narratives show as the *Main Actor* the brand or some instance of the organisation. Cooper et al. (2010), for example, depict three different types of story, where the brand takes a different role for each. Similarly, Stevens and Maclaran (2007) describe three different roles for brands and Paharia et al. (2011) describe the brand acting as an underdog. In consumer narratives, it is not as clearly segregated. Allen and Olson (1995) relate this to the constructs of brand personality and relationship. Some articles also address narrative advertising. This means that advertisements are constructed as a story

and its positive effects (Padgett and Allen, 1997; Lueck et al., 2014; Adaval and Wyer, 1998; Allen and Olson, 1995), where the brand plays a role that is either seen as favourable by the customer or not (Lundqvist et al., 2013). Contrastingly, some consumer narratives also have the brand as Main Actor. This is mostly the case when the relationship between the consumer and the brand plays a role and the brand personality has some influence (Ardelet, Slavich and de Kerviler, 2015; Fournier, 1998; Koll et al., 2010). In the majority of consumer narratives, the self plays the main role. Thereby, it is often displayed how the brand helps the consumer to be a different or better self (Schembri et al., 2010; Escalas, 2004). They describe either the process, how this works (Ahuvia, 2005; Escalas and Bettman, 2005) or the result, a different self (Escalas, 2004). Escalas and Bettman (2005), for example, describe the process of comparing the self to the in- and out-group and the role the brand plays. Megehee and colleagues (Megehee and Woodside, 2010; Megehee and Spake, 2012) describe how consumers use existing brand narratives for creating a self-narrative, where they re-enact the role of the brand themselves.

Another dimension is the *Relationship* that is established between the consumer and the brand. It is distinguished if the brand is a partner, meaning it is anthropomorphized (Fournier, 1998; Woodside et al., 2008; Allen and Olson, 1995) and a relationship is established where the consumer can give back something or is simply an enabler that brings benefits and has some undesirable features (Adaval and Wyer, 1998). In Aaker and Aaker's (2016), article the hero metaphor is chosen to illustrate the benefits the brand provides. The articles that revolve around narrative advertising also put enabling in focus (Lueck et al., 2014; Padgett and Allen, 1997; Adaval and Wyer, 1998), because the advertisements often show the brand in a favourable way providing advantages. But also, consumer narratives that depict the brand as helping self-enhancement belong to this category (Stern et al., 1998; Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Escalas, 2007).

The brand as a partner is described by only a few articles that revolve around brand narratives. Paharia et al.'s (2011) underdog metaphor depicts the brand as someone to be sympathetic with. Allen and Olson (1995) deal with brand personality and brand relationships and the importance of narrative thought in

constructing a relationship. In Consumer narratives, Fournier (1998), for example, describes the brand as an equal partner that is similar to a person. Self-brand connections, researched by Escalas (2004) are a less intense form of relationship. Woodside et al. (2008) describe the brand as an anthropomorphic actor that has different emotional effects on the consumer. In organisational narratives this could be used to examine whether organisational narratives display the organisation as an anthropomorphic actor.

The dimension of the relationship is also linked with the next dimension the *Value of the brand*, whether its value is utilitarian – which is mostly the case if the brand is only an enabler or if it is linked to the identity of the consumer. But there are also some exceptions. Phillips and McQuarrie (2010) depict the act of engaging either with the product or with the story. Ardelet et al. (2015) also see an identity serving value even though the brand is just an enabler. Shankar et al. (2001) bring these enabling functions together with the coherent life stories. The brands are responsible for fitting with the life story of the consumers. The life stories will be also important for the collective identity of the members of an organisation: The Organisational Life Story, the overarching concept of this research project which is going to be presented in chapter 9.

In conclusion, the dimensions are rather balanced, with two exceptions. Regarding *Relationship*, there are far fewer articles that study the brand as a partner, only eight studying it as an enabler, in a total of 18. Also, the dimension of the main actor has a surplus on the brand side. Nineteen articles discuss the brand as the main actor, whereas only nine address the consumer as the main actor. The other two are balanced. There are 13 articles that see the value of the brand as identity forming, whereas 14 articles discuss the brand's utilitarian value as lower need fulfiller. The connection either to the in-group or to the out-group was only mentioned by four articles in total; two related to the in-group and two to the out-group. This shows that besides the dimensions, that were also discussed in organisational narratives, there is a rich selection of other topics relating to brands with interesting findings.

4.4.4 *Conclusion*

The four additional dimensions are interesting because they do not seem to be addressed in the organisational narratives, for example, the connection. The in-group and out-group theme is one that will be of interest in the empirical part of this thesis, since the comparison with other forms is an ongoing and important cognitive process. Also, the question of the main actor is important because there could be some narratives where the development of the organisation could play a role. The value dimension will be of specific interest since organisational identity is one of the main construct of this thesis addressing the identity issues of the organisation.

In conclusion, brand and organisational narratives have some dimensions in common, but there is more to brand narratives than meets the eye at first sight. It is a rich topic that needs to be explored more. There appears to be more breadth in the brand narrative research, whereas research within organisational narratives may be perceived as having a narrower focus but more depth. One explanation could be that the mission of brand narratives is making the brand tangible for the consumer, bringing something from the inside to the outside. Organisational narratives on the other hand mostly revolve around things happening within an organisation, with less direction to the outside and more focus on the organisation itself.

4.5 Summary of the chapter

The chapter starts with a broader description of narratives, which is important for understanding their relevance and helping to analyse them in the further course of the research. Narratives consist of a plot, are shaped by conflict, character and emotions, are told by a narrator and heard by an audience, which in turn tries to interpret them. It becomes clear that narratives form an important part in the human way of thinking. It is argued whether they have a sense-making or a sense-giving function in organisations, which is similar to the discussions about organisational identity. It is also argued whether they are constitutive of organisations or constructive of organisation, which is similar to the culture discussion. Narratives seem to be like a looking glass condensing cultural

meanings, or a transmitter decoding the core of an organisations' identity. Like a picture, a narrative is worth a thousand words

Different frameworks to provide an additional layer of interpretation were developed, employing themes, different plots relying on literature or newly developed. There is a great divergence between the different frameworks. This implies that more research is needed on the one hand, but also a more common framework can only be created if one looks not at specific plots or situations but rather at inner emotions, such as feelings of inequality or insecurity and the dissonance between own values and the organisation's goals. Another interesting point is that the frameworks draw rather on literature than on existing frameworks in organisational life. The importance of a framework which is based on organisational life will be addressed in chapter nine.

The comparative analysis of brand and organisational narratives presented interesting findings. There were four dimensions which prevailed in both organisational and brand narratives. These dimensions each had two manifestations, namely *Origin* (ancient or modern), *Nature* (collective or personal/conflicting), *Function* (emotional or cognitive) and *Focus* (process or structure). In brand narratives, four additional dimension with two manifestations each were found: *Connection* (In-group or out-group), *Actor* (brand or consumer), *Relationship* (partner or enabler) and *Value* (identity or utility). These additional dimensions indicate that the research in brand narrative has been broader and focussed more outwardly. In this research project, the narratives will be researched particularly in regard to the additional four dimensions in order to find a consistent framework for narratives that helps to understand the aspects of organisational culture and identity that further the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. Only in accessing these two constructs, namely organisational identity and culture through the looking glass of organisational narratives, can meaningful findings for Employee Advocacy be generated.

5 Research approach

5.1 Research objective

The research aim was already presented in chapter 1.2: To understand what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. This means to examine *organisational culture and identity in relation to Employee Advocacy and its antecedents*.

The research objectives here are:

1. Explore the direct link between the antecedents of Employee Advocacy (identity, loyalty and satisfaction) and Employee Advocacy itself.
2. Understand how organisational culture and organisational identity link to the antecedents.
3. Access the deeper perceptions employees have about the organisational culture and identity via stories.
4. Contribute to the methodological knowledge of narrative and ethnographic analysis in organisations.

These research objectives will guide the decisions that were made and the course that was followed throughout the research process. Research philosophy, strategy and methods build upon each other and cannot be seen independently.

In this chapter, the course of research is described. The chapter shows the procedure of choosing a research philosophy and the strategy that follows including choosing appropriate instruments to execute the strategy. The data collection and analysis chapter will describe the research procedures in this project and include an initial description of the data. Each of these discussions will be related back to the research objectives. The chapter closes with the methodological limitations.

5.2 Research philosophy

5.2.1 *Positivism and interpretivism*

Choosing a research philosophy determines the whole course of the research and “involves something much deeper than practicalities” (Holden and Lynch, 2004, p. 2). Burrell and Morgan (1979) identify two relevant dimensions defining

the research philosophy: Assumptions about the nature of society and assumptions about the nature of science. The researcher has to decide whether following the conviction society is of a regulatory nature or follows radical change. Every research philosophy follows a certain ontology, epistemology and methodology which build upon each other.

Ontology summarizes the conception of the realm of being; respectively how we construe the nature of things we study (Humphrey, 2012). The choice of ontology defines how reality is perceived and what worldview the researcher follows; whether it is perceived as entirely made of human imagination or as externally stable. Epistemology is the core assumptions of how knowledge should be gained. It defines the nature, validity and limits of inquiry (Holden and Lynch, 2004). The last concept is the methodology, including the data collection technique. It states which instruments the researcher uses to achieve the research objective. In the following, the research philosophies of positivism and interpretivism are introduced and evaluated for their fit with the aforementioned research objectives.

Followers of positivism postulate that only what is observable with the senses can be validly gained as knowledge. As science is deductive, causal connections are assumed (Bryman, 2003). In positivist research, hypotheses test a theory. If a hypothesis is rejected, the theory has to be revised (Bryman, 2003). Positivism follows the ontological belief that there is a stable external reality that follows certain laws, comparable to the natural sciences (Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter, 2006). The positivist epistemology starts from the basis that things can be objectively observed independent of social actors (Saunders et al., 2009). Hence, objective knowledge is possible (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Positivist research gains knowledge from theory testing and positive verification. The positivist methodology suggests that research has to be executed without interfering with the research object, from a detached point of view. Observations should be repeatable (Davison, 1998). Quantitative research and positivism are often seen as belonging together (Saunders et al., 2009, Terre Blanche et al., 2006, Holden and Lynch, 2004), and employ large samples and highly structured data. The research is static; categories are developed before the research begins (Ormston et al., 2014).

Interpretive research is not as common as positivist research in business and management disciplines, but has gained ground in the last two decades. Here, it is assumed that there is no neutral observer; multiple perspectives and multiple selves shape the social world (Bell, 1999). The ontology of interpretivism says that reality is socially construed and may change over time. Psychological, social, historical and cultural factors have an important influence on people's understanding of the world (Ormston et al., 2014). There can be multiple views of reality, each as valid as another (Saunders et al., 2009). Interpretivist epistemology demands that human beings construe knowledge in an active process (Ormston et al., 2014). Guba (1990, p. 235) emphasizes that interpretivist knowledge does not come from "armchair speculations or elegant deductive reasoning but both discovered and justified from the field". Interpretivist methodology suggests a qualitative approach to the research; there are no dependent and independent variables (Myers, 2008). Small samples are investigated in-depth; the data gathering takes place in interaction and is not detached from the research object. The interpretation of the data is just as important as data gathering itself (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Opponents of this research philosophy are persuaded that interpretivism is vulnerable to bias due to the personal viewpoint (Myers, 2008), and lacks validity, reliability and generalisability (Eisenhardt, 1989) because of small samples that do not represent the whole population.

5.2.2 Rationale for interpretivism

According to a lot of researchers, the choice of a research philosophy is mostly a personal one and there is no right or wrong philosophical stance (Ormston et al., 2014; Blaikie, 1991; Avison, Lau, Myers and Nielson, 1999). Yet, some philosophies are better suited to some questions than others. In this research project, the objective is to understand the relation between organisational identity and culture and the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. The interpretivist approach for reaching the research objectives was chosen for three reasons: The phenomenon of Employee Advocacy is too unexplored to rely on prior knowledge and form testable hypotheses; it is better to form an open research question and explore the topic from more facets than to limit the research from the beginning on few hypotheses. The second reason is that the objective is a better understanding of the relation between organisational culture, organisational identity and the antecedents of identity. This calls for an interpretivist approach because culture and

identity are social phenomena, which are constructed of multiple emotional and cognitive factors. A positivist approach could not be applied since it would be contrary to the aim of gaining a full understanding. Identification, loyalty and satisfaction cannot be looked at in isolation as simple variables. This would contradict the aim of a holistic approach. The third reason is that how the constructs of organisational identity and organisational culture are understood – as shared understandings – has an impact on the choice: the interpretation of the observed phenomena will be as important as the phenomena itself and predefined hypotheses would give no room for the interpretation.

To sum up, in interpretivism the researcher tries to understand the individual reality of every single researched person. Because the feeling of being part of something is highly subjective, and every conception of culture and organisational identity will be different, a positivist approach would not do justice to the research question and objective. An inductive approach, where the theory is derived from the data and not the other way around is more suitable for approaching a relatively unexplored topic of Employee Advocacy.

5.3 Research strategies in this project

5.3.1 *The different research strategies*

After choosing a research philosophy which is often more of an ideological than a pragmatic choice, the strategy has to be chosen. This chapter explains the research strategy chosen for this research project. A research strategy consists of a goal, a procedure of steps to achieve the goal, and a set of techniques involved in the procedures (Hinkelmann and Witschel, 2013). Since the interpretivist approach was chosen, qualitative strategies are more fitting in answering the research question of this research project. Action research, ethnography, focus groups, game or role-playing, in-depth surveys and participant observer are seen by Holden and Lynch (2004) as strictly following the interpretivist philosophy. Depending on the strategy the methodological choice can be made, of whether to limit the research to the mono method tactic or combine different methods. Reasons for a mixed-method design could be the triangulation of two or more independent sources of data or data collection methods to confirm each other's findings (Bryman, 2006). If both qualitative and quantitative data are gathered, the

qualitative data helps to explain the relationship between the quantitative variables (Bryman, 2006)

5.3.2 *Ethnography for understanding organisational identity, culture and Employee Advocacy*

Ethnography is one of the chosen strategies in this research project. There are three different conceptions of ethnography: as a method, as a paradigm and as a way of writing (Bate, 1997). The first of these sees ethnography simply as a way of data gathering, whilst the second postulates a cultural way of thinking, a frame of mind and a way of looking at the world. The third conception sees ethnography as a way of presenting collected information (Bate, 1997). In this research project ethnography is perceived as both a paradigm and a way of writing.

If one conceives of ethnography as a paradigm, one first has to look into its origins. Ethnography borrows from many different fields of research, such as anthropological and sociological functionalism, philosophical pragmatism and symbolic interactionism, phenomenology and constructionism (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007). Today most researchers perceive ethnography as strictly interpretivist. Ethnography sees the social world as consisting of multiple perspectives and multiple selves (Bell, 1999). Understanding the social world means understanding the shared behaviours, beliefs and values prevailing in a culture (Ormston et al., 2014). This understanding can be gained “by immersion in the community to produce detailed descriptions of their culture and beliefs” (Ormston et al., 2014, p. 18). The fieldwork requires living with a group for a long period of time (over the course of a year or more). The data collection in a natural setting that is not manipulated for research purposes is characteristic of ethnographic work (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007). The advantage of ethnography is that it puts the individual perspective back in its social setting into the context in which action takes place (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007).

In ethnography, special emphasis is placed on the researcher’s relation to the field. It is important how researchers approach the field and how the relationship to the research objects is developed (Lettau and Breuer, undated). Bell (1999, p. 18) describes ethnography in three steps: “Getting in (to the organisation), getting on (with collecting the data), getting out (of the research site), (whilst maintaining the possibility of) getting back”. Wolcott postulates that ethnography is more than

just a case study or the fact of being there; in ethnographical research, the researcher has to go the extra mile (Wolcott, 2002). The data can be collected by asking questions, collecting documents and taking part in the lives of the research objects (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007). The objective of ethnographic research is to get deep insights into one specific organisation over a long period of time (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007).

Bate (1997) names four qualities of good ethnography: 1) The quality of being there. Bate prescribes a high level of closeness to the research objects. Authenticity and street-credibility can be best achieved if the research is really close to its research objective. So being not good enough can be related back to being not close enough (Bate, 1997). 2) Another strength of ethnography is its ability to display everyday lives from a very intimate perspective. 3) Ethnography also offers a rich description because it lets people speak for themselves (Bate, 1997). It presents phenomena in new revealing ways through insightful descriptions. 4) Hence, the fourth quality of ethnography is the evoking of emotional and intellectual responses (Bate, 1997). Yanow, Ybema, and van Hulst (2012) also see the flexibility in research design and the sensitivity to hidden dimensions of organisational life as an advantage of the ethnographic approach.

Despite its obvious advantages the researcher has to face a number of challenges. In order to gain a deep and full understanding of an organisation's culture and its underlying values and beliefs, the researcher has to win over the trust of the researched. His or her role, whether it is open or covered, has to be negotiated. Furthermore, developing a relationship with the researched takes time (Shouten and McAlexander, 1995). Another challenge is to maintain control during the research process and remain passive in the researcher role. The behaviour of the participants is in focus (Fine, Weis, Addlestone, and Marusza, 1997; Eberle and Maeder, 2011). Often the researcher faces the difficulty of a solid start date of the observation (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007). Yet, before starting research and observation a prior knowledge of language, concepts, rules and beliefs of the organisation has to be developed (Wolcott, 1995). Van Maanen (1979) mentions a challenge in data evaluation, namely to separate first-order and second-order concepts (theory and data) (Van Maanen, 1979). In chapter 5.4, the application of ethnography in this project will be described. This strategy is adequate for this research project because one organisation was researched

from an insider perspective, which enabled trust from the interviewees and gained fruitful insights.

5.3.3 *Constructivist grounded theory and thematic analysis for producing theory from data*

The research strategies applied for the data analysis are grounded theory and thematic analysis. In Grounded theory, there are no hypotheses emerging from existing theoretical frameworks to be tested (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Saunders et al., 2009). The inductive approach puts the data before the theory. The data is generated by a series of observations making predictions. These predictions are tested in further observations and afterwards confirmed or further developed. The theory is grounded in continual reference to the data. Following the 'Glaserian' approach a researcher should not even specifically define research problems, but rather broad research questions (Alemu, Stevens, Ross and Chandler, 2015). This rigid concentration of total empiricism has been criticized by many researchers. Dunn (2011) e.g. criticized that with foregoing this approach it is somewhat unclear when the description ends and the conceptualization starts.

To solve this Charmaz (2006) developed constructivist grounded theory, which is followed in this research project. She embraced the more pragmatic view of Strauss of the iterative logic and the clear tools, but disliked the positivist view on reality and the assumption that objectivity was possible. She considers the assumption of an objective external reality and the neutral observer as outdated, as in her view, the researcher cannot be a distant and objective observer (Alemu et al., 2015), so she developed the Constructivist Grounded Theory approach, which follows a constructivist philosophy. She decided to use the word constructivist to emphasize the subjectivity, on the assumption that meaning is constructed by both the researcher and the participants in a mutual process during the data collection as well as the analysis. Mills, Bonner, and Francis (2006) also postulate that the interaction between researcher and research participants can never be neutral, because in the research process ideas come up, are discussed and further developed. They speak of co-construction of data (Mills et al., 2006). Regarding the literature review, Charmaz (2006) argues that it is impossible to avoid exposition to existing theories, because they usually research in a field which they know. Charmaz rather proposes to be aware of existing theories, but

not start from them. Suddaby (2006) also holds the view that in practice, research should take place on a middle ground between a theory-laden view and total empiricism. Suddaby (2006) recommends elaborating existing theory rather than advancing in a completely new theory.

In the context of taking pre-existing literature into account when engaging in Grounded Theory, often Thematic Analysis is named. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 81) define thematic analysis as a method “which identifies patterns (themes, stories) within data, and theorizes language as constitutive of meaning and meaning as social”. It organises and describes the data set in rich detail and also interprets various aspects of the research topic. A thematic structure is developed that is grounded in the empirical material and compares and analyses the different cases. Thereby the comparability is increased and also the individual cases are kept. According to Boyatzis (1998), the use of Thematic Analysis has three different stages. In the first stage, the researcher decides on a sampling and design process. In the second stage, similar to grounded theory themes and a code are developed, in stage three, validating and using the code takes place. There are three different options to master stage two: Theory-driven, prior-data or prior-research-driven or inductive from raw data. These three form a continuum. While the inductive data approach is very close to the conceptions of Grounded Theory, the theory-driven codes are developed out of the context of the theory that was previously read. The theory based approach has the advantage that the research does not have to invent the wheel anew, but can contribute to the existing. Researchers following the data-laden approach argue that with the use of prior data the researcher also accepts the biases under which these data were collected.

In this research project, the researcher will follow the Constructivist Grounded Theory approach combined with data-laden thematic analysis. This makes it easier to avoid the main pitfall of grounded theory namely neglecting the literature and having findings that are not new or obvious. The procedures of Grounded Theory will be explained in more detail in chapter 5.6.3. This research strategy is adequate for the research question, because it allows an approach with maximum openness to relating the antecedents of Employee Advocacy to organisational identity and culture and accessing these via narratives. The thematic analysis approach is also taken when it comes to analysing the narratives; because of the very rich theory that is already there and pointed out in Chapter 4, it would be

unwise to start completely anew. In the narrative analysis, Chapter 8, there are some dimensions and codes taken from theory, which are described in Chapter 4, for example, the dimensions of Connection, Actor, Value, Focus and Function.

Combining the two approaches, such as using Grounded Theory in Ethnography prioritizes the studied phenomenon over the setting. Here ethnography focusses less on describing a certain culture or other aspects of organisational life than understanding it and finding its meanings. "Grounded theory methods move ethnographic research toward theoretical development by raising description to abstract categories and theoretical interpretation" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 23). This means by combining these two research strategies, not only a description and categories are formed, but the theory is built giving more depth to the ethnographic finding.

5.3.4 Narrative inquiry for yielding narratives about Employee Advocacy, its antecedents, organisational identity and culture

Another strategy applied in this research project is narrative inquiry. Narrative inquiry is a specific approach to qualitative data. It has been used in many disciplines such as anthropology, management, marketing, psychology and sociology. In management studies, narrative analysis is used for presenting data of organisational actors or aspects of organisational sense-making (Myers, 2008). Although having gained more and more interest in the last twenty years, Elliot (2005, p. 36) points out that "there is yet no single analytic approach that can provide *the* definition of narrative analysis" and a lot of coexisting approaches are in use. She elaborates that looking at the definition of narratives the analysis can either take a narrative informed methodology by, for example, researching a topic in an auto-ethnographic way, others with a hermeneutic focus will follow the evaluative and subjective dimension of narrative and how the subjects make sense of the events, and the third group will research the social processes that lead to narratives, such as the telling and reception of stories. Kohler-Riesmann (1993) states that narrative inquiry is used for oral, first-person accounts of experience and not for studies with a large number of faceless and nameless participants.

Labov (1972) defines narratives as beginning with an abstract that announces that the story is going to be told, here a genre is sometimes named (Holstein and Gubrium, 2011). The orientation sets time and place. Then comes the core of the

narrative, the complication, where something unordinary happens. In the resolution, the complication is ended, and in the evaluation, the narrator defines if it was resolved well or poorly. And the coda, which means bringing the listener back to the present. The narratives in this research project will follow Labov's (1972) minimum definition of narratives that states that only a complicating and resolution are needed for being defined as a narrative. This definition is adopted because as Hyvärinen (2007, p. 448) drawing on Ochs and Caps (2001) puts it: "It would be hopeless and misleading to assume that narratives are formally similar, always complete, and always neatly distinct from other kinds of discourse". Mishler (1986) pointed out three different kinds of narrative analysis. The first kind is referencing the temporal order, the *telling* and the *told*, the second is textual coherence and structure, such as figurations, tropes and style, and the third is narrative functions with their contexts and consequences (Mishler, 1986). In this project, the emphasis will be put on the narrative functions including their meaning, since as Polkinghorne (1988, p.9) puts it "meaning is the most basic of all inquiry." This means narratives provide a framework for understanding past events and to get to the basis of events participants evaluate as meaningful. The aims are here to understand a phenomenon fully and to facilitate the understanding for the reader.

Kohler-Riesmann (1993) points out that collecting narratives is not easy, because narratives often account of important moments of the lives of the participants. It is therefore important to facilitate the context of the interview. Kohler-Riesmann (1993) suggests open-ended questions such as 'Could you tell me what happened?'" are useful for collecting the narratives. The question should always open up whole topics and allow respondents to construct their answers by themselves. Kohler-Riesmann (1993) also advises to not structure the interview too rigidly, and not try to fully control the research process but instead see it more as a conversation. She advises sticking with 5-7 broad questions about topics and probe questions that encourage the participants to further elaborate on topics. She also admits that there is something unforeseeable when it comes to narratives by stating that "narratives often emerge, when you at least expect them" and "almost any question can generate a narrative" (Kohler-Riesmann, 1993, p. 56). Holstein and Gubrium (2011) point out that it is crucial to not fragment stories but to analyse them as a whole.

Holstein and Gubrium (2011) give an example of how a narrative analysis might be conducted: After being transcribed the interviews undergo a content analysis, identifying central themes, typologies or instances of paradigmatic categories, and a structural analysis is made, focusing on the plot and organisation of the narrative. They describe the former as an inductive process, where themes can emerge freely. Instead of identifying core narrative, such as Holstein and Gubrium (2011) suggest, meta-themes were identified, that all stories can be subsumed under, close to a typology. Holstein and Gubrium (2011, p. 49) mention a typology, in order to be useful to the group of people they draw the participants to become more reflexive upon their narratives. They also point out the dangers of a typology stating that a typology can constrain too much and not allow all different kinds of stories, but also pointing out that a good typology “explains how the available range of narrative resources limits people”. In addition to narrative analysis which was applied with data collection and the structuring the data, grounded theory was used for data analysis to enable theory building from raw data.

In this project, there were 48 narratives found that fulfilled both of Labov’s (1972) minimum requirements. It was decided to all include them into the report, because of the uniqueness every story had and in order to not bias the findings with arbitrary exclusion of stories. The stories were evaluated regarding their meanings and underwent a thematic analysis according to the dimensions *Connection*, *Actor*, *Relation* and *Value* as proposed in Chapter 4.

5.3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, four research strategies have been presented: Ethnography, Constructivist Grounded Theory and Thematic Analysis as well as Narrative Inquiry. Grounded theory was used in the evaluation and analysis of the results. The approach of Constructivist Grounded Theory foregoes the pitfalls of not taking pre-existing literature into account; here for the narratives thematic analysis was used. Considering the relationship between organisational identity, culture and the antecedents of Employee Advocacy as rather new, the Constructivist Grounded Theory methodology helps to find the missing links from the raw data. Working directly with the data in order to build theory brings in new and rich findings that provide a considerable contribution to existing knowledge. Narrative Inquiry makes knowledge about organisational culture and identity accessible that

would not be found otherwise. In this project, the research strategies ethnography and grounded theory complement each other, while the narratives were collected with narrative inquiry and analysed through thematic analysis.

5.4 Application of ethnography

5.4.1 *Ethnography in this research project*

Taking the ethnographic strategy means carefully structuring the field work, separating observations from theories and double checking everything. Besides the efforts, being an insider in the organisation has undeniable advantages when understanding culture. Taking part in everyday rituals and commonalities of the organisation helped in analysing the interviews and adding another comparative layer to the data.

The key to ethnographic research is to report convincingly about an organisation or a community, so that the reader understands this organisation (Reichert, 1992). The ethnographic method here suggests as main tool the participant observation. Therefore Platt, Crothers, and Horgan (2013) suggest focussing on one organisation and a specific group of workers. Hence, a full and deep understanding of this organisation can be gained. (Platt et al., 2013). There are several methods particularly suitable for ethnography.

An important part of ethnographic methodology is Participant Observation. "Participant observation is in some ways both the most natural and the most challenging of qualitative data collection methods." (Guest, Namey, and Mitchell, 2013, p.75). In participant-observation; there are two dimensions: observation/participation and researcher visibility. In the first dimension, the researcher has to decide whether the observation outweighs the participation or the other way around. The second dimension describes how overtly or covertly the researcher acts in the research field. It has to be decided whether they reveal themselves to all participants as researcher or only to some or none. Figure 22 shows the continuum and the methods applying for each manifestation. The different instruments depend on whether the researcher openly declares himself or herself as an investigator or completely becomes immersed in the work group as an active member of the studied group (Wolcott, 1995). In this project, the researcher takes the

position of being slightly more participatory than observational, but also dealing openly with the researching role.

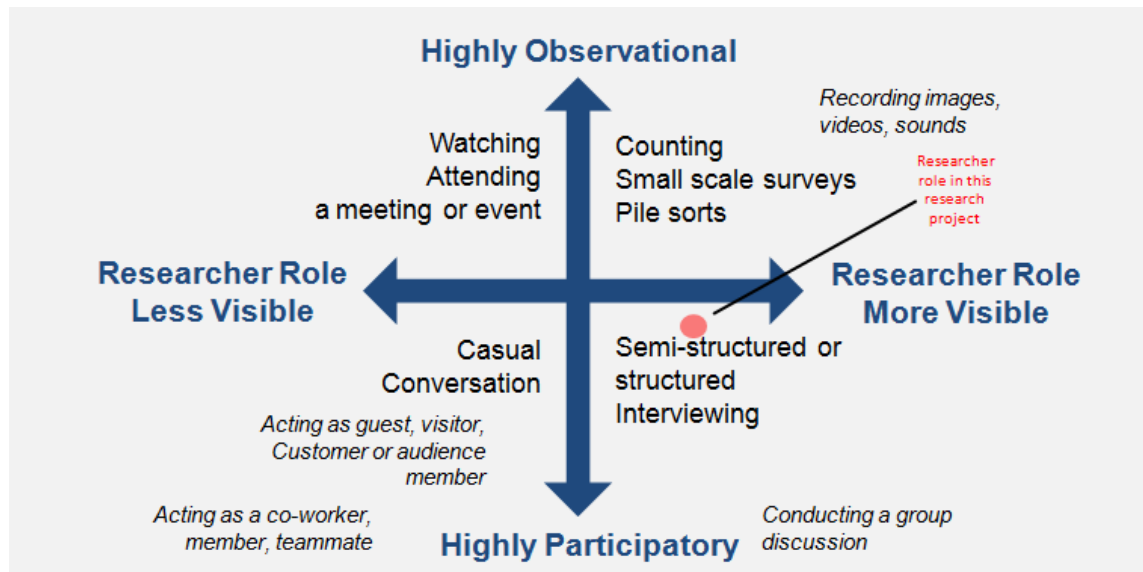


Figure 22: Participant Observation Continuum based on Guest et al. (2013).

Ethnographic interviews are also a very important part of ethnography. They can range from casual conversations to semi-structured or structured interviews. The first can capture colloquial and naturalistic voices and also the naturalistic context. The researcher lets the interviewees develop their responses on their own (Brewerton and Millward, 2001). Sometimes these kinds of interviews are difficult to analyse (Guest et al., 2013). The latter is able to provide data more relevant to the research objective, but detaches the statements from their context (Guest et al., 2013).

The in-depth interview is a special kind of research method used in this research project. It helps to explore participants' ideas on a particular phenomenon and to get more detailed (Seidman, 2006) information about a person's thoughts and behaviours or explore new issues in depth (Boyce and Neale, 2006). Carson (2001) adds that it clears the path to memories, feelings and interpretations that cannot be observed or discovered in other ways. The advantages are that the in-depth interviews reveal very detailed information on subjects and often even unconscious cognitive processes. This is because of the atmosphere of comfort and release (Boyce and Neale, 2006). Like in any other research methodology there are also pitfalls such as the tendency to biases. Biases can occur if the researcher is too controlling and steering the interviewee in a distinct direction, or if the researcher is too intimidating and the interviewee then tends to give only socially

acceptable answers. The researcher has to remain unobtrusive yet encouraging to get to the right insights and to never make value judgments (Brewerton and Millward, 2001).

The research methodology applied in this research project is threefold. The ethnographic approach that is presented as an auto-ethnographic account was chosen to deal with reflexivity within this research project, avoid biases when immersing into the data, and to present the knowledge collected in an understandable way. In order to dissolve the findings from mere personal experience, in-depth interviews were also conducted to generate intersubjectivity; these were recorded and precisely transcribed, so falling into the trap of losing oneself in personal experience was prevented and bias reduced. The auto-ethnographic account helps the reader to understand where the researcher comes from and gives more background knowledge of the organisation, which would not have been possible with just the interviews. Then the findings regarding organisational identity and organisational culture are evaluated with grounded theory and culminate in two core categories. The last point of the presentation of the findings is the thematic analysis of the narratives, which is not purely data-driven but also builds on categories from existing research.

5.4.2 *Auto-ethnography*

For a coherent interpretation, I decided to advance an auto-ethnographic approach for presenting the observation and findings. Auto-ethnography belongs to the genre of autobiographic writing and connects the personal experience with the cultural (Ellis and Bochner, 2000). In literature, this is often described as zooming in and zooming out, backwards and forward (Ellis and Bochner, 2000); the interplay between observing the surrounding world outside and then look inward, exposing one's own experiences and views (Ellis and Bochner, 2000). The auto-ethnography usually takes the form of a first-person narrative, it can appear as a "short stories, poetry, fiction, novel, photographic essays, personal essays, journals, fragmented and layered writing, and social science prose" (Ellis and Bochner, 2000, p. 739). The texts are characterized by action and also dialogue, by emotion but also conscious thoughts, by social structure and culture but also personal experiences. However, in auto-ethnography, the emphasis lies in the

realistic description of events and not on creating an interesting narrative, and the language is just the medium that allows this to occur (Kohler-Riessman, 1993).

Critiques to auto-ethnography have the assumption that auto-biographical accounts are not as authentic as they contend they are; they cannot claim the truth, and the experience is as constructed as other forms of narrative (Atkinson and Delamont, 2006). Another point of critique is that auto-ethnographers write about other people not always with their knowledge. The latter can be avoided by openly behaving as a researcher and informing people in advance that they are part of a research project. The work with unstructured data that has not been coded (Atkinson and Hammersley, 2007) is not easy; it can be very time-consuming and unpredictable. The findings may also be not generalizable or comparable, or at least this will be difficult. Moreover, some readers might perceive the flexible and naturalistic way of data collection not scientific enough (Guest et al., 2013). The following chapter shows an ethnographic account of the researcher's time with the organisation, written in the first-person narrative to express the reflexivity of the research. The following chapter presents an auto-ethnographic account of the research experience to deal with reflexivity and to bring the findings from the interviews into a context.

5.4.3 *Auto-ethnographic account to deal with reflexivity*

5.4.3.1 First experiences

It took me some time to realize, maybe even when I was not at that specific subsidiary anymore, that I was a brand advocate myself. Within my function as not only a doctoral researcher, but also as a personnel marketing employee, who was organizing events and hosting expeditions at the site, where I regularly held presentations about the attractiveness of the employer. So, I had left the subsidiary when I noticed that this kind of organisational culture and organisational identity was not natural; not even for Bosch. It was indeed something special. The things I missed most after leaving there were the cohesion, the talks in the coffee kitchen and the nice gatherings for special occasions.

I started working for the subsidiary in 2011 and spent the first four years of my working life there. The first memory I have is the view of the site. I had my job interview at 9 o'clock in the morning and it took me hours to get there, because

back then I did not own a car and had to take public transport to this very remote site. The site was up on a hill in the middle of vineyards and was similar to a generous tech university campus, with multiple modern buildings, flowers and trees neatly arranged and a big Plaza where tables and chairs were posed for a cosy afternoon coffee sit in. Of course, the weather was in favour of the site that day because it was a really sunny morning in April. The site was built only in 2004, and therewith one of the most modern Bosch sites. I remember that I thought working there would make me part of the exclusive group that was allowed to wander these halls every day. The interview lasted one hour and I got a notice that they were willing to hire me on the same evening. This was quite a good start and the first example of the spontaneous and flexible manner the people were making decisions.

5.4.3.2 The history of the organisation

The subsidiary was founded in 1999 with the goal to sell individualized software for cars in the luxury car segment, such as Ferrari, Lamborghini, Maserati or Porsche. Some of the cars were worth hundreds of thousands of Euros and could be seen in abundance when walking over the campus. Since sports cars require a higher range of functions, working with the software is very sophisticated. There are two typical jobs at the subsidiary. One job is to change the software depending on the requirements of the sports car and the other is to drive around with the cars and evaluate if the software has been programmed in the right way. Of course, the latter was the more envied job because some of the employees spent a lot of time in the cars. These cars are mostly not owned by the firm; they are loaned from the automotive manufacturer for a limited time and then sent back. This means that there is only a limited availability of the cars. Also, there are different ways to test the cars; either on a test bench, a so-called dyno or cold chamber, or on the road. Another possibility is to test the cars under extreme circumstances, such as extreme heat or coldness. This is what the proofing trips are for. A group of employees is sent off to Sweden or the Death Valley in the U.S. for a couple of weeks to work with the cars. This experience bound together the employees and they saw themselves as one. They also had a lot of fun on the trips, as they kept on telling. I myself was never part in one of those trips, since my task had nothing to do directly with cars and it was not allowed for members in the human resource department, but a lot of colleagues told stories. One

colleague told me, for example, that he saw crocodiles at a proving trip in Florida, swimming in the same lake as they were after work.

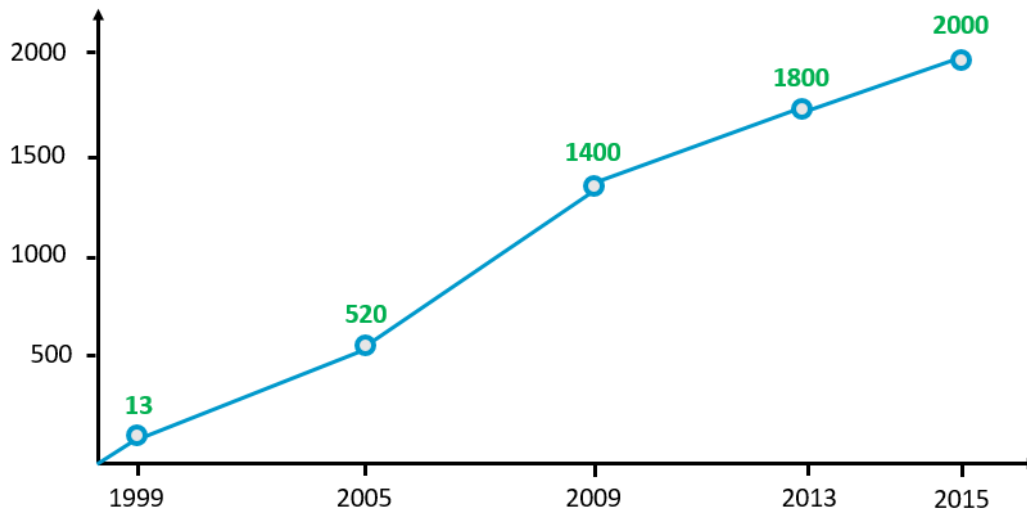


Figure 23: Employee development at Bosch Engineering GmbH (Appendix I)

During its fifteen years of existence the subsidiary went through a lot of changes. Figure 23 shows the employee development, starting off with 13 employees and rising to 500 employees in only 6 years, almost tripling this number again in the following four years until reaching 2000 employees. Only market success accompanied by a service-based business model made this growth possible. This development from being a small corporate start-up to being bigger than a mid-tier company has not remained completely unscathed in culture and identity of the organisation, which will be an important aspect of the analysis.

5.4.3.3 Rituals and values

The life at the subsidiary was full of small rituals. One of them was, of course, eating in the canteen at lunchtime and complaining that the food got worse with every day passing. The stroll around the site after lunch, which took 20 minutes, was obligatory. But there were also other rituals, such as grabbing some colleagues for a morning coffee or sitting together in one of the numerous coffee kitchens that were close to every department and staffed with a water boiler and different coffee machines. There were some coffee machines with free coffee and some brought by others with their own coffee, which was tolerated. The coffee kitchens were also a popular place for easing into work on Monday morning. A lot of colleagues spent the first hour on a Monday in the coffee kitchen, chatting

with the colleagues about the weekend. In most of the kitchens, there were some “how to” signs: how to use the coffee machine, how to clean up, and so on. These were often neglected and around the evening time, the kitchen counter was quite messy.

This was just one example of the tendency to unruliness the employees had. Compared to another Bosch subsidiary I joined after working at this one, the employees at BEG were a lot more free-spirited. I could see that not only in the way they treated the coffee kitchens, but also in the way they decorated their desks and departments. Their desks had a lot of personal stuff on them, such as funny signs or gifts they received from other colleagues. The walls were often decorated with “Ferrari” or “Lamborghini” posters, according to the projects the department was working on, for me this was always a sign that they were proud they could work with such luxurious cars. In the first floor, there were pictures of the first few years with crafted collages of employees that had joined in a specific month, either their heads cut out and put onto animal bodies or placed into a bus. I think this already, showed a conception of an organisation where everybody counts and also a fun-loving nature of work. Interestingly, there were also some official pictures on the wall e.g. in the entrance hall, that had the same message. One was for the ten-year-anniversary and was a mosaic of all employees’ headshots. The other one was poster reading “15 years of BEG” and a lot of employees signed it, including me. That the organisation was very proud of their successful projects showed some engines from customers that were put in the entrance hall or a tricycle; a project that was secretly carried out and everyone was really proud of.

Interestingly, I knew a lot of the people talked about in the stories in Chapter 9 and also had my own stories with them. Thereby, I could evaluate if they sounded authentic. The characters mentioned in the stories were something special and really shaped the organisation, such as the president or the boss in the two-minute job interview, who did appear in various stories, such as the following:

“I was at a student hiring event, where I had to be present and present the advantages of the company. The students for whom the event was held were the sponsored formula student teams, who received not only money from the firm but also valid tips to improve their cars. It was a good initiative I thought at that time. After driving the cars and receiving tips by the Bosch experts the whole day, there was also an evening event, where students, as well as experts and managers from the firm, joined together with HR. It was a very casual event with beer and evening barbecue. One manager, who was quite high in the hierarchy and also known for his unorthodox way of tackling things and his slight

negligence of the rules, was offering to give not only the student but also us colleagues from HR a ride in the Ferrari he had brought. I got into the car and he started driving, at first at a normal speed but once we were two minutes away from the event area he got his foot on the throttle and drove up to two hundred kilometres per hour on a quite narrow track.” (Own Account).

I remember that I couldn't believe that the boss would drive that fast on this narrow road and was quite glad when I could leave the car. In total, I thought it was quite nice of him to take me and the other colleagues for a ride, but it also showed that he was not that keen on the rules and valued some fun he would have by driving that fast. This same manager appears in the Two-minute Job interview story in chapter 8.

5.4.3.4 Advocacy in the firm

In my four years in personnel marketing at the firm, I was a true advocate, because it was part of my job. In personnel marketing, the main task is to make the employer look attractive to others and get students or graduates to apply at the firm. The job in personnel marketing there even started before my PhD research began and brought me to the idea of doing a more comprehensive study about Employee Advocacy.

My advocating for the firm occurred in various situations. The most obvious situation was at job fairs, where I consulted students who wanted to apply for an internship or a graduate position at the firm. I told them about the advantages we had worked out previously at the HR department; the nice site, the good working conditions, the nice cars, the development opportunities. I even handed them out the flyer I had previously designed. I liked the fairs very much, because I liked talking to the students and convincing them to apply for a job. The materials such as presentations, flyers and brochures I had often designed myself (see Appendix I as an example). A few of the interviewees also had joined me at these presences (10E, 27G, 24E, 3E), which led me to ask them for an interview.

Supporting the firm's activities at Formula Student, an international competition of student race car teams, was also part of my job. Some of the employees that took later on part in the interviews I also met during these events (18E, 4E, 26E, 29E, 16G), either as giving presentations or being technical consultants for the students' teams. There were a lot of events throughout the year that had to be supported either with advertising campaigns, giveaways, raffles, or fair

presences. I used to give presentations that listed not only what the firm did, but also the advantages, which ranged from 500 different customer projects a year, over a resource-friendly site, to flexible hours and comfortable work conditions such as the hairdresser or the relaxation room.

Another part of the Advocacy was the planning and conducting of photo shootings and advertising films for employer branding with externally hired photographers and video teams. The regular employees that took part in these media all participated voluntarily and had a lot of fun while doing it. For them and for me these shootings were something special. The participants were often also proud of the outcome of these shootings and not only talked about it with their friends, but even used the pictures privately as their profile picture in social media. The willingness to lend your face to an employer branding campaign requires loyalty and identification with the job. Their participation in some of these campaigns was also the reason I asked some of them to give me an interview (13E, 11E, 10E, 25E).

One task that was exceptionally helpful before I started working on the PhD was the interviews with some employees, which had to be taken as part of the website relaunch that would include personal statements of employees. This was something I always particularly liked about the firm, which always tried to represent itself as authentic and accurately as possible in all of its employer branding efforts. This, of course, not always was possible, when it, for example, came to the male/female ratio, we always had to fiddle a little. The interviews took about ten minutes each and interviewed employees answered very openly. The website now contains statements that were literally taken from the interviews, such as that of the female employee quoted below, who described aspects of being special and the workplace cohesion. This will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter:

"Bosch Engineering offers a lot to its employees which you won't find in many other companies. [...] The support offered by colleagues is extraordinary. You never feel left alone. Even when working on your own tasks there are always colleagues or superiors who will help you." (Paola Lugo, Bosch Engineering GmbH, Ed., 2018a).

A director, whom I had interviewed back then gave the following statement about the firm: "While walking through the corridors or the cafeteria, you always meet familiar faces and you always know the right people if you have a question. I really

like the familial atmosphere and the open-mindedness of colleagues.” (Thomas Schuster, Bosch Engineering GmbH, Ed., 2018a). Here, he also points out the openness and helpfulness as strong values. These quotes were only edited a little to make them more fluent, but other than that they were taken from the original.

I remember that I really thought it was a great place there to work and even when my time was over I dearly wanted to stay. I was convinced that the firm would stay successful and the strategy was good. This is something that cannot be taken for granted, I learned later on when I transferred to another other position.

5.4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, one might say that being at the firm in personnel marketing was the reason I wanted to write about this area of research. Seeing other firms displaying employer branding campaigns that were completely fake versus my own experience with authentic ones, led me to pursue this topic. The ethnographic side of the research led me to understand the culture and identity very well, and since I was there before I had even started on my PhD I did not need any time to get acquainted with it. The ethnographic approach also gave me the advantage of evaluating the accuracy of the statements in the interviews and comparing them with my own experience. On the other hand, it was a real challenge to analyse the interviews as open-mindedly and unbiased as possible, which in turn led me to use constructivist grounded theory and thematic analysis as a method, because these methods are very data-oriented.

5.5 Research design

5.5.1 Timeline

This chapter describes the timeline of the research, the recruiting process of the participants for the in-depth interviews, the interview form of the semi-structured interviews and the specific design of the interview guide for this project. In the coding chapter, the procedures of grounded theory for data analysis are described, starting with open coding via axial coding to selective coding that ultimately leads to a core category and a theoretical model.

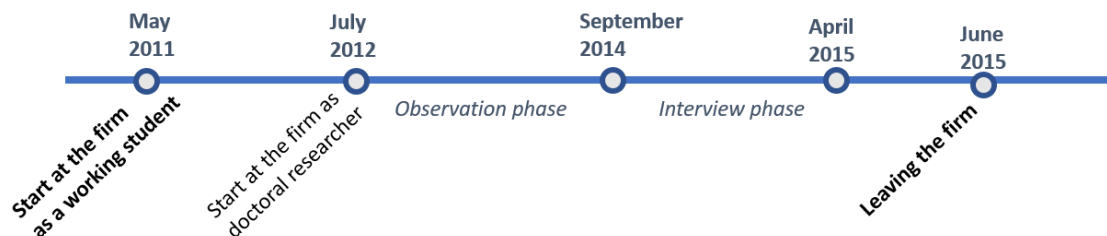


Figure 24: Timeline of research.

I spent four years at the organisation. Figure 24 shows the timeline of my research. Starting as a working student in human resources, my tasks revolved around the creation of personnel marketing materials such as flyers and presentations, and support with recruiting events. Here, I got to learn the culture of the firm and its employees. While creating all these marketing materials it became apparent to me that the most valuable information for applicants was not on the flyer but in the stories told by the employees at the events. This struck me with the idea of starting a research project on the firm. The idea was welcomed by management and human resources and so I started in July 2012. In the first two years, I formed the research questions, picked a research approach, and observed the organization and all of its parts over various occasions. I gathered field notes and conceptualized the interview guide based on those. The interview phase started in September 2014 and took eight months. I left the firm end of June 2015 to start at another business unit of the Robert Bosch GmbH as a Marketing Manager.

5.5.2 *Sampling*

In the present research project, theoretical sampling was used. In this kind of sampling, the sampling changes with the needs of the theory (Breckenridge and Jones, 2009). Participants, who enrich the spectrum of previous information, are deliberately chosen (Reinders, 2005). In theoretical sampling, data gathering, theory building and sampling work in constant iteration (Meier and Pentzold, 2012).

Most important for the first sampling round was that the participants could provide insights into the central phenomenon of this project: Employee Advocacy. So initially, employees were chosen who had shown some interest in being an employee advocate, for example, by giving presentations in front of students, joining in personnel marketing activities such as employee fairs or photo shootings and films. To capture a broad set of interpretations I interviewed participants from different areas, hierarchy levels as well as ages and tenures, similar to Ravasi and Schultz (2006). The age of the participants reached from 26 to 57, the tenure reached from 3 months to 15 years. Also, it was possible to recruit interviewees from different areas of the subsidiary, from powertrain as well as from motorsports and chassis control. Theoretical sampling was chosen to ensure openness to the research phenomenon, which was important, because Employee Advocacy is a rather unresearched phenomenon. Out of the 33, there were fifteen people who participated in personnel marketing activities and nine participants who were active as mentors for students. Eight of the participants were in upper management, including the president, leading directors and directors, and six were from the first management level, which means group leads.

Out of the findings of the early interviews, a new target group was identified: members of the instigator network, a change program at the firm, showed high Employee Advocacy. So in later sampling, members of the Instigator network were approached. Another finding of the early interviews was that employees who were mentors for students are another group with high advocacy. Comparison was an important category in the interviews, either to other Bosch business units or to the past. Therefore, in the consecutive sampling focussed on employees who had spent some time in other business units of Bosch or have been at

the BEG for a longer period of time. As contrast homegrown employees and short-tenured employees were chosen to compare.

The first group of participants was approached with email, as it is common for purposeful sampling (Grant, Wallace, and Spurgeon, 2013, Windels and Mallia, 2014). Of the 68 e-mails to participants meeting the criteria, 11 responded for the first round. This response rate is quite low, but is comparable to similar studies such as the study on the female workforce of Belwal and Belwal (2017) or the sample of Opgenhaffen and Claeys (2017) who interviewed HR and communication managers. According to Donovan, O'Sullivan, Doyle and Garvey (2016), return rates increase when using personal contacts and connections. So, when the sampling moved to second iteration of theoretical sampling, priorly known employees were used to identify the new criteria emerging with the theoretical sampling. Here, 22 participants were recruited, all of which agreed.

The objective of the recruiting process was to gain about 25-30 participants for in-depth interviews. This number was seen as adequate because of two reasons. Firstly, the number was suggested by various methodologists, such as by Morse (1994) who recommends 30-50 interviews for ethnography, or Creswell (1998) and Charmaz (2006) who recommend 20-30 and 25 for grounded theory projects. Additionally, in studies similar to this research project, a related number of participants was found (20-37) (Riad, 2011; Wilden et al., 2010; Jalan et al., 2014; Kulkarni and Nithyanand, 2012). In total, 33 interviews were conducted. Also, the concept of theoretical saturation was applied here. Theoretical saturation means that "gathering more data about a theoretical category reveals no new properties, nor yield any further theoretical insights" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 344). This was reached with 33 interviews when all core categories (see Table 16) were developed and no new aspects regarding causes, contexts, strategies and effects could be identified. Every pattern could be backed up with more than one statement.

5.5.3 *Interview guide*

For the in-depth interviews the method of the semi-structured interview was taken. This procedure allows the researcher to get valuable and unanticipated information. The semi-structured interview is especially fitting for open and explorative questions, and furthers narratives. It is the best way of finding out about

motivations, attitudes and beliefs, and the impacts of specific events (Raworth, Sweetman, Narayan, Rowlands and Hopkins, 2012). The semi-structured interviews focus on specific themes and cover them in a conversational style. When conducting the interview, it is important to open up with open-ended questions and let the interviewee proceed with the narrations. Galetta (2013) sees it as important to know when and when not to interrupt. According to Galetta (2013), this technique requires spontaneity and guesswork and always spitting the attention between the actual point in the interview and the direction it might go.

Galetta (2013) also suggests probes for the participants to engage in clarification, meaning making and critical reflection. Clarification gives additional insights and adds depth to the data; meaning making offers aspects that were not anticipated and are central to the interpretative questions, where probes like “could you elaborate that further?” and “what do you mean when you say xy?” can be used to get more detailed answers and make the interviewees talk. This works via shifting back and forth with the participant and presenting a first interpretation and asking for the opinion. Critical reflections are important because an answer that is opposite to the framework thought of can be generated (Galetta, 2013). Raworth et al. (2012) also recommend Imagining; questions that invite the interviewee to imagine an alternative reality to elicit unforeseen answers.

The interview guide used in the research project consisted of four blocks (see Appendix III). Every interview started with icebreaker questions, that included questions about the tenure, whether they knew about Bosch before, if they had worked there before, and their first impression of BEG. After the introductory section the organisational culture and organisational identity part, the longest part of the interview, started with questions about the first days/weeks at BEG. These questions were used to further an autobiographical and narrative account of the things experienced. This already generated some narratives about the job interviews and the starting time and provided valuable insight into how the assumptions changed over time.

The third part was about asking about narratives specifically, to explicitly generate narratives. Depending on the situation the questions ranged from “what is your favourite story /experience?” to “What is a specific story of an experience back in the early days?” Twenty-three of the 48 stories were generated in this

part of the interview. More than half emerged from other questions. As Kohler-Riesmann (1993) puts it, almost every kind of question can generate a narrative. This experience was also made in the interviews. In the successive part, the Employee Advocacy part, the questions were a little more structured and detailed, to make sure to have a full account of which employees were advocates and which not. Every interviewee was questioned, whether they spoke of their employer in private, to whom they spoke, and about what. The last question was if they had ever recommended someone to work here. Also, the question of whether the employees considered themselves as brand advocates was asked. Almost everyone answered the question with “yes”. The interview was always concluded by thanking the participants for their time.

5.6 The data

5.6.1 Interviews

Code	Duration	Hierarchy Level	Tenure in years	Sex	Reason for selection
1P	43:49 min	President	10	male	Upper Management
2G	28:12 min	Group Lead	11	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
3E	39:45 min	Employee	3	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
4E	37:29 min	Employee	6	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
5E	32:22 min	Employee	11	male	Active in the student mentoring program
6L	48:12 min	Leading Director	15	male	Upper Management
7D	32:43 min	Director	0	female	Upper Management
8D	39:40 min	Director	3	male	Upper Management
9L	47:19 min	Leading Director	2	male	Upper Management
10E	40:28 min	Employee	6	female	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
11E	42:08 min	Employee	6	female	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
12D	48:31 min	Director	14	male	Upper Management
13E	41:58 min	Employee	7	female	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
14E	52:12 min	Employee	15	male	Upper Management
15E	35:35 min	Employee	4	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
16G	41:30 min	Group Lead	13	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
17G	43:02 min	Group Lead	10	male	Active in the student mentoring program
18E	26:04 min	Employee	4	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
19E	40:27 min	Employee	2	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
20D	36:58 min	Director	4	female	Upper Management
21E	33:25 min	Employee	2	male	Active in the student mentoring program
22E	27:21 min	Employee	3	male	Part of the Instigator Project
23E	36:14 min	Employee	3	male	Active in the student mentoring program
24E	25:31 min	Employee	10	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
25E	32:22 min	Employee	6	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
26E	41:15 min	Employee	3	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
27G	39:01 min	Group Lead	13	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
28E	34:48 min	Employee	4	female	Part of the Instigator Project
29E	32:31 min	Employee	3	female	Part of the Instigator Project
30G	32:45 min	Group Lead	14	male	Active in the student mentoring program
31G	43:29 min	Group Lead	10	male	Participation in Personnel Marketing Events
32E	27:53 min	Employee	8	female	Part of the Instigator Project
33E	49:56 min	Employee	8	male	Active in the student mentoring program

Table 14: Participants of 33 interviews that were conducted during this research project.

This chapter pays closer attention to the nature of the data. In the following, detailed information about the participants of the interviews regarding their gender, tenure and hierarchy level is given as well as the narratives that were generated from the interviews, regarding length, meta-theme, speaker etc. The 33 semi-structured interviews were conducted within a five-month period (25.11.2014-20.04.2015), three months prior the guide was developed and tested so that in total the interview phase lasted eight months. Table 14 shows the interviews as well as their duration, hierarchy level, tenure and sex of the participants and the reason they were chosen as interviewees.

The goal of the recruitment choices was to get data from every hierarchy level. I succeeded in recruiting members from every hierarchy level including the president. Here, the anonymity could not be guaranteed in all cases, because there are only two chief executive officers at the organisations. The president was informed about this occurrence in advance. Two of the six leading directors at BEG agreed to participate in the interview. Here, also anonymity could not be guaranteed, which they were made aware of. The five directors and seven group leads could be assured anonymity because at that time there were over 50 directors and over 100 group leads at the BEG (except for the two female directors, which were the only ones, so they were made aware of this fact). The 19 regular employees could also stay anonymous.

The interviews lasted 38 minutes on average; the shortest interview was 25:31 minutes long and the longest 52 minutes, where the scheduled time was 45 minutes. Eight of the interviewees were women, 25 were men. Considering the ratio of women at that time at the BEG, which was below 12 per cent, this is slightly out of ratio. But considering this is a qualitative research, the representability is not critical and the female point of view was too important to let it just be described by three or four women. The average tenure of the interviewees was 7.06 years. There were 10 employees within their first three years, 4 ranging between three and five years; 11 participants between five and ten years; and 8 that were there more than ten years. Two employees had been working there for fifteen years, since the origin of the organisation. One of them claimed to be employee number 16, joining on day 60 (6L).

5.6.2 *Narratives*

In order to do justice to the rich data that was found within the narratives they were analysed with a three-step approach: (1) Identifying the narratives, (2) theme generation with grounded theory and (3) thematic analysis based on the literature findings. All 48 narratives can be found in Appendix II:

(1) Identifying the narratives

First, the narratives were identified. Here, Labov's minimum definition, that a story must contain a complicating action and a resolution, was used. The narratives were found by examining each interview transcript for a segment that fulfilled these conditions. Table 15 shows the 48 narratives found with title, as well as tenure and sex of the narrator. The majority of the participants had at least one story to tell. Only five participants (2G, 8D, 9L, 25E, 33E) did not come up with a story.

On average, they told 1.48 stories per participant. The most stories a participant told was four (12D, 27G). Both of these had been at BEG longer than ten years, however, in general, the tenure had no direct effect on the number of stories a participant told. It was rather U-shaped: Most stories were told by the ones who had been at BEG for more than ten years (1.88 per participant), the least by the ones between five and ten years (1.09 per participant), and participants who were in the first five years of their stay at BEG had average numbers. Eleven of the narratives were told by women, 37 by men. Regarding hierarchy levels, leading the directors and directors were the ones who told the most stories (1.8 per participant), whereas the leading directors told the fewest (0.5 per participant).

Title	Interviewee	Sex	Tenure
The transgression of competence	3E	male	up to 3 years
Interview in the installation hall	7D	female	Up to 3 years
Meeting at the next day	19E	male	Up to 3 years
The tricycle try-out	19E	male	Up to 3 years
The barbecue popped by the police	21E	male	Up to 3 years
The proving trip without license	21E	male	Up to 3 years
Fried eggs on the hood	21E	male	Up to 3 years
The rescue from the sinking ship	22E	male	Up to 3 years
Introduction by the big boss	22E	male	Up to 3 years
The termination inquiry	23E	male	Up to 3 years
The extinguishing mistake	26E	male	Up to 3 years
Fire alert with the big boss	26E	male	Up to 3 years
Low hanging fruits	29E	female	up to 3 years
The compensation cake	29E	female	up to 3 years
The help in the hiring freeze	29E	female	up to 3 years

Title	Interviewee	Sex	Tenure
The missing Bentley	15E	male	Between 3 and 5 years
The careful visionaries	15E	male	Between 3 and 5 years
Breaking in the Jaguar	18E	male	Between 3 and 5 years
The Chinese talent acquisition	20D	female	Between 3 and 5 years
The two minute job-interview	28E	female	Between 3 and 5 years
The secretary restructuring	28E	female	Between 3 and 5 years

Title	Interviewee	Sex	Tenure
The boss in the bus	1P	male	Between 5 and 10 years
The microphone outing	1P	male	Between 5 and 10 years
That's not my job	4E	male	Between 5 and 10 years
The reintegration	4E	male	Between 5 and 10 years
The nice induction presentation	10E	female	Between 5 and 10 years
Learning Bosch Connect by doing	11E	female	Between 5 and 10 years
The adhoc project presentation	13E	female	Between 5 and 10 years
The fascinating ACC	13E	female	Between 5 and 10 years
The cloak and dagger operation for Audi	17G	male	Between 5 and 10 years
The coffee idea	24E	male	Between 5 and 10 years
The sports car farewell	31G	male	Between 5 and 10 years
The reworked test automisation	32E	male	Between 5 and 10 years

Title	Interviewee	Sex	Tenure
Popsicles on the balcony	5E	male	more than 10 years
The successful experiment	6L	male	More than 10 years
The first offer template	12D	male	More than 10 years
The Million Euro project	12D	male	More than 10 years
A reason to leave	12D	male	More than 10 years
Complaints to the big boss	12D	male	More than 10 years
The renaming confusion	14D	male	More than 10 years
The useless paperwork	14D	male	More than 10 years
The young bunch	14D	male	More than 10 years
Dancers at the summer fair	16G	male	More than 10 years
The super secret flagship	27G	male	More than 10 years
Big boss doing maintenance	27G	male	More than 10 years
The antagonist in the BEG jacket	27G	male	More than 10 years
The big boss in Japan	27G	male	More than 10 years
The Porsche Interview	30G	male	More than 10 years

Table 15: Narratives with Interviewees, sex and tenure (Appendix II).

(2) Theme generation with grounded theory

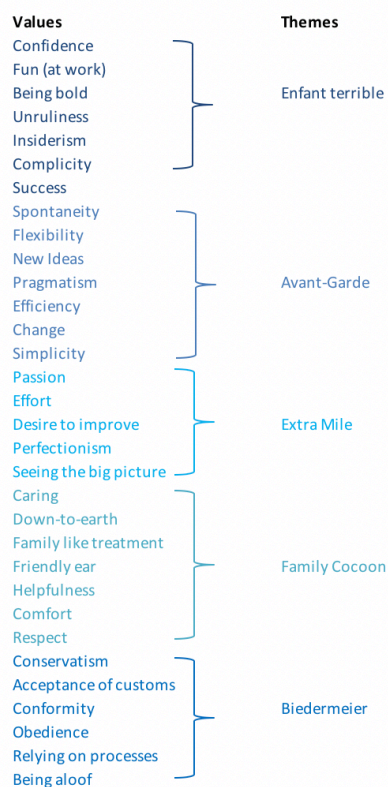


Figure 25: Values and themes derived from the stories.

In the second step, the narratives were read closely and a variation of the grounded theory was applied in the tradition of Erbert (2016) and Martin et al. (1983), who applied this method with their narratives, in order to group them into different themes. All values that were apparent in the narratives were listed. Figure 25 shows that all of the 48 narratives could be ascribed to one of the five

meta-themes according to their basic values. All narratives that included confident behaviour that included being bold and daring and sometimes even bending the rules were ascribed to the *Enfant Terrible*. All narratives that included some kind of spontaneity, flexibility and pragmatism were assigned to the *Avant-Garde*. The narratives that revolved around perfectionism and doing everything to improve were assigned to the *Extra Mile*. Those narratives that had motives of caring and comfort and being friendly and family-like, were assigned to the Family Cocoon. Those narratives with values of acceptance of customs and relying on processes were assigned to the Biedermeier theme. In all, 16 narratives were ascribed to *Enfant Terrible*, 14 to *Avant-Garde*, 4 to the *Extra Mile*, 10 to the *Family Cocoon*, and 4 to the *Biedermeier* theme. The themes will be explained more closely in chapter 8.

(3) Thematic analysis based on the literature findings

Figure 26 shows the third step of the analysis: The narratives, underwent a thematic analysis according to additional themes that were found with brand narratives as discussed in Chapter Four: *Connection*, *Actor*, *Relationship* and *Value*. In addition, the *Nature* of narratives was analysed. The additional dimensions (*Actor*, *Connection*, *Relationship* and *Value*) were chosen over the first group of dimensions (*Nature*, *Origin*, *Function* and *Focus*), to gain new and richer findings, because there have been fewer studies so far that revolve around these dimension in organisational narratives. It was chosen to also include the *Nature* of narratives into the analysis because the focus on having a collective myth or looking at conflicting narratives helped to understand the meta-themes better.

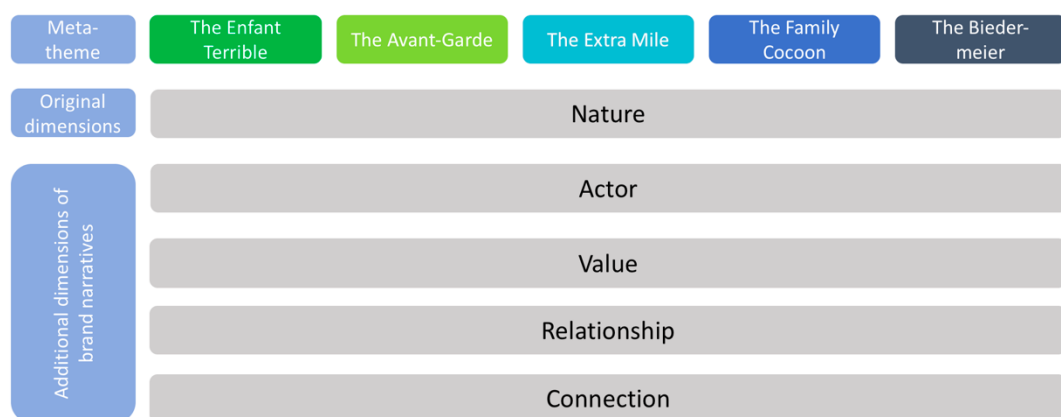


Figure 26: The second and the third step of the analysis regarding the different themes and dimensions.

5.6.3 Coding

In Grounded Theory coding is the essential technique for data organisation, and the continuous memo-writing supports the process. In this chapter, the process of coding and memo-writing will be presented. There are three successive kinds of coding: Open coding, axial coding and selective coding. In open coding, the first step concepts based on the data are searched (Flick, 2015), which reveals a lot of in-vivo codes. The codes are very close to the text and can then be developed to be more conceptual. They can refer to single words, small segments of texts or larger texts (Böhm, 2004). Theory generating questions here can be: What is issued here? What aspects of the phenomenon are addressed? For what purpose? (Böhm, 2004) A result here should be a list of codes and first-order categories, as well as code notes and memos, which contain observations and relevant thoughts and help in developing a theory (Flick, 2015). Glaser (2001) suggested a list of basic codes, the coding families, these include the six Cs (causes, contexts, contingencies, consequences, covariances and conditions), the degree family (event, level, intensity, range, amount, continuum, statistical average, and standard deviation), the type family (types, classes, genres, prototypes, style, kinds).

In the second step, axial or second-order coding, the codes developed from the data are refined and differentiated. This part of coding comes in middle and later stages of the analysis. The axial coding can also refer to short text segments or entire texts (Böhm, 2004). Axial coding elaborates the categories that are most relevant to the research questions. The coding paradigm shown in Figure 27 helps to axial codes. It shows the possible relations between phenomena and concepts (Böhm, 2004). The axial codes can either refer to the phenomenon itself

for these categories, the context of conditions for other categories or a consequence (Flick, 2015). Also, here the memo-writing helps with recording ideas that help further elaborate the theory.

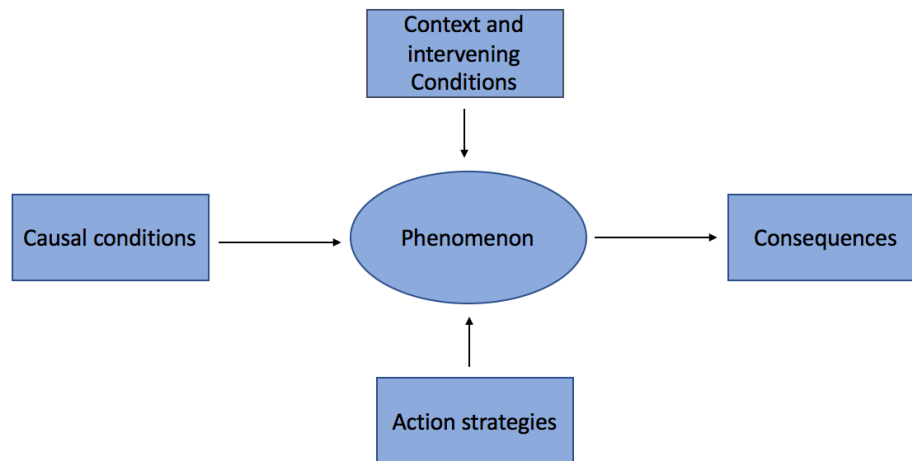


Figure 27: Coding paradigm for social science research questions.

Selective coding is the last step of coding, which takes the categories developed in axial coding to an even higher level of abstraction and merges them into aggregated dimensions. Selective coding tries to integrate different categories and looks for a potential core concept (Flick, 2015). This is important for finding the storyline of coding. Here the analysis goes beyond describing. Strauss and Corbin (1990) have the conviction that there ideally should only be one central phenomenon, but there can also be more than one. An important step in this stage is to link this core category to all other categories if possible. Böhm (2004) describes the researcher's role here as particularly active as an author and advises to first "look at coding lists, summarizing memos and representations of networks" (Böhm, 2004, p. 273). Even though it is likely that the core category can be already found in the research question, it is also possible that a different phenomenon than already assumed seems to be the most important one. The researcher should be open to this pivot (Böhm, 2004).

5.6.4 Data analysis

In-vivo codes	First Order Categories	Second Order Categories	Aggregated Dimensions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - don't respect guidelines because we are BEG - the young bunch that has no rules - often have a bolder attitude - rather say let's try it than no it's to risky - things are attractive that have a certain risk to them - don't know how but just do it - the freedom to operate is high - a lot of freedom but also have to perform - bigger freedom than at Bosch - some kinds of success are only possible at BEG - People are more connected to the success of the firm - The firm grew a lot which shows success - It's great to take the nice cars home - A woman standing in front of a Ferrari - Prestigious customers - it is something special to work here - the number of events is special - the cohesion is sepcial 	Unruliness Risktaking Freedom Success Brands Feeling special	Identification	Fear of loss of Distinction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Loyalty goes both ways - There is a passion doing things that are good for the firm - the opportunity to represent the firm - the christmas market for the employees is a great appreciation - everyone making a contribution to the revenue - aware of the costs - looking to help success - the pragmatic and uncomplicated way of doing things - not interested in processes - the customer needs something we give it to him 	Helping the company Feeling Appreciated Entrepreneurial Thinking Pragmatism	Loyalty	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - it's great working here - really sastified and happy to work here - the firm is a good employer - the canteen is good - the working facilities are good - the site is beautiful - can come and go as pleases - can take time for the family - can gather extra hours, take them as holidays - there is an openness on all hierarchy levels - openness right at the job interview - was welcomed with open arms - Often thought about doing something else but the cohesion is to good - don't know you but I help you - not only help if asked - came here because of the people were so nice - there is a lot of easygoingness - work is dependent on the people you work with 	Working for a good employer Working conditions Work life balance Openness Helpfulness People	Satisfaction	Fear of Change

Table 16: Open, selective and axial categories developed with grounded theory.

Table 16 shows the different codes that helped the analysis. The first column depicts the in-vivo codes. This is only a selection, because the complete set could not be depicted in a single table. These in-vivo codes led to more abstract categories which are depicted in the second column. The 16 categories are on a more abstract level but still close to the in-vivo quotes: Unruliness, risk-taking, freedom, success, brands, feeling special, helping the company, feeling appreciated, entrepreneurial thinking, pragmatism, working for a good employer, working conditions, work-life-balance, openness, helpfulness and people. These categories were then merged into three second-order categories, which are depicted in column three: Identification, loyalty, satisfaction. Thereby, six first-order categories could be merged into identification, four into loyalty and also six into satisfaction. These amounted to two aggregated dimensions: Fear of loss of distinction and

fear of change, which are essentially two identity threats. The second order categories are presented in chapter 6, while the first-order categories are explained in sub-chapters. The aggregated dimensions are then displayed in chapter 7.

5.7 Methodological limitations

There are some limitations to every kind of research. Firstly, the research resides with the limitations of qualitative research regarding validity and representability. Due to the small samples, the data cannot be generalised. Since this is a conceptual work the insights can be used for understanding organisational identity and culture better. A quantitative research to test the theories built in this project could be conducted afterwards in order to avoid this problem. Subjectivity is a problem that occurs in ethnography as well as with Grounded Theory. Biases through the beliefs of the researcher can always happen and are difficult to detect, especially when writing auto-ethnography. To be conscious about the peril and try to look at the own accounts critically, is what helps best to avoid these biases. Nevertheless, the research design chosen here in this project was decided to be the most adequate for the research question. Following an interpretivist research philosophy, a qualitative research design was apparent because organisational culture, organisational identity and Employee Advocacy have so many underlying and subconscious processes which are not all known to date nor are their relations. To sum up, the research approach taken was not only personally seen as the most adequate but also considering the research question the most reasonable way to go.

5.8 Summary of the chapter

The previous chapter described the research approach and design, which was conducted to reach the research aim of understanding what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. This means understanding, how organisational culture and identity relate to the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. Therefore, it needs to be explored how the links between the terms are expressed via stories and how stories access the notion of employees about organisational identity and culture. Narratives here form the link between organisational culture and identity and the antecedents of Employee Advocacy and are like a looking glass that magnifies truths about the organisation.

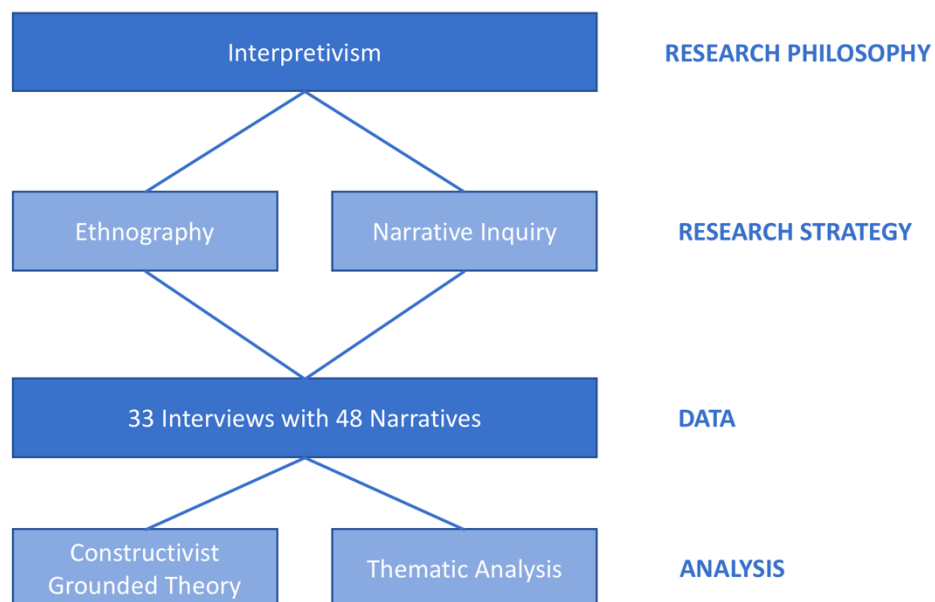


Figure 28: Research approach in this research project.

Figure 28 describes the research approach of this project starting with the research philosophy. Interpretivism was chosen over positivism for three reasons. The phenomenon of Employee Advocacy is rather unexplored, so the aim is to gain a deeper understanding of the relation of the different aspects rather than test hypotheses. A holistic approach tries to understand the whole construct; therefore, it would not do it justice to just examine different variables. Lastly, the interpretation is as important as observation.

Ethnography and Narrative inquiry were the two chosen research strategies: Ethnography to understand one organisation with its culture and identity, and narra-

tive inquiry for yielding narratives that access subconscious notions about organisational culture, identity and the antecedents of Employee Advocacy. This research approach yielded 33 interviews, which included 48 narratives that followed Labov's (1972) minimum definition. The interviews were interpreted with constructivist grounded theory, to focus on generating theory rather than merely describe an organisation. The narratives were analysed for their main values, and five value groups were identified and turned into meta-themes. These underwent a thematic analysis that relied on the four themes found in the literature review: Actor, Connection, Value and Relationship.

The qualitative research approach was found most suitable for reaching the research aim, despite its risk factors such as less reliable and representative results due to the relatively small sample, and the risk of bias due to the auto-ethnographic aspect. This was avoided with me being fully reflective about my role in the research process for the whole time

6 Findings on Employee Advocacy and its antecedents

6.1 Introduction

How do **organisational culture and identity** relate to **Employee Advocacy** and **its antecedents**?

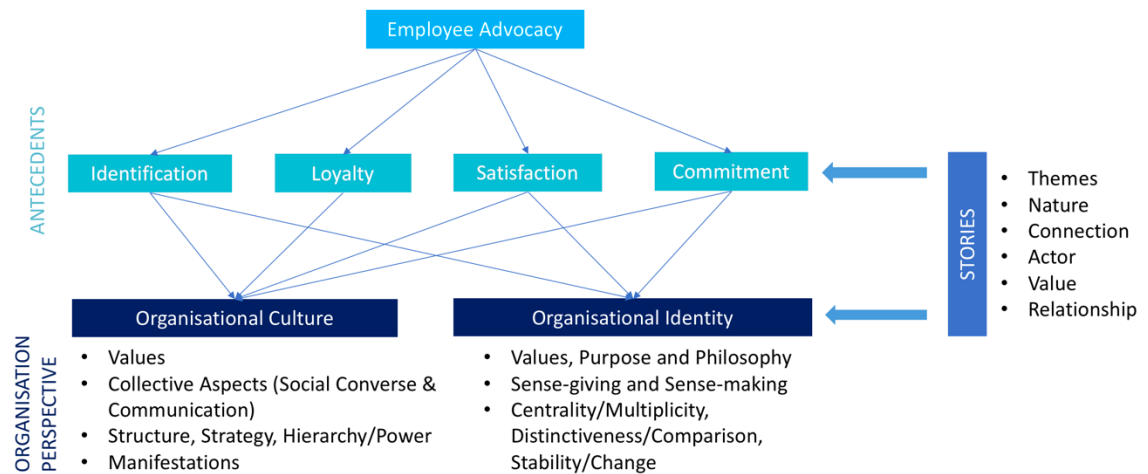


Figure 29: Concepts from the literature review and their relation to the findings in grounded theory and thematic analysis.

Figure 30 shows the most important concepts in this research project and their relationships. Employee Advocacy has according to the literature four antecedents: identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. These will be looked at from an organisational culture and organisational identity perspective. Organisational culture values and collective aspects such as social converse and communication are the most important concepts that have been applied to this research project. Structure, strategy and hierarchy/power are important every time they relate to the prior concepts. The literature review showed that manifestations are situated in the outer layer of the culture and have a secondary role to culture in relation to the core.

In organisational identity literature, it became apparent that it consists of its values, its philosophy and its purpose, and fosters sense-giving which happens top down, and sense-making among the employees. The core concepts of centrality, distinctiveness and stability all turned out to have two manifestations and are a continuum to multiplicity, comparison and change. Since it is a grounded theory analysis following the constructivist approach, it was important to know these constructs but not to start from them. The categories leading up to the selective coding were derived freely but could then be subsumed under three of the antecedents: identification, loyalty and satisfaction. This shows how fitting

the constructivist grounded theory approach was as it enabled this procedure. Yet, there were no findings that could be clearly linked to commitment. Hence, only the three antecedents are analysed in relation to the findings. The narratives following the thematic analysis approach were first analysed without any preconception to identify their central value groups, and yielded five meta-themes. These were then analysed following the themes *Nature*, *Actor*, *Connection*, *Value* and *Relationship*, which have been identified in chapter 4.4. This procedure of constructivist grounded theory and thematic analysis made it possible to access the notions employees have about their organisational identity and culture and how they relate to Employee Advocacy and three of its antecedents.

6.2 Employee Advocacy defined from the data

6.2.1 *Employees definition of Advocacy*

This chapter revolves around the employees' definitions of Employee Advocacy. The interviewees were directly asked whether they considered themselves as an advocate for the organisation. This question aimed mostly to get an understanding of how they defined this term. Their definition was much unified: talking positively about the firm to others outside the work context and thereby supporting the firm. One employee, for example, defined advocating as advertising: "I consider myself an advocate for BEG, namely to *advertise and to say*, gosh, we have a great and attractive working environment here, this has no one else in the whole Bosch group" (8D)¹. A female employee thought of a more down to earth description: "*Because I have fun doing the job, I would say I am – as you say an advocate, because I talk positively about my work and not just because I have participated in the photo shooting*" (10E)². This definition was similar to another female employee's but emphasized more the authenticity aspect: "*I talk about the firm in a good manner, also in private. [...] I like what we are doing, I like the working atmosphere. Everything I tell outsiders is no lie and I don't do it to get new employees, but it is just like that, it is the truth*" (11E)³. Another definition was the referral of people to the firm; approaching people actively to apply to the firm, not only within the circle of friends but also on a more official level: "*It's fun, and I think it's good to have the possibility to approach schools [...] and*

win them over for Bosch in such an early phase. [...] I see myself as an advocate.” (13E)⁴

Most of the employees answered the questions with a clear ‘yes’. Some had to think and evaluate first what the term meant for them. They also felt the need to present a reasoning for being an advocate directly with their answer. One employee mentioned his ambition to represent the firm in a good way (15E). Another, who was on a higher level in the hierarchy, also saw representation especially with customers as important, and expected this from every employee (9L). In order to make this term more comprehensible and also get deeper findings out of it, it was then split into two different questions: whether the employees were talking to people about their job and what aspects they talked about, and to recount whether they had referred someone for the job in the past. Here, it was important to know to whom people were talking or referring, about what they are talking and why.

6.2.2 Audiences and topics for Employee Advocacy

6.2.2.1 Friends

Another important aspect is how the different groups of people talked to or referred are evaluated and the differences and commonalities emphasized. In general, talking to people happened more often than actual referring. The group that was named by most employees was the group of the friends; mentioned by ten of the interviewees. Some talked to friends just to “*exchange views*” (10E)⁵ and to see how it is somewhere else. One employee also used the occasion to explain how much he likes working with the firm: “*Then I say, well it’s great with us. I don’t have any reason to complain*” (15E)⁶. One employee sees loyalty as a reason for talking positively: “*I talk really positively about it [...] I still enjoy my work even after eleven years*” (2G)⁷. Others also give a more distinct view and also tell when they are having a bad day (10E). The topics are mostly related to cultural aspects; describing how everyday work life is going on. This is also due to the phenomenon that a lot of employees have the feeling that they are not allowed to talk about the task or project related details:

“Every now and then I talk to my friends whenever they ask what is going on in my work life. But relatively seldom, because much of what we do here, I am not allowed to talk about. I mean, any details about the projects.” (14D)⁸

Since they think that they are not allowed to talk about their work, either they avoid talking about it at all, or direct the conversation more towards general things such as culture.

The friends are also a large group when it comes to referring employees for a job whenever there is an open position. Some of the employees regularly refer friends and see this as normal: *“If we have a position that is fitting, then I get in touch with them”* (33E)⁹. A few employees can also tell stories about successful referrals: *“Yes, I did this in the past. I recommended the BEG as an employer a few times and also referred a few people who eventually ended up here.”* (27G)¹⁰ Other interviewees name concrete employees: *“Yes, also friends, for example, Employee XY, [...] he came to us three years ago.”* (33E)¹¹ Other interviewees rather recommend the employer than referred some specific position (11E).

6.2.2.2 Former fellow students

Another group are former fellow students. In this case, the exchange is more based on the general field of BEG: *“If someone is interested in a study in the field or something like this, then I would tell him what BEG does”* (30G)¹². However, the topics of the talks are similar to other referrals. Here, also arise the same topics: the *“working conditions”* and *“how it is at BEG”* (3E)¹³. Because of their similar skill background, they are also often referred to jobs, and here also specific examples are named. In the case of fellow students, the employees also try really hard to get them in: They even bend the rules to make it happen as this quote shows:

“I had a fellow student [...] today he is a department director at our firm. Then he was looking for a job and I said, hey, look, this might be something, then I talked to Mr. XY and even put his application folder at the very top of the pile” (30G).¹⁴

The former fellow students are the group that the employees put most effort to make them start at the firm; maybe because here there is a win-win situation. It is beneficial for the firm because they get a good employee: *“Yes, because I think that [he] would fit well to BEG, because of his personality and his way of working and because I am really convinced of him.”* (3E)¹⁵; furthermore, it is also beneficial for the fellow students because they are convinced they are being referred to a great place to work.

6.2.2.3 Former interns

Not only are fellow students referred to, students that previously worked for the employee as interns are also a popular group for job referrals. The reasons here are similar: the employees knew that the intern had done a good job working with them, and wanted to help them out: *“Whenever I am convinced that they are doing well, then I try to convince them somehow [...]. Hey, what can we do to make it possible that you start here in two years? [...] And some of them really start here”* (22E)¹⁶. The employees refer them by getting them a job interview (24E) or helping them as a mentor (13E). The students are the group that are only referred but not talked to. This could be because it is a more hierarchical situation, whereas talking is more seen as an exchange on the same level.

6.2.2.4 Other Boschlers from different units

The other Boschlers that are either former colleagues or colleagues, who work together with them in overarching projects, are often talked to and also referred. Here it is similar to the former fellow students; there is technical or functional *“overlap automatically, that provides a topic for discussions, [...] culture products topics”* (20D)¹⁷ and also a personal connection. Also, in higher hierarchy levels, such as with directors or leading directors, they are a very popular group because they are still within the firm and information can be shared with them without violating confidentiality (9L, 12D). One interviewee also mentions them as a group to talk to when he has a problem with the boss or employee (17G). This group is also often referred by the employees for jobs within the BEG (29E, 8D). This could be interpreted as the feeling of competition to win over the best employees for the subsidiary and not for the group.

6.2.2.5 The partner

Their partner is another group the employees talk to. Here the motivation is more a cathartic one. They talk when they have trouble at work: *“Last week, I was really upset about a customer; this is something I talked about with my wife. [...] It’s more to blow off some steam”* (17G)¹⁸. They also talk because they are looking for someone to trust (12D) and to have the everyday marital exchange in the evening (14D). Interestingly, the spouse or partner is also someone they like to

refer to their firm. Two employees (26E, 4E) mentioned their partners and reasoned the referral with the statement that they think they would feel better at BEG:

“Besides, I always tell my wife whenever we have an open position, because [she] [...] used to work at BEG for a relatively long time [...] and wants to come back to BEG.”
(26E)¹⁹

6.2.2.6 The relatives

The last group to be named here is the relatives; either sisters (13E), daughters (12D), cousins (32E) or uncles (16G). Here, talking about the employer is more an involuntary action because they are asked how they like their jobs (3E), or how the working conditions are (32E). Another reason is also the exchange; to see how things are dealt with elsewhere: *“Acquaintances but also family members who are in other big firms, to get an idea how things are going there”* (15E)²⁰. Here, it is also important that there is a technical or functional overlap: *“With my daughters [...], one is at a car dealer and the other is also working with an international firm, and here you can just get an idea of how things are going, what procedures and processes they have”* (12D)²¹. When being referred it is more common with distant relatives, for example, the *“I have forwarded an open position to the boyfriend of my cousin”* (32E)²². Another employee reasons it with this statement: *“It’s logical to talk to the family about work. It is no coincidence that my brother-in-law is now doing his internship here”* (27G)²³.

In conclusion, there is a difference between the people that the employees talk to and those they refer. The employees named their partners for cathartic and confidentiality reasons, their friends and relatives for experience exchange and their former fellow students and colleagues for a functional or a technical overlap. Additionally, the higher they get in the hierarchy the less they like to talk about work, and generally stick to referring employees like their former interns or colleagues. This is due to the higher confidentiality in their topics. The confidentiality of the projects is the reason the employees either decide to not talk at all about their work or to only talk about culture related topics such as working conditions and everyday life. The former students and friends are the group that is most referred. The most addressed group is the friends, followed by the partner and the former fellow students.

6.3 Link between the antecedents of Employee Advocacy and organisational culture and organisational identity

6.3.1 Introduction

After having clarified what employees subsume under Employee Advocacy and how they practice it, the focus of the upcoming chapters will now be which underlying motivations persuade them to advocate for their employer. Four main motives were found within the analysis: identification, satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. *Loyalty* comes from a feeling of duty and is expressed via entrepreneurial behaviour. *Identification* is expressed by feeling proud and comes from feeling special. *Commitment* could only be found as affective commitment which is closely linked to loyalty, which is why it is not discussed separately in the chapter. *Satisfaction* is rooted in a feeling of comfort and cohesion. In the following the three phenomena are explained in-depth. Thereby the methodology grounded theory is applied by looking at the phenomenon itself, the causal and intervening conditions and strategies to deal with the phenomenon and the consequences, whenever they could be applied.

6.3.2 Loyalty

6.3.2.1 Manifestations of loyalty

"I am with the firm and I also want the best for the firm" (26E).²⁴ When asked why the interviewees referred a colleague or participated in some acts of Employee Advocacy like starring in an employer branding movie, for example, they justified it with the phenomenon that they are loyal to the company:

"I liked it, because I support the company. With the first film, honestly, it was totally spontaneous. I just wanted to watch and all of a sudden I was participating and in the second film I knew what was coming out and I wanted to star in it again." (11E)²⁵.

Another employee who also participated in an employer branding movie had the rationale that it shows the employer's trust in the employee:

"For example, using the own employees for marketing and not just extras, which is not normal. I think it is a really good thing, [...] because it just seems authentic and shows that they trust in their culture if they let their people talk for themselves" (25E)²⁶.

Out of loyalty they have *"the ambition to represent the company in a good way"* (15E)²⁷. The two quotes are only two examples that show that loyalty is a strong

driver for being an advocate. A leading director describes it with the following words (9L)²⁸: *“I hope that I am an [advocate]. And this is my general expectancy of a Boschler not only a BEGler [...]: he represents the firm in the best possible way.”* Another employee sees hiring good people as something that has to be supported and names this reason for participating Advocacy activities such as representing the firm on job fairs (18E).

6.3.2.2 Wanting to give something back

These previous examples showed that loyalty is a strong driver for Employee Advocacy. The content of the following chapters is now how loyalty is rooted in a company's culture and identity. Some of the interviewees mention that they feel a bond with the organisation through the issue that there are nice things done by the firm that made them feel like they matter and are appreciated. The Christmas fair is a tradition that is really appreciated by the colleagues. They value the effort the firm takes in order to allow the employees a nice time.

“The Christmas fair, for example, the sole idea of building a Christmas market downstairs with lock, stock and barrel. I think that's just crazy, and as I've said, I really like to go there and also tell people about it, in the sense of what the firm has to offer” (3E)²⁹.

Another employee points out that he likes the presents the firm gives, even though they are just small presents he sees it as special appreciation by the firm: *“I think it is a really nice sign of appreciation that everyone gets a Christmas present at BEG” (2G)³⁰.* The employee then adds that is also important for him to have symbolic actions like at the ten-year anniversary of the firm.

“At the ten-year anniversary we made a picture with the Employees in the background, which now hangs in the lobby, and I thought it was a really nice idea to give every employee a picture in the frame [...] I liked the idea, because you are part of the whole, and now there is the picture, where you can go to and can say, I am part of it” (2G)³¹.

Another employee mentions the tradition that started right at the beginning of the firm: *“What I really like is the photo wall downstairs for the new employees who joined. Every employee who joined could perpetuate themselves” (21E)³².* In the early days, ten to fifteen people joined every month. They then could make a collage together with their pictures. They often designed these collages in a funny way, such as only their heads were cropped out and put into a funny scene, such as a school bus or a circus. In the basement floor, there is a wall where all these collages are hung. The tradition stopped when the number of

new employees each month was too high to fit into a collage. But in these early days, it created a feeling of belonging and identification with the group.

Not only special events make the employees feel appreciated; they also see it in the small things. One interviewee names the example that on every info circle which takes place every one to three months, the new employees have the opportunity to introduce themselves in front of the whole firm, 2,000 people with their name and their new department:

“I mean it is only a small gesture, but it has also some significance that at the employee info circle the new colleagues can introduce themselves. It gives you the feeling that you are not just a small cogwheel in a clockwork, but that there is a – may it be short – but nevertheless, there is an interest” (23E)³³.

The statement shows that the employees also appreciate the symbolic value of things not only what is worth hard cash. Some interviewees don't have special situations or rituals they link the specific feeling to. *“I think, that this kind of recognition, in the contact if I now go to the assembly hall, there it is in both directions, over all hierarchies, over all workspaces, I really can sense it everywhere” (15E)³⁴.* A director names appreciation as one specific virtue of Bosch in general:

“Another aspect is the appreciation of our employees. But I have to admit that is a common theme at Bosch, [...] compared to other firms, with Bosch the employee is in the centre and not just the revenue goals. [...] Among the values we live within BEG and Bosch, one of the highest is appreciation.” (8D)³⁵.

Another employee sees the recognition and appreciation at BEG even higher than at Bosch: *“The appreciation. That's, in general, a huge commodity at Bosch, but I experience it at BEG in particular” (2G)³⁶.*

6.3.2.3 Helping the company through entrepreneurial thinking

“Motivation and also an understanding of the own influence and contribution to the result. Leading to the conclusion that you really have influence on the result.” (1P)³⁷

After describing how the loyalty and Advocacy work together, namely through a feeling of wanting to help the company, the organisational factors of these behaviours are illuminated. They want to help the company by doing that and ensuring that it will be successful in the future by having the right people on board. They describe themselves as loyal in backing the firm with its decisions and in total this results in wanting to stay there: *“I could imagine growing old with the firm and then retiring someday.” (17G)³⁸* Another interviewee puts it in a similar

way for his personal experience: *"I didn't regret being here for eleven years."* (2G)³⁹. A regular employee phrases it more on a general level: *"I think it is really cool that the people are staying extremely long here"* (22E)⁴⁰. He goes on by emphasizing that even if they want to grow and develop themselves: *"They stay with the BEG, they start looking at a new job within BEG"* (22E)⁴¹. The core phenomenon here is that they want to support the company because they feel supported themselves: *"The feeling of belonging, that we want to support each other and have the shared goal to keep BEG on the road to success"* (5E)⁴². The Interviewee 17G puts it like this: *"Loyalty goes both ways as well as from us to the firm and back."*⁴³

This comes from an entrepreneurial thinking. They know that if the firm is in good shape then it helps them, too: *"I am with the firm and I also want the best for the firm. [...] I am a BEGler and the others, too and we help each other"* (26E)⁴⁴. Another interviewee describes it as passion to act in the sense of the company and ensure the best for the firm:

"It is this inner orientation to ensure that this is going to help BEG or this won't help the BEG, independent of the current strategy [...]. Effectively this inner entrepreneur, he is present in a lot of us. This is what I sense." (15E)⁴⁵.

The entrepreneurial thinking is deeply rooted in the company's identity. *"Maybe the BEGler have more the mindset that they have to promote the BEG. In the research department of Bosch, nobody would have the idea to call BMW themselves"* (28E)⁴⁶. A leading director that was at Bosch for a long time before he recently joined BEG, describes it with the following words: *"For sure, a big difference to Bosch, which is also an asset of BEG that you really sense, that more or less every employee is more identifying themselves with the economic success of the company"* (9L)⁴⁷. Another leading director, who has been at the BEG right from the beginning has the same opinion: *"Another thing is the output orientation. This is what we lived really strongly in the last fourteen, fifteen years. We ask at a very early point; how do we gain revenue out of it"* (6L)⁴⁸. But not only the mindset plays an important role, it also reflects the culture. The contribution everyone makes to a project seems immediate and remarkable. *"Every single one is closer to the projects and [...] and thereby also thinks of costs and money"* (23E)⁴⁹. The leading director of BEG points to the ability of seeing the

big picture a lot of employees at the firm have, when they act as part of the firm as brand advocates (9L).

“The customers form the BEG, they are simply more special than at Bosch” (21E)⁵⁰. One aspect of entrepreneurial thinking is also the customer orientation which is highly valued by the employees. A female director who was at the BEG in the early days, then spent some time apart and only recently returned sums it up the following way:

“What I knew from back then and what I really liked about BEG and what was I reason I returned, was the mindset of customer orientation, that you think like an entrepreneur and really pursue your project, topics and so on” (20D)⁵¹.

Customer orientation sometimes also means to exceed the expectations of the customer: *“We make things possible, which are maybe not even expected by the customer or exceed the expectations”* (13E)⁵². Two employees see the customer orientation also as a distinctive element of the firm in comparison to others. While an assistant thinks it's a strength of the BEG: *“Closeness to the customer is really a strength. [...] Sometimes on a Friday at three in the afternoon, a colleague was there and said “can you book me a flight. I have to be at the customer's site on Monday”* (28E)⁵³. Another employee relates this back to the distinctive aspect of organisational identity: *“I think this is what sets BEG apart from other firms in comparison. The closeness to the customer and to the product. [...] Everyone is close to the customer and gets direct feedback, and everyone has the motivation to get the best out of himself”* (17G)⁵⁴. The customer is king is here a valid term: *“We really live the spirit here that the customer's success is our success. We never put him in the corner, we never give ultimatums, but we look for a solution for him, no matter how much we have to bend”* (8D)⁵⁵.

6.3.2.4 'The one who makes it, sells it'

One cultural manifestation is letting those who were really closely involved in the development of the solution to also go to the customer and give the presentation. There never was a designated sales department for this task. They developed an own *“slogan”* (7D)⁵⁶ as an employee called it, for this manifestation: *“The one who makes it sells it”* (7D, 24E, 6L, 20D)⁵⁷. A leading director, who

proudly claims to be employee number 16, explains that the strategy behind this was explained to him in his job interview:

“The basic idea which the gentlemen presented to me was the suspension of the separation between development and sales. That means, if you say it casually: ‘The one who makes it sells it’, that is the principle. But the idea was that you suspend the fraction between contract design and specification of the effort, as do the developers, putting them both in one hand” (6L)⁵⁸.

A director describes the term who makes it sells it as a crucial part of the culture: *“Well, the one who stands in front of the customer and represents the project and sells it also knows the technical and substantial tasks. This has always been a really strong part of the culture.” (14D)⁵⁹.* The advantages are that it leads to a closer collaboration with the customer: *“Due to the fact that the project managers acquire their projects themselves and also collaborate closely with the customer, they know that if there is no good collaboration, there won’t be follow up projects” (20D)⁶⁰.* The good contact to the customer has been developed for years and it is *“what made the BEG grow big and strong and it works really well in traditional topics” (9L)⁶¹.*

A lot of employees talk about the plans of the management to loosen this imperative, and to introduce a new sales organisation for the non-traditional business. Here also, the fear is prevailing that changing this might hurt the culture. *“What also happens now, this one-face-to-the-customer thing? That is something I have to say, I am not really sure if this is the right way or if this is rather a sinking ship BEG is entering” (26E).⁶²* He sees that the leading director (9L) is the wrong person to decide this, because he has rather the Bosch way of thinking (26E), than a BEG spirit (26E). He thinks that just because it is good for Bosch, it is a far cry from saying that it is also good for BEG. The employees have a hard time understanding this change. Some are totally against it (24E), and some try to trust the president in this decision: *“I understood Mr. President in the following way: That I am still responsible for sales, but the sales organisation is helping me with it” (33E)⁶³.* Another director says: *“I am not an enemy of the new organisation. I think it is necessary” (14D)⁶⁴.* Here it also becomes clear that every kind of change at first is something they have to get acquainted with and first understand the reasons for it. Even if they, in the end, think it’s good and necessary, it feels wrong to them at first.

6.3.2.5 Pragmatism as the root of entrepreneurial thinking

The presence of entrepreneurial thinking was really strong within most interviews and especially within the interviews with directors and leading directors this was a strong organisational identity core value. In the same breath with entrepreneurial thinking, the term pragmatism was often named:

“Originally, there was pure entrepreneurship, starting with nothing and trying to achieve everything. This means with every customer enquiry which came in, we pondered how to solve it. [...] We did not think in silos. We pondered who has the best competence, the best knowledge to provide the solution for the customer” (8D)⁶⁵.

Thereby the interviewee sees it as key to *“stay focused”, “being able to muddle themselves through”* and not to *“spread oneself too thin.”* (8D)⁶⁶. The president himself sees also the key to success in pragmatism and prefers an *“80% decision made and realized quickly better than 100% taking forever to reach it.”* (1P)⁶⁷. Being linked with entrepreneurship and a strong focus on the shared goal the directors see “efficiency” and “speed” as culture shaping. This is key in making decisions quick and realizing it even quicker. *“Speed is seen as a higher value in liaison with efficiency”* (14D)⁶⁸. One employee here draws the cultural connection to the lack of processes that lead to this increased speed: *“Yes, there was someone who was at home a little bit with the subject, who came from the parent company and said we have to do it that way. And yes, this also was the advantage, we had fewer processes and thus could be quicker”* (31G)⁶⁹.

But not only is the pressure to be fast an important driver for pragmatism. Another driver is the lack of experience in the beginnings. That also forced employees to just muddle through. An interviewee puts it like this:

“You just start paddling and to swim and start making connections and conjunctions and learn how to walk. And the willingness of the people here to learn how to walk and the fascination of something new is very keen. [...] I personally perceive a lot of proactive people here” (15E)⁷⁰.

Not being able to rely on predefined processes and predestined ways forced the employees to adjust everything to the shared goal: *“We thought okay, now we have to look how we can sort it out, it was just one shared goal and not working against each other”* (23E)⁷¹. It was rather the question of *if* they would make it than *how* (14D). And they rather *“reacted than acted”* (31G)⁷², because they did not know at the beginning what they would need at the end. Another employee

at the first management level drew a link to the fast growth the company experienced in the first years:

“You always had the feeling, even though it seems difficult at the moment and you don’t know everything yet, you just trust yourself with it initially and then you carry it off. In that manner, we managed to produce several projects in series, where we wondered at the beginning, if we would have the capability to do it. Well let’s hire someone.” (30G)⁷³

The employee here sees hiring someone as the solution to the problem of lacking experience. But also, the mindset of trusting oneself as well the mindset of just doing it paid off and led to success a lot of times in the formative years of the firm: *“There were three bigger projects in the beginning, [...] and at the beginning you did not know how the project would look in the end. [...] Of course, a lot of things went wrong, but in the end, it always worked out somehow.” (31G)⁷⁴*. Flexibility is also connected with pragmatism. It’s described as the ability to adapt to changing circumstances. One employee even sees flexibility as the key trait of the firm: *“BEG was founded to react quickly, for small customers” (18E)⁷⁵*. This means that it is a generally accepted and expected behaviour by the customer and by other employees in general: *“I think that it is important to a lot of people here, to [...] help out someone – even if it’s not really my job, but I quickly do this, this kind of flexibility” (28E)⁷⁶*.

6.3.2.6 Strategies for maintaining pragmatism

The employees applied two strategies in making sense of pragmatism: comparing it to how it works at the parent company, Bosch, and thereby distinguishing itself from the mother. And the second was, comparing past and present with each other and thereby wishing back the past. In comparison to Bosch, they evaluated their own company as a lot more pragmatic and less perfectionist: *“At Bosch a solution is only presented in front of the customer when it is close to perfect, we approach the customer with a half-done solution from time to time” (3E)⁷⁷*. The perfectionism makes the parent company in the interviewees’ opinion slower: *“Some things are more professional. Here, it’s more just digging in and not analysing it from scratch and deriving things out of it and starting half a year later” (14D)⁷⁸*. This also means that at Bosch they obey the processes more closely. *“I have the impression that at Bosch processes are adopted really well. They say, we always did it this way. This is a sentence I never utter here at*

BEG. We are more flexible" (22E)⁷⁹. All of the interviewees feel certain that the culture at the subsidiary is better.

The other strategy is the comparison with the past. In the eyes of the interviewees, a lot of aspects of the culture and the ways of working were better in the past. One employee here mentions that it was easier to overcome hierarchies in the past, which made things less complicated: *"Sometimes I wish some things were like they used to be in the earlier times. Talking in front of the car about stuff - straightforward, across all hierarchies"* (15E)⁸⁰. One employee in the first management level also makes the growth of employee numbers responsible for things being more complicated. He thinks that organizing stuff was easier in the past: *"Because back then with this size it was still possible. It started with beer tables in the alley – it was really simple. Just as the first Christmas party, it was also in the office"* (30G)⁸¹. Another interviewee calls it 'down to earth' how they dealt with enquiries in the earlier times:

"I think back then they were just a little bit more down-to-earth [...], I think it was more, the customer came, had thought of something and then relatively quickly a discussion started about how this could be realized; it was a more open dialogue with the customer, that I would wish for today" (15E)⁸².

The interviewee here compares the more political and professional way of dealing with enquiries today, with back then where just solving the problem was in the focus. Another employee from the old days, a director that had spent almost fifteen years at the firm, wishes back for more *"creativity"* (12D)⁸³. It is mostly the employees of the early days, having worked more than ten years at that same firm, who wish back for certain things from the past. In total, the employees wish back for an easier and more pragmatic way of dealing with fewer rules and more problem-solving orientation:

"And actually, I would like it better if we returned to this state. Well, you need these crash barriers, this process and definition. But you nevertheless, should ponder whether it makes sense for this specific application. [...] It would be great if we returned to that" (16G)⁸⁴.

6.3.2.7 Conclusion



Figure 30: Link between Loyalty and Organisational culture and identity.

Figure 30 shows the link between the antecedent loyalty and Employee Advocacy with organisational identity and organisational culture as intermediates. A lot of interviewees named loyalty as a reason for being an advocate. They know that the company did something nice for them and they want to return it. The central value of the organisational identity is here *entrepreneurial thinking*. This is seen as a distinctive element by the employees; expressed in the cultural values of customer orientation and pragmatism. *Customer orientation* manifests in the habit of *who makes it sells it*, which means using the normal employees and not sales staff for customer presentation. *Pragmatism* manifests in the *lack of processes* and the *flexibility* of employees and management.

6.3.3 Identification

6.3.3.1 Link between identification and Employee Advocacy

"I am really satisfied, yes, I strongly identify with the firm." (5E)⁸⁵

While loyalty is described as the bond with the organisation and a willingness to follow (Adler and Adler, 1988), identification means to integrate the self into the organisation and make it part of the own identity (Pratt, 1998). In the interviews, the term identification was used frequently but in different contexts. Some interviewees used it in context with the brand, the customer, the projects or even the success of the firm.

In terms of Identification with the brand, it was either spoken of the brand Bosch or the brand of the subsidiary which changed from ASSET to Bosch Engineering, short BEG. For one employee identification means preferring Bosch products over other brands. He also sees loyalty to a brand as a consequence of identification. For him, it would be treason to prefer another product over a Bosch product: *“So I think everyone can identify with Bosch. I don’t know anyone who would buy a Black and Decker stapler rather than a Bosch stapler. It is like backing the company.”* (17G)⁸⁶. Another employee describes that he feels personally offended if someone talks badly about the firm (3E).

A director who only recently transferred to BEG mentioned the identification with the brands of the customer: *“When I hear our employees talk, they have a high identification with the customer. Most likely with illustrious brands, that are behind them. A manufacturer of road sweepers is not as popular as Ferrari”* (8D)⁸⁷. The identification with the customer brands often comes from the issue that there are no designated sales employees, as discussed earlier. The engineers themselves go to the customer and represent the firm and the services there. The president explains the strategic aspects of this: *“We want the engineers who develop the functions and have the connection to the car to go to the customer, in order to increase the identification”* (1P)⁸⁸. And it works, an employee compares it to his former position in corporate research at the parent company: *“The feeling that we are BEG is a lot stronger than when I was in corporate research. In corporate research, I never thought, hey I am the Research. But here, it is more like I represent the BEG”* (22E)⁸⁹. He associates this with trust and compares it to corporate research, where the employer was more controlling towards the employee.

Another employee sees himself as an advocate when he is at the parent company with two sides of the medal: *“I spend a lot of time at the parent company because of my work, and I always notice that I am a representative of the BEG; on the other hand, I have to take the brunt of what the BEG screwed up”* (3E)⁹⁰. Here he identifies with the firm and feels offended when the firm is offended. An employee of the first management level who had spent 11 years at the firm also sees the sales aspect as very important for the identification, because they have to *“sell their services every day to the customer”* (2G)⁹¹, which requires a distinct attitude.

In comparison to the parent company the employees share the opinion that the identification with the projects is higher at the subsidiary: *“The dedication and willingness to realize a successful project for the customer and feel good and proud while doing it, is something that I see more here than at Bosch when I talk to the people”* (6L)⁹². The identification is not only rooted in the sales aspect but also in the contribution, which is bigger if contributing to the whole project *“one work package or two work packages”* (31G)⁹³ as is the case at the parent company.

6.3.3.2 Drivers for identification

The drivers for identification drawn from the data are pride, and distinction. The feeling of being special increases the pride on the one hand; on the other hand, is the value unruliness a manifestation of distinction. In the following chapters, these categories are presented and how they interfere with each other is discussed. Pride is often named in the context of identification: *“Well I am proud to be with BEG, and I am also proud to work with Bosch”* (27G)⁹⁴. Another employee distinguishes different types of pride between Bosch and BEG: *“Well, there is positive communication to the outside, it is similar at Bosch. But a Boschler is rather proud to be working with Bosch and a BEGler is rather proud of his work and then that he works with BEG”* (19E)⁹⁵. This pride is also deeply rooted in the company’s culture and identity, as another employee mentions, and relates to the electrification of an Audi A5, which was technically very sophisticated and is now often used for marketing purposes: *“Well, there are these highlights, where you can really feel the pioneer spirit. The thing with the Audi A5. Everyone was really proud that they did it, in this really short time period”* (5E)⁹⁶.

Dealing with pride the comparison with others is always very important. A female employee that is quite new to the subsidiary sums it up in the following way:

“When I was doing my bachelor studies, I was also with [company division], or [another subsidiary], and [another Parent company division] and, of course, here at BEG. And if I compare it on the whole, I think, that at BEG the group dynamics were the best, and I would say that I had at BEG the feeling that everyone is really proud to work with BEG” (29E).⁹⁷

Here the comparison with three different divisions in the organisation serves as proof that the pride at BEG is really high. An employee who had been at the firm

for over ten years explains it with the name changing: *“ASSET you always had to explain, if you told someone among your acquaintances. [...] Bosch Engineering does mean something to everyone. [...] And this is the thing you also see in the employee surveys, everyone is somehow proud to work at Bosch”* (30G)⁹⁸. Another employee sees it important to make a distinction between Bosch and BEG and a BEGler is not a Boschler: *“I dissociate the BEG from Bosch. This sounds harsh, but it is like that anyhow. [...] So, you say more often, “I am BEGler”, you scarcely hear “I am Boschler”. The Boschler are those who sit at the corporate division; we actually are BEGler”* (26E)⁹⁹.

It is a constant renegotiation of the perceived organisational identity. The employees ponder whether they are a BEGler or Boschler, which is something completely different in the eyes of the employees. It is almost like they have to choose. On the one hand, there is Bosch with its good reputation, on the other hand, there is BEG, who does things differently and is really successful with it. Additionally, the interviewees feel a certain change going on. They feel that the culture is moving more towards Bosch with more processes and standardization, the fear of losing their own identity and becoming more and more Bosch.

“Now that we have grown so much, we are trying to get back to our roots and identify more with the BEG again. [...] Identification – we see that this goes missing and that we become more standard Bosch. If we don’t want this to happen, we have to do something against it” (19E)¹⁰⁰.

6.3.3.3 Feeling special

“Typically, it’s something special with the Bosch group to work at BEG.” (3E)¹⁰¹

There were a lot of quotes that made clear that distinction was an important factor for identification. The employees felt that they were at a special place, at a special firm. And being special is a value that is perceived really high. They found the specialty, for example, regarding the cohesion.

“When someone had a problem, everyone joined hands to solve it. That was there then and it’s like this today. And this is one thing that makes a huge difference to other companies [...]. BEG is just extraordinarily great. This kind of cohesion is not there in other companies as other people are telling me.” (16G)¹⁰²

A female employee describes, for example, the events that are organized as special: *“I think you can see it if you look at the huge number of events that are organized, whether it is for a group of employees or students, what is offered to*

them. I think I would call that something special" (10E)¹⁰³. Another employee praises the freedom the employees have here, he also contrasts it to other divisions at Bosch: *"I think the BEG is a really special place, because the freedom to operate is high, I experience that as a group lead, I have liberties. I would never have those at the corporate division"* (2G)¹⁰⁴. In his eyes, freedom furthers creativity.

Another distinctive factor of BEG is its success. The special way of working of BEG makes it in the eyes of the employees also more successful than other firms. One female employee is convinced that some projects are only possible to realize at BEG: *"We just finished off one customer and then we went a few blocks further and more or less drove home the other project, too. And this was one of those events where I say this is only possible at BEG with the small teams"* (13E)¹⁰⁵. The customers are also responsible for the employees feeling distinct especially from other divisions at Bosch.

"The special projects that are present at BEG. Sportscars, trains, or Ski-Doo, these kinds of applications you do not have at Bosch. [...] Just any projects that are not normal, you can stand out, if you tell friends and acquaintances, hey I am at a proving trip over the weekend by the sea with a sports boat. [...] So, the customers somehow form the BEG. The customers are just more special than at Bosch." (21E)¹⁰⁶

Since the prestigious brands are a great symbol of identification at the firm, the customers play a special role. They help to make the firm successful if they are satisfied with the work. Also, working with the cars is fun and also helpful for self-enhancement. A female employee describes a scene from her job interview, which made her come to the firm: *"I remember, Mrs. XY, she was working on a Ferrari. I thought this was really cool, a woman working on this kind of car"* (10E)¹⁰⁷. Two other employees list the *"great cars"* (23E, 11E)¹⁰⁸ and *"that you are allowed to drive them"* (11E)¹⁰⁹ also as a reason to come to the firm. Even the president admits his fascination to the cars: *"At her bidding and begging, I agreed to drop my second daughter off at school in a Ferrari. You might understand that"* (1P)¹¹⁰. Another person from the upper management level sees the prestige of the cars as important for the reputation of the firm and the *"attractiveness BEG radiates"* (9L)¹¹¹ internally as well as externally. Employees give many examples of being approached with questions about the cars or requests to go for a drive, be it from the family (1P), friends (21E) or even colleagues in different projects: *"Coincidentally the first project I had was with the Ferrari. And*

back then every colleague called me and asked: can you take us with you to the testing ground” (30G)¹¹².

Not only the prestige of the cars are important to the employees, they are also more challenging to work on (21E, 23E). Also, there is the way others see them, especially the colleagues from other Bosch divisions. One colleague describes the way he saw the BEG before he transferred from another Bosch subsidiary who shared the site with the BEG division: *“So I was at CC over there and back then it was always, the BEG, that was something really special, they had the great cars and, in the end, this is how I got to know that the BEG existed” (26E)¹¹³.* But the colleague describes not only positive experiences: *“This was rather something negative, along the lines of, ‘Oh, they just muddle through, it can’t actually be working’, but in principle, it was something special over there” (26E)¹¹⁴.* Another colleague evaluates the outsider’s view as rather one of admiration of the exotic: *“The bottom line is competent. [...] You are not really able to pin down the projects, you see the big cars driving around, and you are surprised sometimes, but on the other hand, you tell yourself, to be able to calibrate such a car, you have to be really talented” (23E)¹¹⁵.*

Another distinctive factor is that a lot of the interviewed employees are convinced that BEG has the rougher ride in comparison to the parent company. For example, the downside of driving a sports car: *“Actually a serial car is more comfortable to work in it the whole day than such a loud barge” (23E)¹¹⁶.* Or the number of different projects a BEGler is thrown in: *“If you are a long time at BEG you have seen a lot of different projects and a really huge network” (22E)¹¹⁷.* On the whole, the demands to BEG are higher because of the cars it deals with: *“BEG has to deliver more because it has different norms to fulfil” (21E)¹¹⁸.* And not only is the work harder at BEG, but employees of BEG are often also called by the parent company for help if they are experiencing capacity bottlenecks:

“The BEG is often seen as the fire department, ‘hey I need someone else, they have to help me now. [...]’ This is the reason why our people are so often thrown in burning projects and then have to rescue the world. Sometimes it works, sometimes it doesn’t” (22E)¹¹⁹.

A group lead sees the BEG even as a threat for the parent company:

"I think that a lot of Boschler feel threatened by us, because we are those with the cool projects [...] On the other hand, they also like to make use of that. This leads to situations where the BEG gets projects it actually can't afford. And the interpretation is, oh let's give it to them, and look if they can manage it." (27G)¹²⁰

This leads to a feeling of competition that goes both ways. The BEG wants to be distinct from the parent company but also outrun it in certain things, while the parent company sees the BEG as a threat with its unorthodox methods and its boldness.

6.3.3.4 Unruliness as distinctive element

In this connection, often the term 'wild bunch' comes up. The employees describe how they felt seen as the young and the wild as an expression for the perceived unruliness with a little bit of chaos. They do not say this without pride: *"Yes, it was indeed the young wild bunch somehow. And if you look at it with a change of perspective, on average it's the more potent cars and so on, with other requirements, you would not know as an outsider" (23E)¹²¹*. The employees see the positive side of the fierceness and also with a certain satisfaction that they had been often underestimated, but the success has proven them right, almost like a former underdog that made it to top dog:

"So, I think that back then it was always, that's BEG, the young bunch, they have no processes, fun at work, drive fast cars and blunder through their projects somehow. That was the opinion of a typical Boschler, an expert with 20 years tenure, had: Now look at the young wild, they blunder their projects, and then at the same time get the cool projects and somehow wangle a good result. It was like that back then; we were not in the same league technically. But I think that changed." (27G)¹²²

Another employee describes at a visit of a group of BEGler at the corporate research division that she felt like one of the *"young wild rowdy bunch"* (28E)¹²³. Other employees describe it as they felt in the early days of the firm rather as not taken seriously and more seen as kids trying something out. One colleague referred to *"Jugend forscht"* a famous youth science competition in Germany, which can be translated as *"Youth researching"* and affiliates this to the issue that *"the everyday working life is a little bit more turbulent than you can imagine"* (15E)¹²⁴. Another colleague looks back at the time smiling: *"Some of the ASSET employees used to sit in an extra glass box. And the others used to call it the children's room of engineers (laughs). Yes, it was a great time back then"* (30G)¹²⁵. There always was the similarity to young adolescents with an urge to prove themselves in front of the grown-ups.

Unruliness, such as bending or breaking rules set by the parent company or superiors, is also a value that is deeply rooted in the company's culture. And the employees are well aware that they as an organisation or as individuals sometimes do things not according to the rules. One employee summarizes it as necessary when dealing with the other Bosch divisions: *"I sometimes think that you have to be insubordinate (laughs). Maybe it's just our role, because we act within the division within the orders of the division and have often a bolder attitude"* (13E)¹²⁶. The employees think that a bold and unruly behaviour is not only important when it comes to dealing with the other Bosch divisions, but also in the daily doing.

Often, they deal with rules and processes that were defined by the parent company or others and they cannot understand them, so they take the freedom to disrespect them: *"I think you can push the limits depending on the situation a little bit, we are not stubborn and do not say here is this guideline, and there it says 17 and a half tries and we don't go below. I liked that and the customer was satisfied"* (17G)¹²⁷. Here the rules were disrespected because of pragmatism that again served the customers wishes, which is again linked to entrepreneurial thinking. Rules are only obeyed if they help the company, and a single employee can take the right to make his or her own judgment: *"We do a lot of things going past the processes. Today this is harder because we have the size and have to report to the central division"* (31G)¹²⁸. The unruliness is even seen as a high value that needs to be preserved and people have to be encouraged to be unruly: *"You see experienced colleagues and superiors act that way and then as time goes by you get bolder. [...] Not everyone is daring to go beyond the known paths and beyond any guidelines, in sum, you have to be encouraged to do that"* (15E)¹²⁹.

Secretiveness

The employees know a lot of stories where the unruliness lay in the pursuit of secret projects, which were forbidden by someone higher in the hierarchy. They call these secret projects 'submarines'.

"The crossbow project was a submarine. Originally, Mr. Leading Director said, we don't do gearbox software and then Mr. Director XY got together with a group lead and a few people and said, we take money from some pot and what Mr. Leading Director does not

know he does not worry about. And then you pop up when the right time is there. [...] Either you get out of it as a hero or you get it in the neck" (27G)¹³⁰.

The director the employee talked of was somehow known for his submarines. His assistant, a female employee summed his behaviour up: *"It is effectively always important that the result is right. The single details, he used to say, let's just look. I am going to play it like this, but we won't tell anyone. Let's just do it" (28E)¹³¹.* With this behaviour, he acted as a role model that encouraged the unruliness of others. Another employee sees this as a specific advantage to have that kind of freedom to just start something if you are interested *"You can also start a submarine and turn it into a developmental project, you can do a lot of things" (30G)¹³².* One interviewee even said these submarines are necessary for the success: *"At BEG the thing is, a lot of things only work as a submarine and only if it pays off, it can come to the surface and you can spread the word" (19E)¹³³.*

Freedom to operate

Freedom to operate is an aspect that lets the culture and the new ideas flourish. In turn, it has to be encouraged by management. One interviewee from the first management level sees not only the submarine theme as valid here, but he also describes small projects other group leads have as hobbies (27G). Here, he names things like building up an own server or developing a performance index system. *"This happens when someone has a really intrinsic motivation to do something that is good to the firm and also gets the freedom to do it" (27G)¹³⁴.* He is convinced that the freedom to operate comes from proactive behaviour:

"I really think that if you really want to take care over a topic and put in some energy, then you can no matter if you are an employee or superior; you can really play an active part, more than an employee from the parent company could." (27G)¹³⁵

The welcoming of initiatives is something that goes along with this and is expected from the leadership. *"I try to encourage people, to support them, if they want to introduce change, saying that is welcomed and that it again helps the BEG culture" (12D)¹³⁶.* Another group lead sums up the two most important principles of leadership for him to enable this behaviour: *"Actually, for me it's on the one hand, giving freedom, but also steering them into the right direction. Of course, you can achieve this if you spark or thrill them with a topic. Either by*

being a model and giving positive examples, or by giving employees perspectives, [...] But also giving them the freedom to use the good ideas” (2G)¹³⁷. The value that is seen as the most important in leadership is to give the employees freedom to operate, trust them with their ideas and encourage them to realize those.

6.3.3.5 Unruliness expressed by clothing

The employees like to express themselves via their clothes. They want to express their easygoingness with casual clothes and also want to be distinct from the parent company by being less stiff. The interviewees often describe the clothes as “casual” (11E, 19E, 28E)¹³⁸, when asked to describe a typical BEGler: “*maybe a plaid shirt and jeans, rather casual (laughs)*” (10E)¹³⁹. Another employee even says that “*leisure wear*” (19E)¹⁴⁰ was something that was often worn to work. This casual style is even worn when the employees are at the customer site for important presentations:

“I think that is also something BEG typical, when we are at a customer meeting, the clothing, I have experienced once or twice, everyone else was there in a suit and we in a t-shirt. [...] There are some guidelines about what to wear when we are with the customer, but often we say, no I won't do that because I am BEG” (13E)¹⁴¹.

The wish to be distinct from others also becomes really clear. A group lead explains that this attitude reaches even into the first management level: “*I know a lot of Bosch group leads whose daily business outfit are pleated pants, a shirt and a tie. At BEG close to no one would even come up with such an idea. We are a little bit more casual here*” (27G)¹⁴².

Another interesting phenomenon is the wearing of branded clothes. Every employee gets a branded jacket, which is dark blue and rather functional. If the employees participate in an event such as a job fair they get a light blue polo. One employee would be willing to pay even money for the branded clothes: “*It starts with the BEG jacket to the BEG shirt. That are really simple things and I find it a pity that you cannot buy them*” (3E)¹⁴³. Another interviewee also expresses that he heard a lot of colleagues would want to buy the clothes (19E). The president mentioned that the employee could not only wear those to work but also in their spare time:

“A lot of the employees wear the jackets we hand out, which are branded with the BEG, also in their spare time. This is something my wife recognized, that we relatively frequently meet someone in the mall who greets us and has a Bosch Engineering brand on the jacket or on the shirt. This is really amazing. I haven’t seen anything like that before” (1P)¹⁴⁴.

Another employee explains with a smile that the BEG jackets are the best accessory to recognize a BEG employee (11E). The interviewees rate the reasons for wearing the branded clothes differently; one group lead says it was out of pride (2G), while another employee points out that it is not in the first place to advocate but rather because they are comfortable: *“I wear the jacket by default; yes, it’s a little bit of advertising, but it’s less the feeling I am proud, but rather it’s a solid jacket” (24E)¹⁴⁵*. Whether it is out of pride or comfort, the willingness to walk around with the logo of a brand willingly shows a lot of identification and loyalty.

6.3.3.6 Risk-taking as root of unruliness

Unruliness also goes along with a certain kind of boldness; the willingness to take risks. In the early days, the organisation was a risky endeavour. The parent company did not know whether the new business model, offering services for small series and high-end sports cars, would be successful, so it was not even named as part of the Bosch group, and if the endeavour did not work out people would not put the ASSET in connection with Bosch and the brand would not be injured. Only after a few years when the subsidiary became one of the most profitable divisions, it got renamed into Bosch Engineering, wearing the name ever since. The subsidiary was founded with a team of 13 colleagues, who all gave up the security they had at Bosch to start a new adventure: *“The main fear of the pioneers was indeed that if it went wrong we might end up on the street. Because it was a start-up, we had left the Bosch group and given up our Bosch contracts” (6L)¹⁴⁶*. The start of the new subsidiary was seen as something adventurous, as a bold move. This can also be the reason why boldness is considered such a high value: History showed that it pays off.

The other reason is also that the president of the firm considers himself as a risk-taker: *“Things attract me that I cannot oversee, that have a certain risk to them, I think this is fun” (1P)¹⁴⁷*. He not only is honest with his attitude, but he also managed that people see him in that way: *“I perceive him as someone who says, ‘Let’s just try it’, rather than him saying, ‘Oh this is too risky, let’s drop the*

idea" (5E)¹⁴⁸. He then puts it on a more general level: *"I always had the feeling that there is that certain spirit at BEG that you take on challenges consciously. [...] Where others might flinch and recoil, I see that BEG just sometimes says, let's do it, let's risk it"* (5E)¹⁴⁹. The president also gives this a strategic component; not being too keen on rules gives the employees the opportunity to explore new directions: *"Here at BEG, we try to avoid setting too strict guidelines but give definitely a little bit of freedom, to bring in new aspects and new perspectives, thereby the culture can further develop and does not stay static"* (1P)¹⁵⁰. Another employee brings here the person-organisation-fit into play and describes risk-taking as a trait that is necessary to feel comfortable in the firm: *"If you are looking for someone for demanding tasks or with precisely these qualities: acting proactively, no fear of rough tides, foreign waters, depth, if you are looking for just that kind of person, then you should be looking for a BEGler"* (15E)¹⁵¹. This sums up the qualities that are looked for in the perfect employee. The attitude of just doing it goes along with not asking too many questions and wasting time on contemplating options. One director labels it as *"Doers culture"* (14D)¹⁵².

The success the company had within the past fifteen years, validated by the strong growth from 13 to 2,000 employees, the good turnovers and new fields of application, agrees with the strategy of taking risks.

"There were these stories that were culture-defining for us: We don't know how but we swot it up. We will learn while we are doing the project what we need for the project, with people whom we will have to hire and train first and we'll accomplish it anyway" (14D)¹⁵³.

No matter how adverse the circumstances were, the success would appear. Another director has a similar view: *"They made things work where I would have said before, I would not even dare to approach this with my experienced team from the [parent company] division, but I dared it with the young BEG team"* (12D)¹⁵⁴. In hindsight, the endeavours seemed like a forlorn hope to the now more experienced employees. But this frontier work not only brought revenue, it also brought respect and acceptance from the parent company. *"In the meanwhile, Bosch accepted this way of dealing with things and really did frontier work here: We are consciously accepting a higher risk, because we think that fitting to the conditions this is okay"* (17G)¹⁵⁵.

Even though almost every interviewee expressed that he or she values this risk-taking behaviour, a lot also expressed the fear that this behaviour has deteriorated since the early days. An employee who was there in the early days, then spent some time in the USA and returned to the firm a few years ago, describes the culture now as *“less flexible and more careful”* (17G)¹⁵⁶. He derives this state from the issue that there are more and worse consequences: *“Back then, we had three customer projects, and if we made a mistake, we fixed it in these three projects. Now we have 300 projects, and if we make a mistake now, we have a huge problem”* (17G)¹⁵⁷. A female director sees also the new size of the firm as a reason for a more careful behaviour: *“It works out okay with 30 people, but with 2,000 I cannot do this anymore. Because they are financially dependent on what I am trying out now”* (7D)¹⁵⁸.

Another reason for the decline of risk-taking is the perception that in the early days, things were more existential. The employees always had the fear that the firm might go bankrupt soon. A leading director from the first days has the opinion that the new employees do not even know what risk-taking is anymore:

“For me, the withdrawal from the Bosch group had a totally different emotional value. I had just as the starting team a guaranteed right to return to Bosch. [...] But this was limited to 3-4 years, and [...] if it went bankrupt in the fifth year then I would have been unemployed. This was a totally different risk [...] than today with the deep embedding in the Bosch group.” (6L)¹⁵⁹

The declining of risk-taking is not at last to be traced back to the phenomenon that the BEG is moving closer to the parent company where risk-taking is not a value. The president makes the distinction: *“The acceptance of risk is, in general, higher at BEG, to be daring, to try something out. You find here less refraining than at Bosch.”* (1P)¹⁶⁰. A group lead has the rationale that it also based on the size: *“Bosch with its 100,000 developers can’t afford to do happy engineering; the risk appetite is, when I draw the comparison to the CC division, really low and with us it’s - generally speaking - declining”* (17G)¹⁶¹.

6.3.3.7 Conclusion

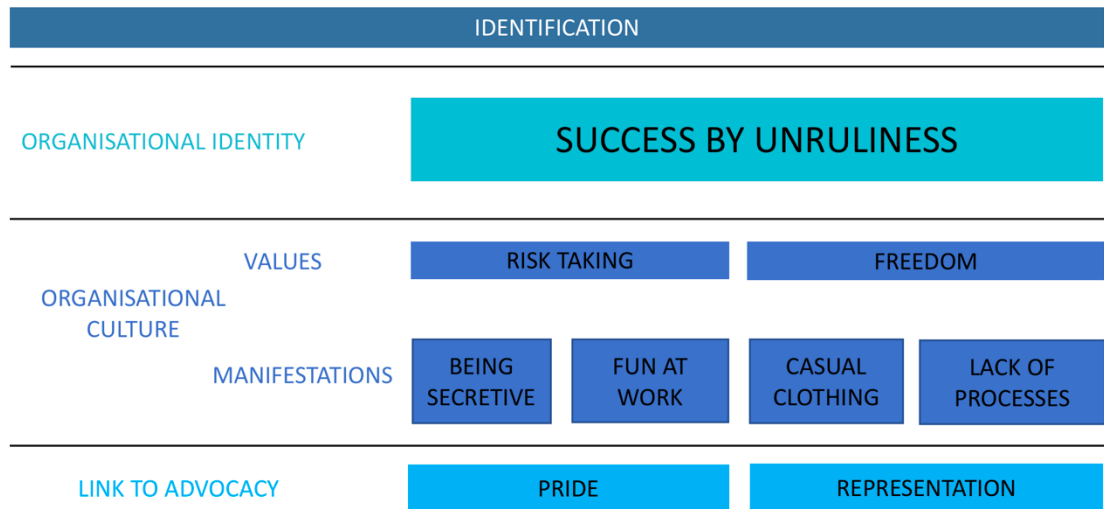


Figure 31: Link of Identification and organisational culture and identity.

Identification is an important driver for Employee Advocacy. Figure 31 shows the link between identification and Employee Advocacy with organisational identity and organisational culture as intermediates. The employees feel proud of being part of something bigger and feel honoured to be a representative of the organisation. The distinctive and central value of organisational identity is the success they ascribe to unruliness. This consists of two cultural values: risk-taking and freedom, which also belong together, because the employees have the freedom to take risks. It manifests in the culture through fun at work and the employees in all hierarchy levels being secretive about their projects. It also is displayed in the lack of processes and the casual clothes they wear.

6.3.4 Satisfaction

6.3.4.1 Link to Employee Advocacy

The reason for Employee Advocacy named by most of the employees was satisfaction. They talk about the firm because they think it's a good employer (28E, 12D, 26E), they like it there (30G, 31G, 10E) or they think it's a good job (24E). Some interviewees expressed that it is easy to speak well about their employer and also recommend it to others because they really like it there. *"I really like working with BEG and am really enthusiastic, I think it is easy for me to tell positive things, [...] I think if you are really happy with a firm, it comes naturally to tell a lot of positive things"* (30G)¹⁶². A female employee sees that she likes

her job as a reason for being an advocate. She also participated in photo shootings as well as in job fairs. *"I would generally speaking say that I enjoy working here, and this is because I am an advocate, as you call it, because I really talk positively about my work, but not just because I participated in the photo shooting"* (10E)¹⁶³. Feeling comfortable at a job was the reason that the employees named the most when asked why they considered themselves as advocates. The following chapter explains why people are satisfied.

6.3.4.2 Working for a good employer

The feeling that they work for a good employer lets them talk about the firm or even recommend it. When they recommend it, they pick out various things from working conditions to cohesion. Some employees are really missionary when it comes to advocating for the firm and getting people here. One interviewee, who has been participating in the mentoring program as a mentor for a young female student, describes how he recommended the firm to her:

"I recommended her the BEG as a young dynamic employer that fulfils all of the employees' needs reaching from free coffee to the cohesion, the possibilities for projects that are available at BEG. [...] Yes, I gushed about the BEG and also told her about the possibility to transfer to Bosch if she didn't like it here" (21E)¹⁶⁴.

Another employee only talks when he is asked, but then advertises the possibilities to develop: *"Well, if I am asked, and it is really all about the picture you present the outside, then I say that I am really happy here, and that I think that is a relatively good work environment, yes, offering new possibilities, and I really think that [BEG] is a very good employer"* (5E)¹⁶⁵. A female employee highlights the good canteen. *"I think in principle, a terrific employer, if I compare it to my friends who work in other companies, they say: Wow, you have a canteen?"* (28E)¹⁶⁶. Another employee explains that he tells friends about his job, and points out that he really likes to go to work because he likes his job: *"I really talk positively about it, especially about the employer, because I am really glad to work here, because I like to go to work, because I enjoy my work even after 11 years and doesn't bore me"* (2G)¹⁶⁷. The feeling that their employer is a good employer makes them recommend it to others.

6.3.4.3 Work-Life-Balance

The employees named a lot of different things that make them think of BEG as a good employer. Interestingly a lot of them named things that fulfilled their basic needs like security. One reason to work there a lot of interviewees named was the good Work-Life-Balance their job provides, mostly related to flexible working hours. A female employee sees it as a Bosch value: *“We Boschler are extremely convinced of what Robert Bosch said, with his 40-hour-week”* (11E)¹⁶⁸. Another employee, who spent some time in the US and has the direct comparison to that mentions the flexibility of *“home office or part-time, and the long-term account. There are 1,000 examples, where I can relate to and say, I feel good here”* (17G)¹⁶⁹. With the long-term account, he refers to the relatively new system, which allows employees to gather a huge number of hours over a long time, either for a sabbatical or early retirement. One interviewee points out that mobile working is not only tolerated but also *“advertised”* (8D)¹⁷⁰. Besides the time-flexibility, another aspect of work-life balance is the work-family-balance. Two employees refer to it when praising the attractiveness of the employer:

“You can always meet in the middle here, for example, regarding the reconciliation of family and work life, regarding the working hours. If I have to take care of my little one in the night, I can sleep an hour longer and leave later in the evening or earlier, whatever, it is very flexible” (21E)¹⁷¹.

Another employee appreciates the flexibility also if his children are sick: *“I have fewer problems handling it with my family than in other firms. And I really appreciate that and also advertise that”* (27G)¹⁷².

The comparison to others within or outside Bosch is something the employees often do. *“In my old firm, I was admittedly able to do some extra hours, but I had to be at the office for a minimum of 4 hours a day, so I was not able to take a whole day off or to cash them out. It was absurd.”* (19E)¹⁷³. Here, he compares the conditions of his old job with the circumstances at BEG, where it is possible to gather extra hours and then take them as he pleases; either hourly, for whole days or even weeks. But also, within Bosch, the circumstances seem not as good as at BEG. One colleague refers to another subsidiary of Bosch where he was working before: *“If you leave the office here at six or seven, it is already the end of working day. There is not much going on anymore. It used to be different*

at [another subsidiary]" (25E)¹⁷⁴. Some interviewees also appreciated the interplay between Bosch and the subsidiary as the best of both worlds:

"If you look at social welfare, this is something that is not present at small firms. And the terrific thing back then was for me the combination – ASSET the little firm, but also with the parent in the back, and has also a lot of things like a big firm, such as cashing extra hours, which I have not been used to before, and a lot of things were just regulated" (30G)¹⁷⁵.

Another employee also points out that he thinks that on the one hand, Bosch is there as a secure place to work, and on the other hand, BEG is younger and not as crusted as Bosch. It is also some kind of appreciation of the employees that the employer respects the free time of the employees and takes care of them and their security and their wellbeing. This does not stay unnoticed.

6.3.4.4 Working Conditions

Besides the Work-Life-Balance another thing that is important to them is the working conditions. They appreciate some comforts. As mentioned above the canteen is one of these comforts (28E), but also the site conditions in total. One interviewee points out that the conditions help him do a better job and work up to his full potential: *"The circumstances are really good here; this allows me to be brave"* (15E)¹⁷⁶. Another colleague also points out the conditions he works under are very important to him: *"The work environment is important to me, that there is an environment where there are no unnecessary obstacles in my way, and where I am provided with the things I need. This is more important to me than a Christmas party"* (4E)¹⁷⁷.

Some interviewees also point out the commodities they think are special, such as an on-site hairdresser and other establishments at the site: *"I mean there is the hairdresser, which makes life easier, the relaxation room, if you force yourself to go there for 30 minutes, that is kind of nice, and I like the fruit baskets"* (18E)¹⁷⁸. Also, other interviewees mention the relaxation room as a special offer that makes the workspace *"more attractive"* (5E)¹⁷⁹. A leading director refers to the beautiful site; what he thinks makes the employer attractive as *"nice and comfortable site"* (9L)¹⁸⁰ compared with other Bosch sites because it is more rural and within a nice landscape in the midst of the vineyards. Three interviewees also name the good pay as a reason to work, especially for young employees. One employee points out that the pay for young employees is even better

than at Bosch with all the bonuses (3E). Another employee said that for graduates the pay was, in general, good at Bosch which attracted him (2G). A female employee made the direct comparison to an automotive manufacturer, where the interns got paid less when they were at a subsidiary and adds that she never felt that it was the same at BEG (10E).

6.3.4.5 Projects, Products and brands

Another important factor for the interviewees was the projects with the special cars. *“I looked at all the projects and cars and then I wanted to join, even though I was really unfamiliar with the subject”* (2G)¹⁸¹. Other employees also mention that they liked the firm because of the special cars, because they are *“car aficionados”* (3E)¹⁸², so they considered working there as *“extremely interesting and a lot of fun”* (3E)¹⁸³. One group lead explains that it fascinates him to work on cars that are not what you see in your everyday life: *“I like that the projects are not ordinary, like VW Polo, but that they are special”* (31G)¹⁸⁴. Another employee likes it that the projects are so diverse: *“We represent over 20 fields of application; only five to fifteen employees work on one subject”* (17G)¹⁸⁵. He values that it's not mass ware. Similarly, another interviewee appreciates that he is able to work on more, smaller projects, than just one over the time (23E). A group leads looks back in retrospective and lists up a project with a lot of different applications:

“We had built a software that worked on a marine application as well as on ground, and also in any industrial application and in automotive, like the London taxicab, and to test this on the specific systems, I was on a boat or on several, I was at a street cleaner and we had the London taxi here. And this is the kind of projects which are really fun.” (31G)¹⁸⁶

This is for the interviewees also the possibility to actualize themselves, that they have the possibility for *“self-realization and to pursue own topics”* (24E)¹⁸⁷ and that they have the possibility to *“burgeon”* (3E)¹⁸⁸. Some employees point out not only to the projects in general but also to their task. One female employee likes that there is no *“rut”* (11E)¹⁸⁹ and another female employee justifies her decision to work there with the statement that she had chosen the right task.

6.3.4.6 Eternally young and among friends

The fourth important factor for the employees that was mentioned a lot by the interviewees was the people. Some name it as a reason to come to the firm: *“It*

was due to the firm, the circumstances and, of course, a lot dependent on the people you work with" (3E)¹⁹⁰. One female employee mentions that she realized that she liked the people in the job interview: *"I had not really the perfect profile, but the chats I had were just so nice and it was really a good fit. [...] And I effectively decided to do this topic, but also and mainly because of the people"* (10E)¹⁹¹. Regarding the traits, the interviewees pointed out that they liked the *"brave"* (15E)¹⁹² people and that there was no *"elbow culture"* (4E, 11E, 19E)¹⁹³ and they also liked the *"easygoingness"* (16G, 30G)¹⁹⁴ as a first impression.

One trait the interviewees mentioned particularly often was 'young'. One interviewee points out that it is remarkable that the average age of all employees used to be 30 years in 2008 (33E). At the time when the interviews took place, it was at 36 years, which is still remarkably young compared to other Bosch divisions. For the interviewees, being young is a synonym for a lot of values that they hold high and for the specific spirit. One female interviewee mentioned it as something that attracted her in the first place: *"The BEG mentality, I really valued that all of the people were so young"* (29E)¹⁹⁵. The employees appreciate the youth because they are young themselves and it gives them a feeling of fitting in.

"I noticed that all the people were really young, and as a student, I really found that appealing, because I was really young myself and if the colleagues are older then you cannot do shared activities in the evening. And this group dynamic I really liked" (29E)¹⁹⁶.

Another interviewee also mentions these same interests among other advantages about being at the same age: *"Especially in the daily doing, everyone is easier going, everything is more relaxed because there are more common interests. If you enter a department at Bosch at the age of 25, the average age is over 40, that is a huge difference"* (21E)¹⁹⁷. A female employee mentions that the same young age makes it easier to *"build friendships"* (10E)¹⁹⁸. One interviewee ascribes the feeling that is more comfortable when you are with a lot of young colleagues to the life cycle phenomenon and the hiring policy of the firm:

"Here are a lot of people who are in a similar life situation or a similar stage of life, a lot of young employees. It is slowly changing but traditionally at BEG a lot of graduates were hired and you had a lot of share topics and interest to a certain amount. And then it is also easier to do some shared activities in the evening. This welds together" (2G)¹⁹⁹.

A female colleague also refers to different life stages and compares her first workplace to her current department, by pointing out that the people moved from

one life stage to another. *“Here, everybody is young, maybe married but without kids, and then it’s just different. It depends on the colleagues and their stage in life”* (11E)²⁰⁰. Another interviewee described this homogeneity as particularly prevailing in the early days of the firm:

“Everyone was young, and this made the contact uncomplicated. Mainly they had been graduating two years ago or just now from university, were relatively young, had similar interests. In private life, they all had this stage, had a partner or not, but close to no one was married or had kids” (16G)²⁰¹.

Another employee sees it similarly:

“At the start, you came together with people in the same life stage, who have a very similar situation as oneself, [...]. You have a shared history age-wise; it starts with television-shows, goes on to computer games and ends with similar cars you drove in your youth, this makes everything more comfortable” (3E)²⁰².

A lot of interviewees talked about the spare time activities that gave them a feeling of cohesion or a team atmosphere (11E). One employee explains: *“We did a lot of spare time activities and also met in private, [...] which also has an influence on the contact”* (16G)²⁰³. One interviewee points out that this is also something special at BEG: *“There are a lot more shared spare time activities, besides work. We are more going out together”* (19E)²⁰⁴. The interviewees list a lot of different things they undertake together: Barbeque events (22E), skiing trips (28E), participating in a cart race (23E), going out for a beer (24E), bowling (26E), going climbing (3e) are only a couple of activities which were listed throughout, almost every interviewee included one or another spare time activity. One interviewee hints that the events may have such a good influence on the cohesion, because *“it’s easy going, people do it spontaneously, because they want to. And I think that is a really cool spirit”* (22E)²⁰⁵.

A lot of interviewees ascribe the issue that they almost feel like amongst friends not colleagues to two things: Being in the same age group and doing many things together outside of work. *“I experience a lot of contacts that feel like friendships, and I ascribe this to the fact that for a lot of them it’s the first job and they moved here for it, and have not a lot of other contacts, so you do things together with colleagues”* (23E)²⁰⁶. One interviewee sees another aspect to that:

“The contacts from back then, they are still present, the friendships keep up over time, even though we don’t have much to do in working life. [...] And you make fun of each other, have easy-going contact and the mutual understanding that you get what the other says. [...] I think that changed now, but I can’t disregard that my role changed too” (16G)²⁰⁷.

An employee from the first management level explains that his contacts changed over time and that he now has a different role. He has a different relationship with the colleagues from the first days than with his associates now, but ascribes this to his new role where he is now the superior to other employees:

“Some people really like the attitude: I go to work by day and then I go home and work is over and I have a private life, and I hand that in at the door in the morning, and go to work. And I personally, rather say: “My buddies are also my colleagues, which I have found here, I am involved with those the most. And why don’t go bowling with them in the evening”²⁰⁸.

So, it is not only spare time activities that the employees do together, but also their way of treating each other is an expression of friendship. Some interviewees even went so far as to describe the feelings they had for their colleagues as not only friendship but even family, particularly when they talk about the past: *“Back then it was all smaller and more familial”* (20D)²⁰⁹.

6.3.4.7 Cohesion and collaboration: Helpfulness and openness as manifestations

“I think, in a nutshell, working at BEG is shaped by good cooperation, that there are a lot of people working together, who are open and like to help each other.” (2G)²¹⁰

A lot of employees mention the cooperation and cohesion as really special at the firm, (16G). This is expressed in the way of working. Some employees call it *“working as partners”* (28E, 16G, 5E)²¹¹, others express more the feeling of being one entity, they think *“the group identity”* (21E)²¹², *“the feeling we are BEG”* (22E)²¹³ is strong and *“in sum, the BEG is a sworn community”* (9L)²¹⁴. Two other employees describe it as the feeling of belonging somewhere (32E, 5E). In this chapter, two values the employees link to cohesion and collaboration are explained more closely: Openness and helpfulness. *“Characteristic of BEG is the attitude, I have never ever seen you, but I will help you anyway if you stand at my desk”* (3E)²¹⁵. As one of the strongest values helpfulness was named. The interviewees described in a lot of different ways what helpfulness meant to them and in which situations they expect and experience it. One interviewee tries to explain it using the word *“Colleagueship. If I have a problem, I go to my colleague and he then helps me”* (4E)²¹⁶. Another interviewee used the term: *“Team spirit. We stick together and we help each other”* (3E).²¹⁷ Being helped when a problem occurs seems to be the most important thing. One interviewee mentions his first weeks: *“I have always noticed, when I started here, I was always*

helped to learn the ropes of everything and learn the processes and structures of BEG or Bosch in general" (18E)²¹⁸. A female employee also mentions that helpfulness for her was particularly important in her training period: *"If you somehow needed help to learn the ropes, then you could really ask everybody"* (10E)²¹⁹.

Also important for the interviewees was the phenomenon that the helpfulness is something persistent throughout the firm. *"No matter who I approached, the answer was always 'of course, I have time, let's try this out'"* (22E)²²⁰. Another interviewee also relates to the persistence of helpfulness: *"No matter who starts working with us, everyone is extremely positively surprised that when he approaches someone, this person takes the time and gives out tips and helps him or her along; you will never experience someone saying: Get lost! I am not up for your problem"* (30G)²²¹. A female employee also states that helpfulness is present with all colleagues. *"If you need information, no matter if it is information from other divisions or departments, you always get an answer and are not postponed"* (10E)²²².

An employee from the first management level defines helpfulness even more strictly. For him, it is not just helping if being asked:

"If you have the feeling someone is in a jam and needs support, then give it to him. No matter if you have a lot on your plate and want to leave at four. Accept restraints for yourself and help someone who is up the gum tree and give them the information. The important thing is not just offering help if you don't have anything to do anyway, the hard thing is to do it if you are under pressure yourself" (16G).²²³

Other employees, in turn, see it more pragmatically, in the tradition of one good turn deserves another: *"Simply, oh you need help, if I need help next time then it's the other way around. We help each other and I think that is really awesome"* (22E)²²⁴. Another interviewee sees it in a similar way: *"On the one hand, I really like to help because I know if I need help, then the other one is helping me, too, even if he does not have the time"* (26E)²²⁵.

The employees really tried to present an accurate picture of the helpfulness they experience and explained also its restrictions and nuances. An excuse for not being helpful for them if the person has a lot on their plate right now: *"People don't always have time, but they were always nice, friendly and open"* (10E)²²⁶. Their perception is that if someone does not have the time, it is okay to negotiate

another time: *“If you need help with a software I have never experienced, that some employee deliberately denied it, but it was rather: ‘I don’t have time right now, come again later’. The helpfulness is clearly present, that’s what I call the BEG spirit”* (24E)²²⁷. Another employee agrees with that: *“It may well be that someone says now is not a good time, come by later, but I really think that people here pick up the ringing phone and help”* (30G)²²⁸.

In the statements, helpfulness is more a general attitude than a specific behaviour. Again, it is also an attitude which they perceive as special and not to be taken for granted: *“I did not experience this everywhere I was”* (3E)²²⁹. Another interviewee also puts it on a more general level: *“If someone has a problem, everyone joins hands to solve it. It has always been like that. And this is a huge difference to other companies”* (16G)²³⁰. He draws his opinion from stories he heard from friends.

They express this perception by comparing the degree of helpfulness at BEG with the helpfulness at Bosch. Here again, they clearly distinguish between BEG and Bosch. *“The people here pick up the phone and give you an answer, and help you. At Bosch, often you hear that the people are so overworked that they think if they get any more they will completely drown in work”* (30G)²³¹.

The employees also compare it to the early days of the company, and have the shared opinion that the helpfulness was even greater back then. They pin the helpfulness down to the fact that at the beginning no one had a clue, no one knew everything: *“I think this is what influenced the BEG culture a lot. The helpfulness is perhaps rooted in the fact that we had to cover a lot of bases at the beginning”* (2G)²³². Another employee describes it as co-dependency: *“Every single employee knew less than an expert at Bosch, but on the other hand, in order to realize the projects, we really had to join hands. And I think that really mattered and it changed with the size of BEG”* (27G)²³³. Another interviewee traces it back to the lack of information that was available at the beginning: *“You could not access all the information. Today everyone has the internet. That was not given at the beginning. A lot was restricted and the search function was bad and you only found a few things, so you had to approach the colleagues and retrieve the information from other people. It worked out really well”* (31G)²³⁴. He then also offers another explanation, the lack of old hands: *“Everyone was new*

in this area, everyone could ask anyone and there was also help in between the projects” (31G)²³⁵.

Another value that is considered very important by a lot of interviewees was openness. For a department director, the openness equals *“honesty” (12D)²³⁶*. For some employees, openness here equals friendliness: *“Open, friendly” (26E)²³⁷*, and being able to talk to other employees:

“Everyone is just telling something about themselves, on Monday morning everyone recounts his weekend, what he did and you know exactly how many children everyone has and how old they are, where they go to school and what grades they have. It’s just completely open that is something I think is really special” (26E)²³⁸

Drinking a coffee together in the designated lounges is also something other employees link to being open: *“You get here in the morning and then first of all you go for a coffee together, it’s more social and there is more harmony” (4E)²³⁹*. For them, drinking coffee is something special: *“The coffee kitchen talks, I experience this here more than anywhere else: You just stand together in the coffee kitchen and talk” (3E)²⁴⁰*. A director from the second management level indicates that sitting in the coffee kitchen within the working hours is not only totally fine but also part of the culture: *“I experience it as a cultural artefact of BEG, that you sit in the coffee kitchen and have discussions with each other without being frowned upon” (12D)²⁴¹*.

A lot of employees experienced openness particularly at the beginning, when they started their jobs or even already in the interview. They felt like they had a really warm welcome: *“I had the experience that I came here and immediately was welcomed with open arms” (21E)²⁴²*. Another employee recounts it similarly and also emphasizes the openness with information right from the beginning on: *“I had a really positive first impression that they were really trying to give out information, what was representing the firm and also revealed everything” (14D)²⁴³*. The exchange of knowledge is also an important value for a female employee: *“The values of openness and exchange of knowledge, they are there and they are also lived by” (11E)²⁴⁴*.

Another employee recounts the introductory event as one of his first experiences: *“I remember the first day, the introductory event, which Mr. [6L] took over from Mr. Founder, and you simply were welcome and there was immediately*

someone there to take care of you” (27G)²⁴⁵. A female employee bases her decision to work for the firm on the openness she experienced at the job interview: “The openness of the people who interviewed me was great [...] I exactly told him what I wanted and he just said ‘great, that really fits’ and also told me straight ahead that I would get another meeting” (32E)²⁴⁶. The president himself also remembers a similar feeling when he had a job interview for a job at Bosch, years before he came to BEG.

“It was just a totally different kind of openness at Bosch. I said at the job interview, I would like to talk to someone who had worked here for a couple of years and they assigned me one, and then we went for a walk in the alley and I asked, now just tell me what is not going well here? And he looked at me and he told me” (1P)²⁴⁷.

The president stresses then that he particularly liked that the employee had no fear: *“I was impressed with how free and easy-going he talked. Obviously, he was not afraid that he had to face consequences, he was really open” (1P)²⁴⁸. Looking at this quotation it becomes clear that openness is another aspect of the risk-taking attitude and goes along with a certain fearlessness, which fits with the other values. Being convinced that openness is the right mindset the president passes this on to the employees.*

One employee related the openness to giving away information and then draws the link to desired management traits: *“You perceive a certain openness if you need some information. And this is also what is encouraged by management, that you communicate a lot, and tell people everything they might be interested in” (25E)²⁴⁹. For the interviewees, it is not only a desired behaviour of other co-workers but also a desired leadership behaviour. Openness is seen as some kind of appreciation by management, and employee empowering. For other employees, it is also important to get a real idea where the firm stands at the moment: *“You set the goals and you also educate the employees about where we are standing at the moment, how is the fever chart looking?” (13E)²⁵⁰. For the interviewees, it starts right at the top. The employees have the feeling that information about the current status is always shared with the employees. One employee explains that he never had the feeling that the managers from the upper management level were trying to hide anything; they deliberately tell some things only orally but he also thinks that if *“You would walk into Mr. President’s office asking for more information you would get it” (25E)²⁵¹. One female***

employee also had the feeling that “*you can openly ask questions to the department directors. Everything is really open and constructive*” (13E)²⁵², she then goes on that feedback is perceived as something good. A leading director sees this also as the tasks of a manager to give on information “*without any filter*” (6L)²⁵³. Hence, the openness has not only the aspect of friendliness but also of giving out information freely.

6.3.4.8 Conclusion

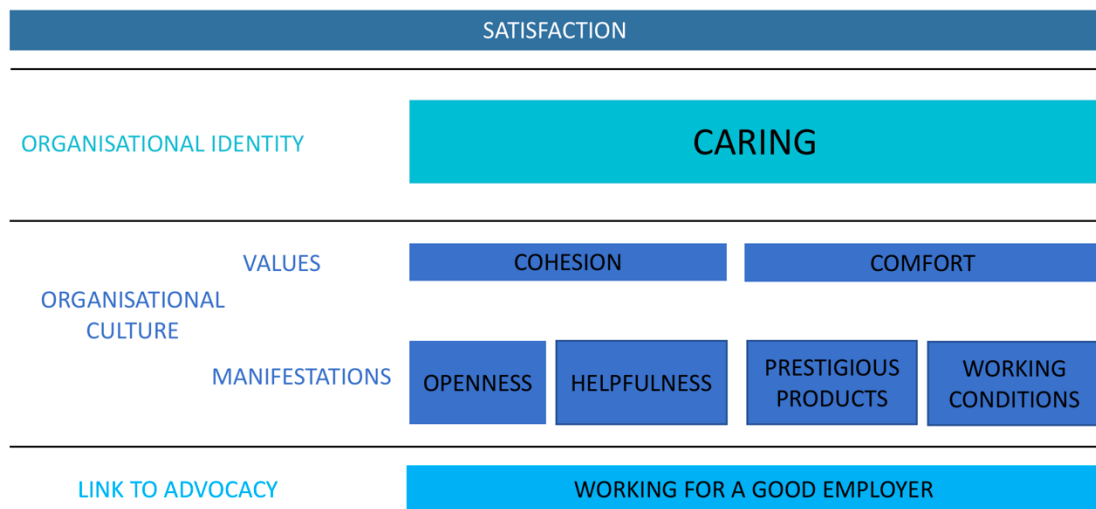


Figure 32: Concept of Satisfaction and its link to culture, identity and Employee Advocacy.

Satisfaction is the third strong driver for Employee Advocacy. Figure 32 shows the link between loyalty and Employee Advocacy with organisational identity and organisational culture as intermediates. The employees have the feeling that they are working for a good employer, and like to let people know. Here, the central value connected to organisational identity is *Caring*. They feel that the organisation cares for them and the people within the organisation care for each other. The caring of the organisation manifests in the *Comfort* it provides for the employees, which can be seen in the prestigious products and the working conditions. The caring for each other is the cultural value of *Cohesion*, which can be seen in the helpfulness and openness people show towards each other.

6.4 Organisational Identity and organisational culture of the researched organisation

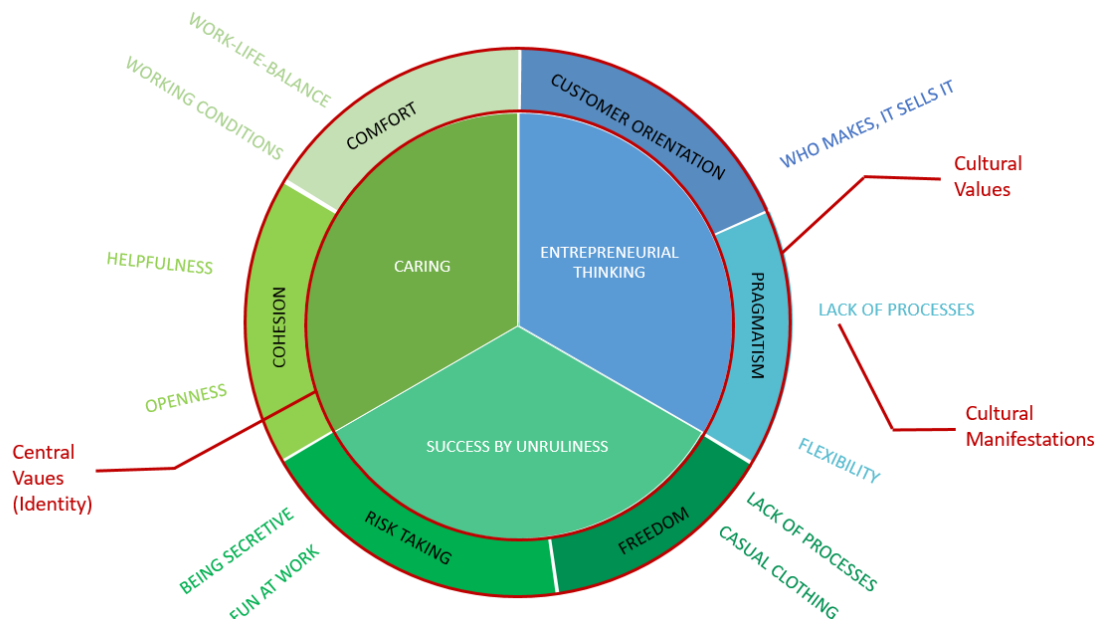


Figure 33: Model of organisational identity and culture for the subsidiary.

Figure 33 describes the conceptualization of the identity and culture of the researched organisation. The inner core is comprised of three central values: *Caring*, *Entrepreneurial Thinking* and *Success by Unruliness*. These three form the central beliefs of the members of the organisation, their inner conviction of who they are as an organisation. This can be conceptualized as the identity of the subsidiary. The second, outer layer of the circle is the cultural values, that are more concrete and behavioural. The graphic shows that each identity value manifests in two cultural values. *Caring* manifests in *Comfort* and *Cohesion*, *Entrepreneurial Thinking* manifests in *Pragmatism* and *Customer Orientation*, and *Unruliness* manifests in *Risk-Taking* and *Freedom*. The beams that spread from the circle are the cultural manifestations of the values. These manifestations or practices can be observed from the outside. *Comfort* manifests in *Work-Life-Balance* and *Working Conditions*, *Cohesion* manifests in *Helpfulness* and *Openness*, *Risk-Taking* manifests in *Fun at Work* and *Being Secretive*, *Freedom* manifests in the *Lack of Processes* and the *Casual Clothing*. *Pragmatism* also manifests in the *Lack of Processes* and in *Flexibility*, and *Customer Orientation* manifests in the practice of *Who makes it, sells it*.

Although these are the findings of a specific organisation, there are some generalizations possible. A strong organisational identity that is realized in a unified

culture helps Employee Advocacy. There are core values needed to further loyalty, identification and satisfaction. Satisfaction is highest if the employees feel comfortable in their job; the identity has to reflect this, which is quite universal. Loyalty is high if employees feel that they matter to the organisation, this feeling is also a universal feeling, it only depends on the way how the organisation makes them feel recognized. For the third antecedent identification, it is important to be proud of the uniqueness of the organisation, here it does not matter how this uniqueness is achieved. This can also be applied to other organisations. How these values then find their application in culture can be different from organisation to organisation.

6.5 Summary of the chapter

Chapter 6 shows the central phenomena around Employee Advocacy and its antecedents Loyalty, Identification, and Satisfaction. *Loyalty* is linked to Employee Advocacy because of wanting to help the company; the employees engaged in helping through *Entrepreneurial Thinking* because they felt that their contribution mattered. Here, cultural values pragmatism and customer orientation were shown, which in turn manifested in lack of formalized processes and allowing flexibility in the saying *Who makes it, sells it*. Identification manifested in *Unruliness* leading to a specific pride and the urge to be a representative of the employer.

The pride was influenced by a feeling of being special which could be ascribed to the organisational identity of being successful by neglecting the rules. This was also rooted deeply in the company's culture, namely in the values of risk-taking, manifested in being secretive; having fun at work; and freedom manifested in casual clothing and lack of processes. *Satisfaction* was linked to Employee Advocacy because the employees wanted to let people know that they worked for a good employer. Here the core of the identity was *Caring* for the employees by the organisation and from each employee to the other. This manifested in the cultural value of cohesion, expressed through openness and helpfulness, and comfort through working conditions and prestigious cars.

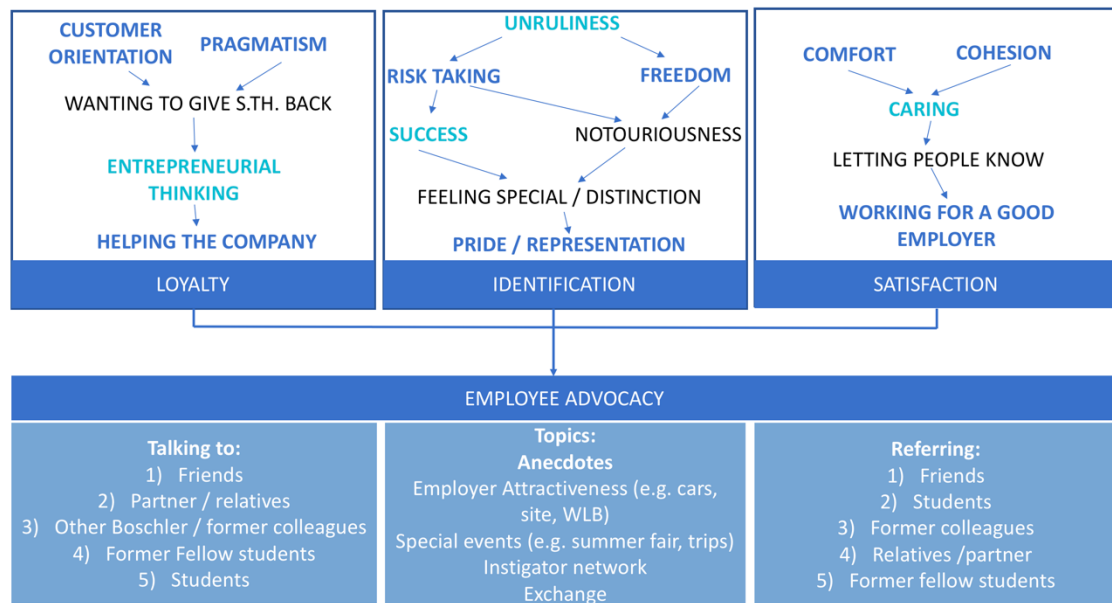


Figure 34: Summary of the findings within the interviews.

Figure 35 summarizes the findings and brings them in relation to each other. It also shows the different groups of people being referred and talked to and the topics that were used when talking about the employer. The biggest groups in both cases were friends. They were the ones that were referred by the biggest number of interviewees (29E, 33E, 27G, 11E, 28E) and also talked to by ten of the employees (2G, 8D, 9L, 10E, 11E, 14D, 15E, 16G, 19E, 29E). Other important groups were relatives, former fellow students or colleagues. The topics talked about were also interesting. A lot of interviewees talked either for general exchange about their everyday life, special events or trips, or why they found their employer attractive. Eight interviewees (17G, 21E, 22E, 23E, 24E, 26E, 27G, 31G) also told that they liked to tell anecdotes about their work, some also naming the specific stories they had told. These stories will be closer examined in chapter 8.

With all the different phenomena: loyalty, identification, and satisfaction and their sub-phenomena such as pride or working for a good employer, there were always two strategies the interviewees took for reasoning. One was comparing the status now with the old days and estimating whether the phenomenon had changed for better or worse. The other was the comparison to others, particularly to other Bosch entities mostly with the outcome that the particular value or behaviour was better at their own firm. These two strategies will be examined more closely in the following chapter.

7 Aggregated dimensions to the antecedents of Employee Advocacy

7.1 Introduction

The following chapter describes the two interlinking themes that could be found within all the categories throughout the interviews: Change was an important topic, regarding how things changed, what changed, and how the employees dealt with it. The other interlinking theme was distinction. Since the subsidiary was founded fifteen years ago, creating and maintaining an own identity separate from the parent company was crucial. This chapter describes the aspects of these themes and the strategies the interviewees applied to deal with them.

The company underwent remarkable changes in the fifteen years of its existence. It started off as an endeavour with thirteen employees and grew up to 2,000 employees. It changed its name from generic ASSET towards Bosch, opened up new fields of application, such as rail or aircraft, went international and moved its headquarters. These big changes in structure and strategies also had indications for the culture which the employees felt remarkable. Most of the employees interviewed had been in the firm for years and witnessed at least parts of these changes.

7.2 Moving forward by looking back

7.2.1 *Growth as a reason for the change*

Most of the interviewees ascribe the reason for remarkable changes, which were not always to the better, to the phenomenon that the firm grew so rapidly. *“I have been working here for four years only, but I already see that it was better in the past, [...] the BEG just grew a lot. And in my opinion much too quickly. There is healthy growth and the one BEG had, a massive growth”* (18E)²⁵⁴. Another employee also makes the size responsible for the change: *“Solely determined by the size and the new processes that come with it, things are becoming different than before. Before, some things were probably easier”* (10E)²⁵⁵. The employees strongly feel two sides of the growth. The positive side is success: *“There were some success stories, where things really worked out well, and those led to the division and the whole firm growing”* (14D)²⁵⁶. The growth gave a lot of employees

the possibility to start their jobs there, because the open positions that were needed due to the growth *“Back then there was already a strong growth here at BEG, and I thought it was a great place for me as a graduate”* (2G)²⁵⁷. One interviewee goes so far as to even describe that they were *“looking for someone desperately and probably would have taken anyone they could get”* (4E)²⁵⁸.

This hiring boom clearly has two sides. One interviewee also remembers the upsides of it: *“At that time a lot of new employees started working with BEG. And the new ones had a lot of introduction seminars and events together. That really helped us bond”* (16G)²⁵⁹. Another employee holds the growth accountable for the good possibilities for development: *“The employee development was thanks to the growing structure; I have the feeling that, for example, with acceptances to the talent pool. If you look at it cross-division, BEG had always sent a lot of candidates to it”* (23E)²⁶⁰. The acceptance to the talent pool - the corporation-wide career development program - is the first condition for taking over a position on management level. One colleague even makes the hiring policy responsible for the growth: *“Ok, let’s hire someone. This was from the beginning the solution to all problems”* (30G)²⁶¹.

But the employees also see the downside of the hiring boom, like not being trained sufficiently:

“With me, it was still all right. I started before the big boom, [...] and had a so-to-speak ‘mentor’ who looked after me incredibly well and answered all my questions. But the people who came after me had a much rougher ride; they did not have any mentors and there was not as much time for the training phase” (10E)²⁶².

Another female employee sees the downside of being more anonymous: *“We grew rapidly; I was there when it was 1,000 employees, I was a student back then, and it has become more anonymous”* (11E)²⁶³. One employee even wishes back a smaller firm: *“Back then the firm was smaller, sometimes you can get almost wistful about that”* (15E)²⁶⁴. Another employee also wishes for a choice: *“This is the deal, if you want to grow. Sadly, it’s the management who decides where the firm is heading. I think the BEG is too big in total”* (18E)²⁶⁵. One employee has a similar opinion and wonders when there is an end to the growth: *“I asked my former boss, [...], if there are efforts taken to set a limit sometime in the future. [...] Do we want to maintain our agility or are we going to grow for the*

next ten, fifteen to twenty years come hell or high water" (17G)²⁶⁶. After establishing that in the employees' eyes growth is the reason for the change, the aspects that changed are now analysed.

7.2.2 Aspects that changed

7.2.2.1 More bureaucracy

In the following chapter, the values that changed most were linked to the organisational identity; the central and distinctive values which also manifested in the culture (Albert and Whetten, 1985, Hatch et al., 2015) are explained. The change was perceived the most in three areas: the cultural manifestation structure which tended more towards bureaucratic manifestations, the identity of the firm, which has now more a tendency towards a more mature culture with less creativity; and less trying out, in general, becoming more like the parent company.

The interviewees perceived that there was in general more bureaucracy now than there was in the early times of the firm. *"And that there might have been fewer processes and less bureaucracy, I'd say we do have now a certain bureaucracy"* (4E)²⁶⁷. They linked this to the phenomenon that there were now more processes which also require more distinct roles, which generate more specialists and hierarchies.

More processes

In the beginning, with 13 employees, processes were not needed because everyone just did how they thought it was best. Now, the employees are experiencing a multitude of different processes.

"I have the feeling that due to the fact the BEG is steadily growing, there are more and more processes that have to be followed. And there is also a growing number of employees who say, 'Whew, now we have to do that list here and travel expense accounting there, and here we have to fill something out, and click here and this has to be approved by the superior' and a lot of them are annoyed by it" (28E)²⁶⁸.

Some employees just call it getting *"more formal - you can't just solve everything on demand"* (1P)²⁶⁹ or with less *"short communication"* (4E)²⁷⁰. A female employee also lists the small things she noticed changing: *"Probably just the small*

things, some excel stuff, [...]; in the application, they have an excel list for everything for example" (10E)²⁷¹. A director who started in the early days draws the direct comparison from then to now:

"At the beginning, we were really hands-on; it was not always entirely legal, but not deliberately illegal. It was just because we did not know better. And then we established this process landscape, also for those who then came on board, that they could identify where there was an area of work and what were their tasks" (12D)²⁷².

A group lead concedes that the size requires the processes: *"In Powertrain they have 200 project leads. If they forget something in a project or a mistake happens, then there is no possibility to broadcast it via grapevine. In my eyes, the only way is to include it into the process or introduce a new checklist. This is why I have the utmost understanding"* (17G)²⁷³. The introduction of so many new processes makes the employees more restrained in their freedom, which is directly opposed to their wish for being free and wild and how they like to see themselves.

More roles

The employees also believed that there was a high number of processes, because everything had to be standardized for the new employees to enable their quick training. A group lead also describes that this went a little overboard: *"Then they try via tools and processes, three times, five times problem solving, and there is also an advocate in every department; such as there are defined problem solvers"* (17G)²⁷⁴. He then goes on to add that there are not only designated problem solvers, but also *"we now have user representatives for IWC [Inspiring Working Conditions]. For hundreds of thousands of things, there are coordinator roles and a representative, whereas in the past we used to say, no we don't need that, that does not make sense for BEG"* (17G)²⁷⁵. A leading director also directly compares it with the past times. But he describes not only the status now, but also the status back then:

"The environment in the firm is much more regulated. That means there are a lot of staff positions for a lot of different topics. There is an IT department who solves the computer problems, an HR department that takes care of the hiring topics. In the early days, it wasn't like that; I drafted the contracts myself, and for this, I learned labour law. And my colleague helped me with the IT world" (6L)²⁷⁶.

For another employee, it was completely normal that as a project lead he also had a disciplinary tasks: *"I did performance reviews and job interviews with new employees for my project and I also hired them"* (31G)²⁷⁷.

More specialists

The conception of everyone doing everything is also a more generalist approach toward things. The leading director sees the reason for losing this approach in the increase of efficiency: *“Because by controlling the efficiency you can concentrate more on the main tasks and omit secondary tasks. If I have to calibrate at an optimum efficiency and to a minimum price, I can’t also take care of the coffee order”* (6L)²⁷⁸. Reasonable if put like this, another employee sees that it sometimes also takes bizarre proportions:

“I think that there was sometimes also an overshoot, that we specialized really, really strongly or too strong in some places. Our projects serve themselves out of one of the matrix departments and say ‘we need this competency in our project’ and then they get an employee for – let’s say 2 weeks, [...] and for the next work package the next employee comes” (31G)²⁷⁹.

One employee traces the dislike of specialization back to the past, where *“every single one knew less than an expert at [the parent company]”* (27G)²⁸⁰, which for him meant it was as much as a survival strategy. Another employee was also sure that this everyone doing everything to assure the success of the projects meant: *“You have to look how you bring a project successfully into series, and sometimes part of this is to look left and right and do something beyond your original responsibilities”* (30G)²⁸¹.

The interviewees idealize the image of everyone doing everything and equate it with a good team play: *“Everyone is contributing everywhere a little bit”* (22E)²⁸² or *“It’s important to fill in here, and support there”* (28E)²⁸³. Another employee idealizes it with entrepreneurial thinking: *“The original image of the BEG was pure entrepreneurship; start with nothing and achieve everything. With every customer request, we thought how it could be solved, [...] who had the best competency”* (8D)²⁸⁴. One group lead emphasises the positive side of it: *“Within the company, one could make a name of oneself for these kinds of topics relatively quickly. And everyone said, ‘For this topic, you can go to him’ even when he was only at the firm for half a year”* (16G)²⁸⁵. Another employee uses almost the same words for this: *“If you were involved for a couple of months, you got a topic no one else was working on, and then you became an expert within a couple of months”* (31G)²⁸⁶. This idealization of few processes and roles and without clear responsibilities seems to be rooted in a wish for freedom, which is logical because ‘unruliness’

and freedom are high values within the culture and the basis of the organisational identity.

More hierarchies

With greater size also comes more hierarchy, which is also something that is not uncriticised. One group lead openly admits that he does not like the development in this direction: *"Whether it's the different hierarchy levels, in the past there were three or four levels and then you had the boss, I mean Mr. Founder or Mr. President. Of course, this is because of the size, but I have to admit, I don't like it now"* (17G)²⁸⁷. An employee of the second management level has the feeling that he loses the contact to the top management: *"From talking daily, and even if it was only a hello, I have now only three, four times a year the chance to exchange a short talk with Mr. President. That is a totally different frequency"* (12D)²⁸⁸. Another group lead puts it on a more general level: *"Back then, there was no hierarchies, it was just too small. There was a name and a topic, but the person had not yet the title Domain Expert; it was easier going. [...] You did not need the additional shoulder epaulettes"* (16G)²⁸⁹. Intriguingly, it is mostly people from the management level who complain about the increase of hierarchies.

More lethargy

"The inertia, you can feel it, everything gets more complex" (11E)²⁹⁰

With the increase of processes, hierarchies, roles and specialists, it comes naturally that the organisation becomes slower and more lethargic. The interviewees find these developments alarming, but also answer it with a certain kind of fatalism: *"The firm grew and has more employees, and the larger it becomes the more lethargic it gets"* (21E)²⁹¹. A group lead ascribes it to the overarching projects that require more processes and *"the feeling is that we are slowing down, we are becoming more lethargic"* (17G)²⁹². Being slow is something that for a lot of employees is against the purpose of the firm: *"The BEG was founded to react fast and act fast for small customers, now we don't do this anymore, we are only pressured by revenues"* (18E)²⁹³. Another interviewee had the same opinion: *"The numbers are great; it's not that we won't be able to grow anymore soon. But in my point of view, it is counterproductive to the goal of being the small fast special unit. We are losing this image. It's a bit of a shame"* (17G)²⁹⁴. Being slow is not

fitting with the organisational self-conception of being young and wild; it rather is a trait that is ascribed to the older organism. It seems like being a side effect of growing and maturing as a company. The analogy of growing up is of essential importance for the research project and will be discussed in chapter 9.

Conclusion

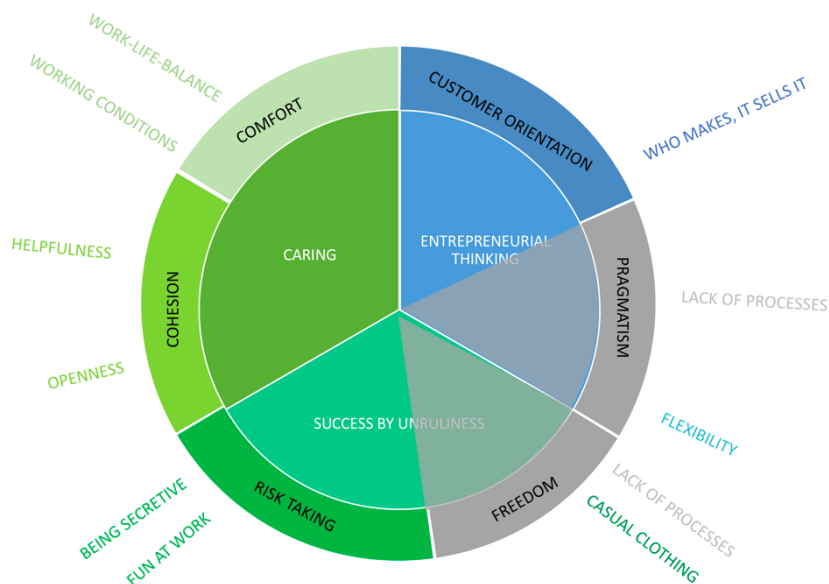


Figure 35: Identity areas affected by the increase in bureaucracy.

The findings show that in the eyes of the interviewees the changes have gone to the root of their organisational identity. On the one hand, the interviewees feel a change towards more bureaucracy this involves more processes, which makes them feel less free. Also, the more hierarchies let them feel less free. Figure 35 shows that freedom is the cultural value that directly relates to the identity of Unruliness. On the other hand, the interviewees feel that things got slower at the subsidiary and ideas were not realized as fast as they used to, this decreases the cultural value of pragmatism and freedom which directly relates back to the unruliness and the entrepreneurial thinking, the organisational identity. Also, the employees feel an increase of specialism, which supersedes the earlier situation that everyone does everything. With more roles and less speed, everyone feels more and more like a small cog in the machine. These changes are seen as particularly intimidating by the employees because they menace the pragmatism culture, which is directly linked to the identity of entrepreneurial thinking. Figure 35 shows that the changes have a direct impact on the identity. Changes that are directly linked to the identity seem to be especially threatening to the employees

and influence in turn loyalty, identification and satisfaction because their basis then is simply not there anymore.

7.2.2.2 Losing spirit

Another fear or feeling of the interviewees is that the firm is losing its unique spirit, which relates to identity as well as culture. The BEG spirit is something which is considered very special. The president explains this fear: *“If I provide every year 20% new employees, then I thin out, what is there. The new employees bring new things and the culture changes”* (1P)²⁹⁵. An employee who has been working for three years with the subsidiary has a similar opinion:

“I think the culture which is there now is a relic of when the BEG was really, really small. But it has well-stayed the test of time, and I think it was given on to new employees really well. [...] What is clear is that it is thinned out with increasing size” (3E)²⁹⁶.

In the following, it is analysed what the thinning out of the culture means to the interviewees. The employees see the spirit like a concentrate that gets thinned out the more ingredients it gets.

More anonymity

An effect that the interviewees also ascribe to the bigger size is the growing anonymity. A lot of them think back to the times where everyone knew everybody. *“It’s kind of normal that the firm gets more anonymous”* (18E)²⁹⁷. Some of the interviewees reminisce with examples from the past. One employee recounts being invited to the debut party; a ritual done when starting a new job, where snacks and drinks were provided for new colleagues and a speech is given.

“When I started in 2003, it was customary to invite all of the colleagues to your debut party. There were 300 when I started. Of course, no one did this individually, but back then, every month ten or twenty people started and they got together and there was a party in the assembly hall. [...] Then you knew everyone” (2G)²⁹⁸.

Another employee recounts not only knowing all of the colleagues themselves but also their families, and compares it to today: *“You practically knew everyone within BEG. And of course, if the families came you also knew their families. It was completely different to today. Today it can happen that I am at the summer fair for one hour and don’t meet anyone I know”* (16G)²⁹⁹.

Less cohesion

The interviewees always sound wistful when looking back. The reason for that is what they attribute along with the phenomenon of knowing everyone: For some of the interviewees with the names also some of the caring got lost: *“If you really know everyone it has different effects. For one, there is a great openness, because you know exactly who does what”* (2G)³⁰⁰. Another employee misses the direct contact: *“In the past, I knew everyone here in calibration and project management, and had direct dealings with everyone. And now the whole wing is full of people and I don’t know them anymore”* (13E)³⁰¹. Another interviewee sees the team feeling jeopardized through anonymity: *“Maybe not reaching a goal of 100% and rather paying attention to the appreciative collaboration and always crossing the finish line together. This is more difficult the bigger you get, because it gets more anonymous”* (30G)³⁰². For him, not knowing the people you work with anymore makes you more reckless and less respectful to others.

The lack of cohesion the interviewees perceived is not only due to the growing anonymity, but also to the phenomenon that there are more single groups and BEG is not seen as a unit anymore: *“If there are more people, there is more formation of small groups”* (4E)³⁰³. Also, other employees see the fragmentation of the firm due to the size as a problem:

“I witness that the single divisions within BEG are focused on their selves a lot. There is not much thinking of the BEG as a unit. [...] And now there are a lot of overlaps and intersections, where you also have double development, or fights over projects internally, which is really stupid” (30G)³⁰⁴.

Another group lead also sees as reason the loss of a shared goal for the whole firm: *“The goal to work on projects together is not as important as it used to be. If you are ten software developers, then you have to work with each other, if you are 300 software developers, then it is more important to consider what exactly is my area of work, what is my department’s goal”* (27G)³⁰⁵. The lack of shared goals also leads to looking rather for one’s own small part than caring for the whole. *“If something was screwed up or a mistake happens, then you try to prove that it had nothing to do with the part you did. So, in sum, everyone did the right thing, but nevertheless crap came out in the end, this mentality was not there back then”* (17G)³⁰⁶. Taking care only of one small part and not looking left or right

is diametrically opposed to the values of collaboration, openness and helpfulness.

Less autonomy

For another employee, it was more a question of the autonomy decreasing:

“Back then everyone knew everyone, you were smaller and more familial. Now that is not possible anymore if you have 1,000 people, obviously. But my feeling is that people are hiding more behind processes and guidelines, behind inflexible structures and there is less autonomy visible” (17G)³⁰⁷.

Interestingly, the employees don't show a unified picture of what size that is accountable for the anonymity and what the limit is. In the previous quotation, 1,000 employees were definitely the limit. The group lead who recounted inviting everyone to the debut party thought of 200 employees (2G), the group lead recounting the summer fair with the families of 50 to 250 people. But two other employees remember their starting times when there were 1,000 employees, when it was less anonymous. One said: *“When I started, there were just below 1,000 employees. Of course, I did not know everybody back then but the feeling is that it is even less so with people now” (10E)³⁰⁸*. The other makes a similar statement: *“We grew a lot. I witnessed it being 1,000 employees; I was a student back then. And it got a lot more anonymous, [...] if you go to a department after half a year there are a lot of new faces” (11E)³⁰⁹*. A group lead explains the differing numbers of employees for himself that the percentage of people one knows matters: *“The size we have reached, with the number of employees, and the different regions, it leads to knowing fewer people, of course you know as many people, but percentage-wise it's less” (31G)³¹⁰*.

In conclusion, it can be stated that less anonymity automatically equates with being more familial in the interviewees' eyes. That means that the people feel emotionally closer to each other and also perceive more cohesion. As cohesion is a very high held value in the culture which is linked to the identity of the subsidiary, the interviewees fear that it is falling victim to too much growth.

Less freedom

According to the interviewees, the way of working also changed. Not only is there less “creativity” (12D)³¹¹, a director who has been at the firm almost from the beginning describes the situation now. *“Everything has been defined, I don't have*

to do anything [...] And I often hear that they don't bother about something because they thought that someone else has already thought of it, but that is not exactly the case" (12D)³¹². A group lead has a similar opinion: *"It would be better to not give responsibility to what is written down but to take things in their own hands and contemplate what makes sense and what does not"* (16G)³¹³. The reason for the lack of creativity and being proactive they see in the phenomenon that there is now less participation in form of discussions. A director who had also been in the firm for quite a long time signifies that earlier directors used to have more say in things: *"I think that the co-creation decreased. [...] I have colleagues who were in the management team in 2004 or 2005 when directors still had a say in decisions"* (14D)³¹⁴.

The director from before depicts the change of a yearly event which has always been a forum for discussion:

"BEG-Fall-Progress is now an information event, though it was a discussion round in the past. It was really controversial and often gave a little salt into the soup. And I realize that Mr. President is even today trying to start these kinds of conversations, but is mostly failing. [...] There is no willingness to discuss in such a big round anymore" (12D)³¹⁵.

He also concedes that it is unsurprising that not every topic can be discussed with everyone anymore if you are 1,500 people. A group lead describes the time in 2009, when he changed divisions within BEG:

"I came as a group lead to the division XY [...] which has always been a debating club. In the management rounds, often the same topics were discussed over and over again, and the topics were always talked out. The former leading director had always listened to other opinions. Then the panel made a decision and pursued it, but sometimes it had also opened up for discussion again. It was very participatory" (27G)³¹⁶.

He then compares it to today's leading director: *"Mr. Now-Leading-Director makes the decisions in his office"* (27G)³¹⁷. Interestingly, it is particularly the first two management levels that have been noticing this change and dislike it. This was not so much a topic of the regular employees. The participation and having a say in decisions is another manifestation of the cultural values of freedom to operate and appreciation, which are linked to the aspects of caring and entrepreneurial thinking of the identity. Listening to someone's opinion is another way of appreciating them.

An aspect linked with the perception of lesser freedom is the feeling that the culture has become more careful: *“There are not as many escapades anymore, because we have become particularly careful”* (31G)³¹⁸. Another group lead describes it as:

“Less flexible and more careful. Back then we had three customer projects. If we made a mistake back then, then we fixed it in these three projects. Today we have 300 customer projects. If we make a mistake here, we have a huge problem on our hands. I feel that we are becoming more careful, more restrained” (17G)³¹⁹.

Another group lead describes working back then as working *“with more freedom and with a looser leash”* (16G)³²⁰. A female director ascribes this to the bigger responsibility the firm has now: *“It works well with 30 people, but you can’t just try something out with 2,000. Those people’s financial security depends on what I am trying out there”* (7D)³²¹. The employees see this as a severe blow for the culture because these values of freedom and risk-taking directly affect the identity of unruliness.

Conclusion

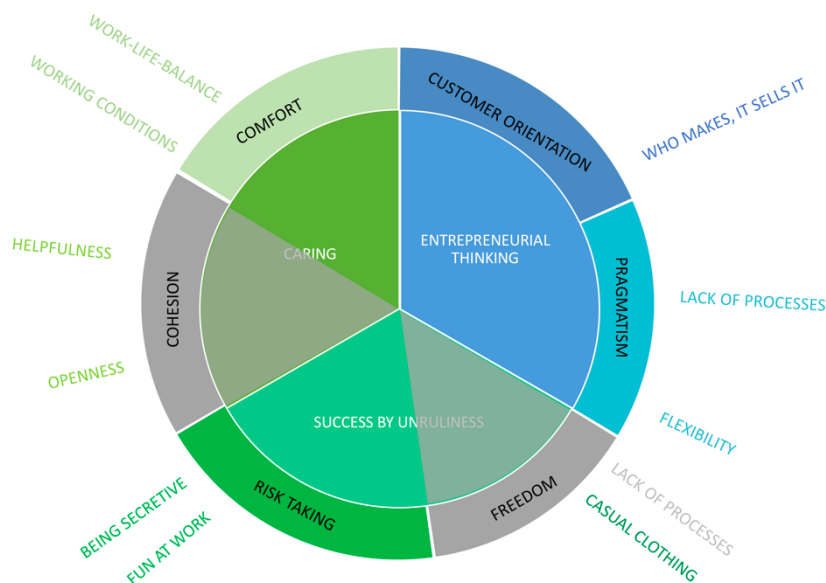


Figure 36: Affected aspects of culture and identity through change.

Figure 36 shows the impacts the changes in the manifestations have. They directly link to the values of organisational culture and organisational identity. In the interviews, a lot of employees expressed the feeling that they somehow perceived the decline of the BEG spirit, BEG’s special way of dealing with things, of treating each other. They felt an increase of anonymity which had in their eyes a direct impact on the cultural value *Cohesion*. Comparing it to the earlier days they felt that it was not as friendly as it used to be. *Cohesion*, being a strong cultural value

has a direct impact on the third identity value *Caring*. Also, they felt that they were not able to make decisions on their own anymore, which had a direct impact on their perception of how free they were. The cultural value freedom is directly related to the unruliness part of the organisational identity, and the change was not seen as something good by the employees because it affected their organisational identity.

7.2.2.3 Losing distinction

The fear of losing freedom and independence by becoming more and more controlled by the parent company is omnipresent: *“I have the feeling that we become more and more aligned with the big Bosch”* (17G)³²². The interviewees ascribe this due to the success and the affiliated growth.

“The employee number again tripled. We became more like Bosch. You can notice that we also became closer to the parent company divisions. Maybe the size requires it. If you get more and more people, then you need to adjust organisational structures” (33E)³²³.

A female director who was quite new to the firm coming from the parent company headquarters had a similar opinion: *“I feel that we are moving towards the parent company division. You need more structures. I think we are at the crossroads now: Are we still a small unit? What can I keep from the past? What do I need regarding new structures?”* (7D)³²⁴. In the earlier days, the parent company was not as interested in the subsidiary. The subsidiary is now both successful and big in size, and now the headquarters has certain requirements:

“We have to be process-compatible and there are these requirements from the headquarters, which we have to fulfil, [...] for example a compliance training or [...]. Fifteen years ago, that did not happen, we were too small, no one noticed us, we weren't even stroke width on the statistics of a headquarter department and could fly under the radar. This is not possible with today's size anymore” (14D)³²⁵.

Size and success make it impossible to be as free as the subsidiary used to be when it was just seen as an *“experiment”* (6L)³²⁶. The following chapter deals with the aspects that changed in order to become more like Bosch and the implications. The distinction from Bosch is always a very important part of the identity, which will be described in more detail in Chapter 7.3.

A name changer

Changing the name from ASSET to a name that had Bosch in it was a big deal for the employees: *“Back then it was a real big leap when we got renamed into*

Bosch Engineering" (14D)³²⁷. One interviewee also describes it as abruptly: *"Suddenly we weren't called ASSET anymore, but Bosch Engineering. That was something that made us feel bigger, but the culture was not really changing just because of the name, though I had a feeling it did"* (30G)³²⁸. He then explains the feelings he had after the change, that it was ambivalent:

"There were mixed feelings. The name ASSET you always had to explain if someone among your acquaintances asked, [...] Afterwards, you just said, I work with Bosch or Bosch Engineering and that meant something to everyone. As you see it in the employee surveys, everyone is somehow proud to work with Bosch" (30G)³²⁹.

Another group lead explains that the change of the name also meant a lot more Bosch and less own identity for him:

"Back then, it was more 'We are different', especially with the name ASSET. We have another name, we are situated somewhere else, in Tamm. Today we are here in Abstatt, where also another [Bosch business unit] sits. This is why I have the feeling that in the past it was more like, 'We are not Bosch', we do have the advantages of Bosch, we belong to the Bosch group, but we are more an autonomous unit. And I have the feeling, that it is not just like that anymore" (31G)³³⁰.

A leading director of the first days of the firm also described the mixed feelings he witnessed among his associates after the name had been changed. For him, it was also a feeling of giving something up: *"There was one colleague who said, 'I see, the experiment is over'."* (6L)³³¹. He proceeded saying that the firm was given a different name at the beginning quite deliberately.

"We tried in the starting time to position the subsidiary of Bosch optically as far away as possible from the Bosch brand. An own name; another colour concept, [...]. We grew very fast and got very profitable as well. And then happened, what often happens with Bosch; [...] after the experiment was over, then the Bosch group steps in. This was admittedly for those, who wanted to found an own company and make it successful, a little frustrating because we saw that we would be getting under Bosch's thumb" (6L)³³².

Less independence

The loss of independence is another fear the interviewees perceived. The leading director from before describes that at some point there was just a consideration: *"Of course, we started to show an independent solution, and also a solution that works differently, more adapted to the market"* (6L)³³³. He then continues that this changed because of practical considerations: *"Lastly, independence without success yields nothing; success without independence still yields something"* (6L)³³⁴. In his eyes, it was for the better. Another interviewee sees it differently. He thinks that the firm has taken the easy way: *"We always look, how does Bosch do it, and then we do it alike."* (31G)³³⁵. He proceeds that the firm has willingly given up

the independence: *“And you have the feeling that the steering today is coming from Bosch headquarter”* (31G)³³⁶.

Losing identity

The phenomenon that the subsidiary was a start-up within a large corporation always was part of the self-conception of the organisation. A fear is also that BEG is becoming less distinct, and only just another Bosch business unit: *“Now with the organisation size of 1,800 employees we have the size, with which you can’t call it a garage firm anymore, where everyone knows everybody and knows what he does. We are far beyond this. Now, this is the business unit scale”* (8D)³³⁷. Another director thought the combination between start-up and big corporation as appealing: *“Back then you read the papers, and there was an advertisement of the former Asset, which was attractive for me because it was some kind of a start-up within the large corporation”* (14D)³³⁸. The risk-taking and unruliness, which is a great deal of the identity, seems less: *“We were a small firm that does special projects that no one else does, and we don’t always follow the process. That is not possible anymore if you have to report to the headquarters”* (31G)³³⁹. A department director puts it on a more general level. *“Of course, the question is, how Boschy are our rules. If I accept everything from the business units I am not BEG anymore, then BEG is just in different clothes with a different age and a different name”* (7D)³⁴⁰.

Conclusion

The employees feel that they are getting closer to the parent company. In this case, there is not only a certain value affected but rather a general feeling of losing distinction. This is also a change they see coming, and here it becomes clear that distinction is a very important part of their identity. Feeling that they share a name, which is a loss of independence from the parent company is a threat to them; a threat to their organisational identity.

7.2.3 Strategies for dealing with change

7.2.3.1 Nostalgia

There are certain strategies employees use to cope with change. The first strategy applied is nostalgia, the wistful feeling that everything was better in the past.

The second describes the overly loyal middle management and their strong reluctance to all kinds of change resulting in depression, and the third refers to the acceptance of the life cycle of the organisation. This will be especially important, since the life cycle metaphor is a conceptually important theme of this project and will be closer elaborated in chapter 9. Nostalgia was the first strategy applied. Those who witnessed the old times call it ASSET-nostalgia: *"Of course, we talk a lot about the ASSET nostalgia, and how the BEG culture changed over the years. Of course, it is inevitable that a firm that is growing develops in a different direction"* (14D)³⁴¹. What often was named in one breath with the golden times back then was the euphoric mood: *"Just the atmosphere of departure was great back then. It was different from Bosch right from the start"* (30G)³⁴². Another group lead mentions this euphoria: *"It was a really sworn-in community. The early times were shaped by a pioneer spirit"* (16G)³⁴³. Another group lead describes it as the best of both worlds: *"On the one hand, you were backed up by Bosch; on the other hand, you were a pioneer in a lot of aspects"* (2G)³⁴⁴.

Interestingly, some of them were even nostalgic for a time they had not really witnessed themselves: *"If you hear the old warhorses talk, [...] if they tell how it was back then, when the firm was smaller, you get a little wistful"* (15E)³⁴⁵. This interviewee had only been with the firm for four years but imagines the times back in the early days as simpler and more direct: *"I heard from the older colleagues who are not all still with the company, that you just drove around with the car and talked. [...] That you had more direct contact"* (15E)³⁴⁶. Another employee also said: *"I have been here now for four years, but I can see that it was better in the past"* (18E)³⁴⁷. Here, he mentions the 'pioneer spirit'. What is responsible for this 'unwitnessed' nostalgia is particularly the old colleagues who tell the stories: *"They were a bit like the young and wild, this is what you learned from the more experienced colleagues already in the training phase. It was indeed a young wild bunch"* (23E)³⁴⁸. If asked which stories they had heard, it was stories of simplicity and fun, like having pizza instead of a big Christmas party (16G) or getting pop-sicles for everyone on the balcony (5E), or exotic dancers at a summer fair (16G, 1P). It becomes clear that the stories which are told within the organisation have an important culture shaping aspect, both for internals and externals, because they let the culture live on, even if through nostalgia. These stories are explained in more detail in chapter 8, as it becomes clear that the stories are not only a

looking glass, but also help transmit culture and identity and thus enable the socialization to the company.

7.2.3.2 The middle management depression

That the strong nostalgia was transferred even to those who were not there at the beginning, is salient in the interviews. *"There are these men of the first hour who hold up the flag"* (7D)³⁴⁹. From those interviewed there were also some pioneers amongst them: Eight of the interviewees had been working for the firm for over ten years, which means they were there also in the early days of the firm. One was a regular employee, but most of them are now in some management levels; with two directors and one leading director who is directly under the president. Interestingly three of the four group leads started directly after graduation (16G, 27G, 2G); so-called home-grown talents who had not seen anything other than BEG. Looking at the analysis, they identified the strongest with the culture and the firm and were the proudest to work there (27G, 2G), and also the most reluctant to change (16G). They were not managers who came to the firm just as one step in their career to leave it after a couple of years, but could even imagine growing old with the firm (16G). Their position in the middle management gives them a special role. On the one hand, they do not have as much of say in decision as directors and leading directors, but they have more direct contact to their associates than the upper management levels and are also often seen as a role model. This means that their stories are perceived as the most authentic and considered true. If they feel that the culture is changing for the worse, then their subordinated employees will soon think the same; similar to the directors, albeit in a weakened form. It is imperative to secure that they feel satisfied and optimistic within their firm because of their special role. This will be explained more closely in chapter 9.4.3.

7.2.3.3 Accepting the life cycle

Rather than being nostalgic, some employees found a way to accept the change as natural, relating it to a life cycle similar to a person starting at early childhood, going over adolescence and young adulthood towards late adulthood. The interviewees often used the term growing up. For one interviewee, growing up meant becoming Bosch: *"I think it also has something to do with this whole, how I should put this, growing up or Bosch structures to do"* (24E)³⁵⁰. Also, a director mentioned

that he felt the firm was growing up: *“What I can see here is that we have left the puberty phase, I mean we now are a division with 250 employees, we have tidied up processes, and have a stiff mechanism”* (8D)³⁵¹. So, for him growing up means being settled and having a structure and rules to follow, losing the identity of unruliness.

Another interviewee also mentioned the different phases the organisation underwent. *“On the other hand, we have the topic that we are growing as a BEG, with which we struggle a little bit. Maybe it is normal, and I would call it growing up”* (17G)³⁵². He thereby relates to a presentation one director had given as a retrospective of his years with the firm. This director also drew the connection to a life cycle:

“Mr. Director said, [...] that there are these different stages from child, youth or puberty and adulthood. I think he described us as grown up. But I don’t agree, I think we are still in our development and this is the reason we are still making mistakes and are changing” (17G)³⁵³.

This would mean that different phases require different values and the culture and identity are not standing still. The organisational life cycle phenomenon will be also analysed more elaborately in chapter 9 and will be linked to the conceptual metaphor of the research project that links all aspects of Employee Advocacy, the Organisational Life Story.

7.2.4 Conclusion

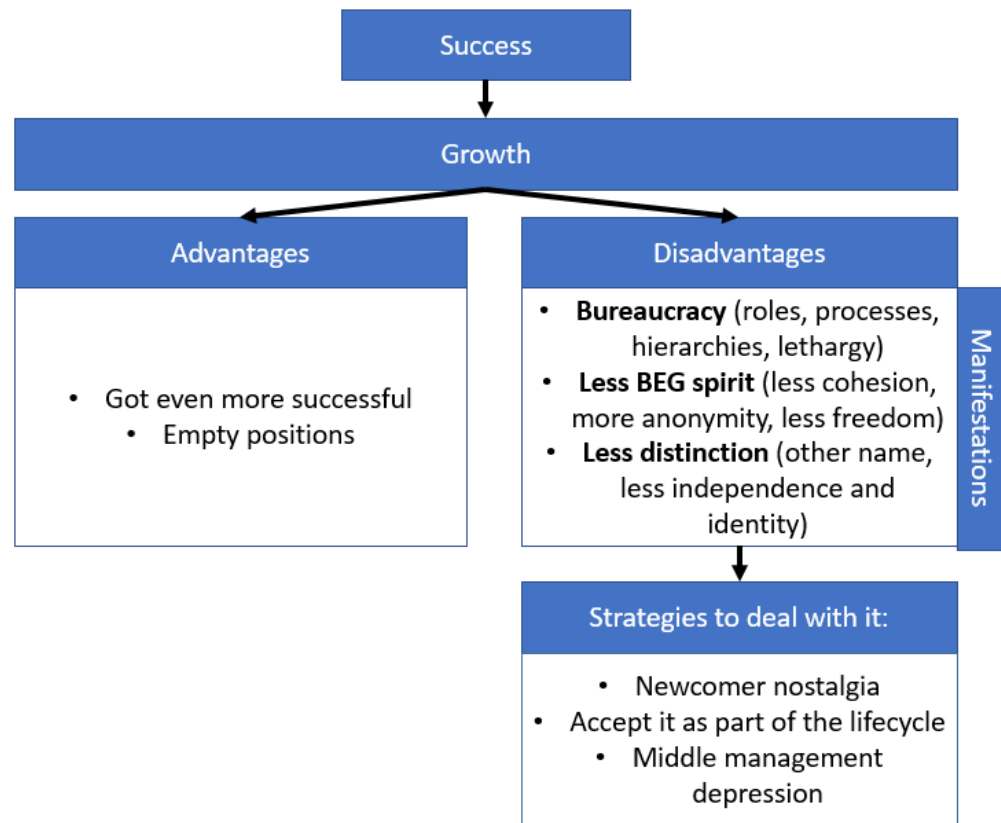


Figure 37: Aspects of change and the strategies to deal with it, based on the findings.

The first interlinking theme is change, which is mostly ascribed to the growth that took place since the firm grew from 13 employees to 2,000 within fifteen years. Figure 37 shows the reason for change, the growth, and the advantages and disadvantages of it, as well as the strategies that employees use to deal with it. The growth was mostly due to the great success the firm had with its projects, and next to its upsides like high revenues and good bonuses, the interviewees also perceived some downsides, such as more bureaucracy which was manifested in roles, processes, hierarchies. As an effect, the firm got slower and more lethargic. Another disadvantage the employees perceived was the decline of the BEG spirit; the cohesion diminished due to anonymity and less freedom. The last disadvantage was the lesser distinction from the parent company which came due to the other name and leading to less independence and the loss of an own identity. The change was perceived as threatening because it directly affected the core identity of the organisation, the unruliness, the entrepreneurial thinking and also the caring.

There were three different strategies found: The newcomer nostalgia, which meant that even the new ones looked back wistfully to the old times; the middle management depression, which meant that the middle management was although most loyal and identified due to its long tenure, the most reluctant to the change; and the acceptance of the change as part of a natural life cycle. Looking at Albert and Whetten's (1985) definition of organisational identity, it becomes apparent that the three aspects of identity: Centrality, distinctiveness and stability are interrelated, which means that the values that are central are only so if they are distinctive, and that the employees are most reluctant to change if the distinctiveness is in danger. The organisational identity becomes weaker with change if some of the distinctive values become weaker.

7.3 Distinction and belonging

7.3.1 *The root of distinction*

In the following chapter, the subsidiary's desire for distinction from the parent company is going to be analysed. Like change, this was also a common thread that went through all of the interviews. There was a constant comparison to the parent company and a meticulous dissection of similarities and differences. The president got to the heart of it: *"We have an own culture, I'd say. We have things that aren't there with Bosch"* (1P)³⁵⁴. The interviewees drew their comparisons either from their previous experiences at other Bosch business units. Thirteen of the interviewees had already spent some time at other business units or subsidiaries before they came to BEG, some as student workers (e.g. 2G, 26E, 32E); others for years (e.g. 21E was eight years at Bosch, 8L, 6L, 8D and 12D over ten years, 22E was six years at corporate research, 11E was three years at Bosch). Two of them (20D and 17G) had even previously worked for BEG, transferred to the parent company and come back after a few years. They had either seen multiple different business units (e.g. 8D had seen three before he came to BEG), or just one (e.g. 22E, 12D). Other employees, who had no previous experience with working at another business unit, drew their comparison from their common projects. At BEG it is not uncommon that there are joint projects between the subsidiary and other automotive business units from the parent company; either the BEG employees work as temporary staff at the other business unit or the employees meet regularly for status alignments.

These differences were mostly expressed either in what the subsidiary does better or what the parent company does worse. To deal with the distinction the employees used three strategies: Seeing themselves as (1) unwanted children of the almighty mother (2) *Enfants Terribles*, or (3), not so different from Bosch after all.

7.3.2 *Hybris – BEG is better*

7.3.2.1 More successful

The first aspect in which the differences were expressed was statements that said the subsidiary was better than the parent company and its business units. These differences referred to the success of the firm, the better culture and the better jobs it offers. In this chapter, it becomes clear that there is a constant re-negotiation of what is different and what is similar, which seems very defining for the organisational identity of the employees and goes along with (Tajfel and Turner, 1986) who postulated distinctiveness could only be reached through comparison.

There is a general conception that the BEG's approach to the market is better than the one of Bosch. One director thinks this comes mostly because of the motivation and dedication of the employees. He describes how his team was successful in the early days of the subsidiary: *"They realized things which I wouldn't have dared to tackle in the past with the whole business unit team. And we were successful in every project, only thanks to the motivation and dedication of the employees"* (12D)³⁵⁵. He here draws a direct comparison to his experiences in the business unit, where he had spent the prior eleven years. A female employee also directly expresses that they are more successful because of them being different and also more confident. She describes the situation of snagging projects from the parent company:

"We like to say, okay, let's do this project, even though the business unit would also like to do it, but we have the competence to bundle projects, and this is something the other business units can't do. So in the end, we are doing both projects. That's confident" (13E)³⁵⁶.

Being confident enough to trust oneself with doing two projects better than the parent company would do one is here seen as helping the success and a factor that sets the subsidiary apart.

More entrepreneurial

Other interviewees took as a differentiating element the fact that BEG thinks more entrepreneurially than other business units. In chapter 6.4, it has already been stated that entrepreneurial thinking is one of the three identity values. A leading director directs this back to the early times of the firm, and at the same time draws the comparison to the business unit where he was a director:

"If you are in the situation where it is more important to monetize things in order to pay the salaries for the families, because this is the ultimate purpose, then it's less important to just develop great solutions and impress someone with those. This was a learning experience for me from my function as director in the other business unit" (6L)³⁵⁷.

He sees the pressure that was lying on the firm to make profit as the reason for the higher entrepreneurial thinking and admits that even though he was in a leading position in the parent company, he did not feel this kind of pressure.

A director puts the focus more on the awareness of the individual contribution: *"Where every employee feels, gosh, what is my contribution to the company profit, to the BEG success? This is a thing I have experienced in no business unit before" (8D)³⁵⁸.* He says that with the fullest conviction, even though he has already seen three other Bosch business units. Interestingly, even if employees have only seen one other business unit than BEG they often make blanket statements about 'all the other business units'. This is a sign that the comparison serves more as a function of identity confirmation than an objective assessment.

More profit oriented

The profit orientation is one manifestation of the entrepreneurial thinking. This can be noticed in the high prices that the subsidiary demands: *"One colleague once said, BEG is Bosch in excellence and super expensive prices." (3E)³⁵⁹.* A leading director relates the profit orientation also to knowing what they are worth: *"We don't want to be cheap suppliers, we want to produce valuable products which have an appropriate value in the market" (9L)³⁶⁰.* One employee ascribes this to the greater immediacy at BEG in comparison to the other business units: *"[At the parent company], there were long-running projects, projects with big component sells. And you did not know what it all cost, it just took forever" (23E)³⁶¹.* He attributes the lack of entrepreneurial thinking simply to the fact that it was not

even clear how much revenue the project generated or to whom it was sold. Similarly, immediacy is also something a female director points out: *"Here, it is more natural. Here, I know I want to make this kind of profit and so I have to realize it with my team"* (20D)³⁶². An other aspect of this is the identification with the project itself. The leading director compares the implicitness of the profit orientation to central division, where this is anything but implicit: *"Here, it is asked really quickly how we can get profit out of this. Something which is absolutely bizarre to me, that some representatives of the management board at the parent company are alleging BEG is a gold digger"* (6L)³⁶³. For him, it is completely incomprehensible that the entrepreneurial thinking could be seen as something bad.

More customer oriented

The second manifestation of the entrepreneurial thinking is the customer orientation, which is perceived as remarkably higher at BEG than at other business units. A female director puts it in a nutshell: *"The subject of customer orientation and entrepreneurial thinking in my experience in comparison to other business units is strongest at BEG"* (20D)³⁶⁴. She thinks this is rooted in the different relationships to the customer. Whereas at BEG closeness to the customer is the key to success, she perceives that there is a lot more distance from the customer at the parent company: *"The collaboration with the customer is in a lot of cases closer than in the business unit. [...] They know if they don't have good cooperation there won't be any succeeding projects"* (20D)³⁶⁵. Whereas at the other business unit there is a different picture in her eyes: *"The distance from the customer is so large that they won't even sense the customer satisfaction anymore"* (20D)³⁶⁶. The closeness also leads to the phenomenon that the customer trusts BEG more and is also willing to accept higher prices: *"I have the feeling that the BEG project leads are more experienced in communicating prices"* (20D)³⁶⁷. Another leading director with huge previous experience at Bosch business units has the same opinion: *"In all the contacts I had with BEG and the customers, I always noticed that it came naturally for BEG to make the offers plausible to the customer."* (9L)³⁶⁸. This is due to the phenomenon that the employees feel closer to the customer and communicate more directly, so they get more trust than the Bosch colleagues and can thereby demand higher prices, which makes them more successful in the end.

7.3.2.2 Stronger values

The employees relate to two of the aspects of the identity to emphasize that the culture is different: to the caring aspect by stressing the cohesion, and to the unruliness by stressing that risk-taking is more visible at the subsidiary.

More cohesion

Cohesion is a factor that is very special at BEG for the employees. One employee describes it as a reason for him to stay at BEG and to leave his former business unit: *“I think the collaboration within the team is special; I would not have wanted to work at [the other business unit] any longer, because it was so anonymous”* (4E)³⁶⁹. Another employee directly contrasts the helpfulness and openness at BEG, one of the most important factors of the cohesion, to the presence of these values at other business units: *“At BEG I experience a remarkably higher helpfulness between other employees than at other business units”* (2G)³⁷⁰. He relies for the comparison on his master’s thesis time, which he spent at another Bosch business unit.

“The openness at BEG between the employees is still really salient. I think that is something really nice. If I approach someone [at other business units], who I don’t know with a question about his field, it’s not normal that he will bother with me and takes the time. At BEG this will happen most of the time” (2G)³⁷¹.

Another employee pins his feeling of more cohesion rather to the fact that the shared goal is more palpable at BEG than at other business units:

“Compared with the other business units, I think at BEG you don’t just think of yourself. This is another distinction from Bosch. [...] Here, it was always more of [...] looking that the project will go into production successfully and part of this is looking to left and right” (30G)³⁷².

Another interviewee compares the shared goal directly to other business units of the parent company: *“It feels more like pulling together to reach the goal, and [at other business units] it was more of going one’s own way. This really sets BEG apart”* (23E)³⁷³. The cohesion for the employees is shaped by openness, helpfulness and the application of these traits in pursuing a shared goal, without looking only for one’s own advantage. These are traits they find special within BEG and miss with other business units.

More risk-taking

Another value that is shaping the culture is the willingness to take risks, which is perceived higher than at Bosch. The president sees this as a crucial difference: *“The acceptance of risk, I think, is at BEG higher in principle. To have the guts to try something out. ‘Let’s don’t do this’ – you will hear this sentence more rarely here than at Bosch”* (1P)³⁷⁴. One group lead ascribes this to the phenomenon that there are lesser consequences at BEG than there are with Bosch: *“A company with 100,000 developers can’t afford to do happy engineering. The risk acceptance at Bosch is in my eyes [...] really low, in comparison to us”* (17G)³⁷⁵. For him, risk acceptance is a high value and is also something that can only exist with high competence. He describes this with a concrete example: *“I can remember some discussions with the other business unit, where they said, ‘Are you crazy, you can’t release the data set on the basis of only four vehicle tests’. And then I have to say, ‘Yes, I can’.”* (17G)³⁷⁶ He then proceeds recounting that in the meantime Bosch accepted this number as also valid for them. The risk acceptance is also an important value already mentioned in chapter 6.3.3.6.

More freedom and fewer rules

Another important manifestation of the differences between the business units and BEG is the perceived freedom. Freedom here always equals fewer rules and restrictions. The president describes the phenomenon with an example that compares Bosch with BEG: *“At BEG, we try right at the outset to avoid strict guidelines but leave a little freedom to bring in new aspects. [...] At Bosch, an engineer is not allowed to work in any way directly with the car; here we encourage people, to work at the car”* (1P)³⁷⁷. With this example, he points to the rule that at Bosch only calibration engineers are allowed to install software on the car and run tests while driving. This rule is not as strict at BEG. A group lead with a past at the parent company also hints at this phenomenon: *“If you are working with one of the business units, your sphere of influence is a lot more limited. I think you have a lot more liberties here if you really want to pursue a topic and put energy in”* (27G)³⁷⁸. The example he gives refers to the phenomenon that it was often hinted that at BEG you can choose your task yourself, whereas at other business units you are just a small cogwheel with your allocated task. Another group lead goes into a different direction by saying:

"I really like with BEG, that if you are successful you can really move things and create something new. A lot of new projects and ideas were realized just because employees went the extra mile, because they believed in it, and got the opportunity to pursue it. I like that. In other places at Bosch, there are a lot more restrictions" (2G)³⁷⁹.

The two employees agree that freedom furthers new ideas, which is a special quality at BEG and has made it successful.

7.3.2.3 Better jobs

Another interesting aspect of the distinction dimension is the phenomenon that the interviewees generally believe that they have better jobs than people at other business units, relating to comfort as a cultural value of the caring value in the identity. They ascribe this assumption to two facts: They drive the nicer cars, and they have more varied and interesting projects than the other business units.

Nicer cars

The perception that they have the cooler job is mostly drawn from the phenomenon of being able to drive the nicer cars with more horsepower and more prestige. Two employees explain this by describing how they saw the BEG, when they were still at Bosch: *"I was here at the site when I was at this other Bosch division. And they were special over there and had the greater cars, and actually this was the reason I learned that the BEG even existed and I looked at the job board" (26E)³⁸⁰*. Another employee describes a similar feeling: *"You see your change in perspective when you look at the more powerful cars with other requirements that you did not know as an outsider who only did standard projects" (23E)³⁸¹*. The different cars are not only cooler to drive and have more prestige, but they also have higher requirements and need a more skilled worker. So the job is not only more fun, but also more challenging.

One leading director points out that the cars are not only in general better, he also hints at the sheer quantity of different sports cars: *"What attracts the employees and fascinates them are the topics we work on. We have a clear automotive focus, and a large number of not bog-standard cars, is remarkably higher than in other Bosch business units" (9L)³⁸²*. But not only high-priced sports cars are interesting to the employees: The phenomenon that they are dealing with small batches is also important to one employee: *"The customers are also often small firms with small batches and we have to be flexible and fast. [...] And the fact that*

we can develop together with them only works because BEG is smaller than Bosch. This is what makes it exciting” (21E)³⁸³. A challenging job that is also fun with great cars makes the firm special and better than other Bosch business units in the eyes of the interviewees.

More different projects

Another aspect that makes the job at BEG better than at another business unit is the fact that the projects are smaller, which also makes them shorter in duration and gives the employees the opportunity to see more projects in a shorter period of time.

“What sets BEG apart is the shorter project duration than in other business units, [...] where you are busy with a certain topic and stick with it, [...], and in the end, you always do the same with the same product [...]. At BEG I have finished one project within two, three maybe five years, but then comes something new” (25E)³⁸⁴.

Another employee also describes the projects as rich in variety. He transferred from another business unit to BEG and points out what was different to him: *“I heard of, and also saw it for myself, the variety of small topics you can work on; and not only three gigantic projects that you are cleaved to for four years, but that you can change your task more flexibly and further develop” (23E)³⁸⁵. For him, the nature of the projects had also the advantage that it would further the development of his career.*

What was also an advantage of more but smaller projects was the phenomenon that there are more new and innovative technologies: *“You could also advance in new areas, small batches with new and innovative technologies, which a Bosch business unit in this breadth does not cover. And there is always a lot of innovation and new stuff to it” (2G)³⁸⁶. Another employee sees the advantages in the richer experiences and bigger networks the different projects yield: *“If you have been at BEG for a long time, then it means that you have seen a lot of projects and met a lot of people. The network is bigger, you notice it, if you are on the road with colleagues” (22E)³⁸⁷. Interestingly, the employees perceive their jobs as even better when they have the direct comparison to other business units. Not only what is better, but also what is worse was part of the ongoing comparison with Bosch. The next chapter is going to describe what is worse.**

7.3.3 *Hybris - Bosch is worse*

7.3.3.1 More bureaucracy

The first aspect of the supposedly worse culture at the parent company is the perceived greater bureaucracy. This manifests in more hierarchies and more inertia. One interviewee subsumes the difference between the subsidiary and the parent company under the following words: *"I think we are just a little less like a governing authority,"* (24E)³⁸⁸ – than the parent company. Here, it becomes clear that what he likes about the subsidiary is that it is less like a public authority, which is known for its tardiness and stiff structures.

More hierarchy

The subsidiary employees were very keen on their perception that at the parent company there were more hierarchies which were also more noticeable in the direct contact. A leading director high in the hierarchy at the subsidiary himself describes it in a nutshell: *"The informal hurdles are really low; the perceived hierarchy is extremely flat. There is a different picture if I am at the other units at other sites"* (6L)³⁸⁹. A regular employee has a similar opinion and directly compares the levels of hierarchies of BEG and the other business units.

"I think there is just more of it, because at BEG, here is Mr. President at the top and that's it, and at [the other business unit], there is also a general manager, [...] and also the division chairman above that, and so on, they sit in another building and it's also just larger" (28E)³⁹⁰.

Another aspect of the greater number of hierarchy levels is how certain managers conduct themselves. The subsidiary employees have the feeling that they are also more arrogant and look down on employees lower in rank. One employee on the first management level describes the differences between BEG and the other business units:

"If you need something from Mr. President, you can go to his office and talk to him. [...] I did not witness this with Bosch in the different management levels; not even with the director. I think this is a clear difference, being this kind of approachable for employees of every level" (27G)³⁹¹.

Another employee also uses the word approachable in describing the differences between the managers at other business units and the BEG and depicts a similar example:

"I think Mr. President still achieves being very approachable. If you meet him at lunch, he would sit next to you and talk to you. I think this cannot be taken for granted at the big Bosch. You experience the managers as eminences, rather than approachable or kind. And for example, at the info circle the managers are always somehow jolly and normal and not aloof" (30G)³⁹².

A director describes it as "hierarchy arrogance. [...] I have reached the status A or group lead and now it is important to me to represent it. I don't think that we do this to the same extent as I know it from other business units" (12D)³⁹³.

Belief in authority

The different conduct the managers at the business units display might also be the reason why the subsidiary employees think that the employees of the other business units have a stronger belief in authority. The president describes the BEG employees as easier going, which is not always well received:

"BEG employees at Bosch have a more casual appearance than parent company employees. Which is not always good, there some strongly mannered areas such as the headquarters where you act this way, wear this and don't do that. BEG employees there make a spectacle of themselves if they approach someone totally casual. And afterwards they are told off, this is Mr. Whatsit, you can't just talk to him. The power distance that is required there, the BEG employee don't have" (1P)³⁹⁴.

A female employee takes the similar example from above with Mr. President to describe the difference between Bosch and the subsidiary. She also sees the belief in the authorities higher at other business units: *"At Bosch, how should I put this, they respect certain hierarchies more. A division lead may be a little farther away than at BEG, where you just knock on Mr. President's door" (28E)³⁹⁵.*

A director uses a similar term to compare his role and behaviour with a director at another business unit: *"Bosch is more believing in authorities. I think a director at Bosch would not talk as critically about his firm as I am doing in this interview" (14D)³⁹⁶.* Here, the director also hints at liberties he has at BEG such as the less

strict adherence to rules common at the subsidiary. For him, the employees at the subsidiary are more rebellious than at the business units and would also revolt more if something did not fit their conviction, according to the motto of unruliness.

A leading director has a similar picture: *"In other business units, information is communicated top down, there is a reasoning given and people accept it. People adapt themselves to the decisions. At BEG everyone thinks he is allowed to give his opinion and have a say in it" (9L)³⁹⁷.* The behaviour of questioning things and participating in decisions is also discussed in chapter 7.2.2.2, and is linked to unruliness and entrepreneurial thinking as two important identity values.

More inertia

Another manifestation of the greater presence of bureaucracy is the inertia that comes with it. Inertia is shown not only within the time frame of the projects, but it can also be seen in the way decisions are made. A director compares the different decision paths: *"I think here the autonomy is greater and the decision paths are shorter. You can realize things faster, even now that we are bigger than ten years ago"* (14D)³⁹⁸. The increasing inertia was something that worried the employees. A female director directly compares the way of working to the headquarters: *"I noticed that here everything is spontaneous, short-term, less planned, less structured. I came from the headquarters, where you plan a lot and have a lot of structure, insofar this is a strong difference"* (7D)³⁹⁹. Here, the aspects of structure are new. The structure that comes with the plans makes things slower and more long-term oriented. Another female director ascribes the inertia to the above mentioned hierarchic structures: *"Of course, power and position play a role. I have witnessed it in the other business units of the parent company, that some people despite a decline in revenue and other changes of circumstances could not adapt to the situation"* (20D)⁴⁰⁰. In her eyes, this made the business unit less successful in the long run.

7.3.3.2 Conservatism

Another value of the parent company that is strongly disapproved by the employees of the subsidiary is its conservatism. The employees of the subsidiary sense that conservatism in what they consider snootiness in the more formal behaviour of the employees of other business units. They ascribe it to the perception that those employees are, in general, older.

Snootiness

Snootiness does, for example, manifest in the behaviour of the managers at the other business units, who might not even talk to the regular employees: *"I sat two years in the office of the director at the other business unit and the department director never spoke one word to me in the whole two years"* (27G)⁴⁰¹. A leading director uses the term arrogance referring to business unit employees twice in his interview: *"At Bosch they try, with all their arrogance and snootiness, to concentrate on the customer, but don't know anything about contract design"* (6L)⁴⁰². In

his eyes, the behaviour of arrogance is not justified because the results of the employees there are not better than those of the subsidiary.

Another employee mentions arrogance only implicitly, because of the perception he had when he was with another business unit. Back then he and his colleagues had the assumption that the BEG employees did not take their job seriously: *"For example if someone drifted on the area, you thought, oh look, a BEG employee, always having fun but never working"* (23E)⁴⁰³. This statement might be rooted in the perception that driving the great cars was only fun and also caused a bit of envy. A group lead recounts that the BEG *"used to be not on the same eye level"* (27G)⁴⁰⁴ as Bosch. The snootiness and the associated looking down of the Bosch employees may have led to a reactive displacement activity and furthered the cherishing of unruliness and being young and wild by the BEGler.

More formal

The other consequence of more hierarchy is being more formal. Whereas the employees of the subsidiary are proud that they are easy going and dispense with status, they notice a lot of formality at the parent company. The leading director from the early days of the firm describes the differences: *"The posture of the parent company is different; there is more formality, more awareness of hierarchy"* (6L)⁴⁰⁵. A female director makes the direct comparison: *"It's a bit more formal. I just received the feedback of young interns, that they would rather work in a company where it's a little casual and where it goes without saying to address someone informally with 'Du'"* (20D)⁴⁰⁶. For her, easygoingness and disregard of status, which is expressed by addressing people informally with 'Du', is a desirable status and makes the employer attractive. Being stiff and overly formal, as other business units are, is not wanted. The other business units are more antiquated and not as appealing.

Older

The higher formality at Bosch comes because of the greater importance of hierarchies. But there is another factor the interviewees ascribe it to. For some of them, it's the higher average age. The lower average age was for one female employee also the reason that she spent more of her spare time with her BEG colleagues: *"If I compare it to that [other business unit], there was the average*

age a lot higher, and we did not have much in common besides work than at BEG" (29E)⁴⁰⁷. Their being older was sometimes also a sign of inertia and a mental immobility. The interviewees had the picture of a typical business unit employee as an office sitter who did not move for decades: *"Where everyone was sitting on their chairs for ten years, and knowing the technology for 20 years and knowing every bit to the left and to the right, forwards and backwards, this wasn't the case with us"* (14D)⁴⁰⁸. Here, expertise is not seen as something positive; quite the contrary. One employee sees that the business unit employees who had the same position for years had less expertise than the BEG employees: *"I think it's a positive thing, because I think that single products get more mature if they are influenced by experience from other projects. This is better than if someone is having the same customer for twenty years"* (23E)⁴⁰⁹. For the employees here, it is not just the age that makes the difference, also the different kinds of experience are important to them.

The distinction from the other business units is very important to the employees. It helps them to evaluate what is good and what is bad in their own culture. By tendency they think everything that is specific for the business unit culture is rather bad, so developed three strategies confiding in the almighty mother, the enfant terrible and the annexation. In the different strategies, the role of BEG as the adversary of the business unit is different.

7.3.4 Strategies for maintaining Identity

7.3.4.1 Underdog to an almighty mother

The BEG has always been in an underdog position, due to the phenomenon that it was not clear at the beginning whether the endeavour would be successful: *"At the beginning, it was not clear whether it would work out, because the automotive manufacturers are used to receiving this service free of charge from Bosch"* (6L)⁴¹⁰. So, it was a risky endeavour at the start and not everyone really believed in the success right from the beginning.

Unwanted child or prodigal son

The trust that Bosch gave them did not go so far as to give them their own name; this came only later with the success - almost like an illegitimate child who is not

allowed to wear the name of the parent. The employees don't show a unified picture of what they think would have happened if they had not been successful. The leading director describes the worst-case-scenario: *"If we had gone bankrupt, we would have been out of work. It was a totally different kind of risk than now with this deep embedding in the Bosch organisation"* (6L)⁴¹¹. He was totally sure that Bosch would have pushed the firm away like an unwanted child. Another employee of those early days sees it differently: *"No one wanted to be incorporated by Bosch, of course, but if there had occurred an existential crisis, we all knew that there was the 'Bosch-net' below us. If we had been wrong, there was the trust that our mother would not have dumped us"* (14D)⁴¹². In this prodigal son analogy, the director is sure that there would have been a coming home in case of a failure.

At the mother's mercy

The feeling, *"without Bosch we would be nothing"* (33E)⁴¹³ was expressed by some of the interviewees. They acknowledged the phenomenon that the parent company was a lot bigger than them: *"No one is able to harm the parent company, it does its job and does its thing. The mindset at BEG is totally different; BEG is always threatened latently"* (14D)⁴¹⁴. This also leads to the insight that Bosch is letting them grow as long as they are good but can always stop the endeavours: *"BEG is always in the shadow of the elephant foot, I am a mouse eating the grass and if the shadow appears, then I have to move"* (14D)⁴¹⁵. Another interviewee puts it quite similarly: *"From the current perspective I see that the business unit tolerates niches, where it senses, gosh, it would not be able to deal with it anyway, [...] and says okay we tolerate BEG"* (8D)⁴¹⁶. In his eyes, the subsidiary is totally at the parent company's mercy. The acceptance of this gives the employees security on the one hand, but on the other hand, also takes away the autonomy. This is a rather contradictory view of the second strategy, which is described in the following section.

7.3.4.2 Enfant terrible

The Enfant terrible strategy is a celebration of being different. This strategy means that the employees pull strength and confidence out of their oddity. This manifests in two aspects; self-glorification and over-confidence, and 'Schadenfreude'.

Overly Self-confident

The self-image of the BEG employees is very confident. This not only comes through the success the firm has, but it is also originated in how this success has been achieved, namely because of a different approach towards things than the parent company did. The employees name certain examples of these different approaches, which also got them admiration from the parent company. One employee calls the BEG the “fire department” (22E)⁴¹⁷ within Bosch: *“They need help, because they can’t manage it. So, our people are thrown into burning projects and have to save the world”* (22E)⁴¹⁸. This attitude describes BEG as a superhero, who has to rescue the parent company with its advanced skills. A leading director describes the firm rather as a customer whisperer who miraculously manages to achieve higher prices with the customer: *“It was a lot easier for the BEG employees to make their offers plausible”* (9L)⁴¹⁹ which was also seen by other business unit employees, as he recounts. Another employee also recounts the phenomenon of BEG-owned ideas adopted by the business units and now rolled out over the whole parent company and wind up at BEG again (25E, 17G). He describes it as harvesting the fruit of the work of the BEG employees and then presenting it as their own work.

Schadenfreude

Another aspect of this strategy is Schadenfreude, which means that the employees gloat about the envy of the parent company employees: *“I interpret it as the envy factor; you get accused of being too expensive, and on the other hand, there is this underlying statement, gosh, you know what you are worth”* (8D)⁴²⁰. By telling this the interviewee expresses both pride and smugness. Another employee mimics the business unit employees by saying: *“Look, there are the BEGler, they think they are something special because they work with the sports cars”* (16G)⁴²¹. He also turns this back to the envy he thinks they have: *“Maybe this correlates with envy because at the beginning we took away their projects, and of course, they wouldn’t like that if someone used to work with Fiat AND Ferrari”* (16G)⁴²² and now is left only with the Fiat. For him, saying that the BEG has the nicer cars goes not without a little glee, that these had been taken from them.

In the tradition of he laughs best who laughs last, an employee depicts the image the parent company had of the subsidiary at the early days: *“Okay, let’s give it to*

them, and let them struggle with it" (27G)⁴²³ and goes on that the competition resulted from the phenomenon that BEG always were successful, too successful. The phenomenon that they were successful with all of their projects, even though they really struggled at the beginning, gave them a huge confidence. As they had not always been treated as on eye level and sometimes even ridiculed, they feel a kind of glee in rubbing the success under the parent company's nose.

7.3.4.3 Annexation

The third strategy is admitting that after all the BEG is not as different from the rest of Bosch. The employees base this on the phenomenon that both draw, in general, from the same values and name BEG and Bosch in the same breath, since in the end, it is the same firm. Another interesting thing is the comparison to someone of the outer outgroup such as an automotive manufacturer, which makes the employees see even greater differences between them. This strategy can be distinguished into three different degrees: Admitting that the firm draws on the same values; naming both Bosch and BEG individually but within the same breath; and distancing themselves from outgroups such as automotive manufacturers or completely different employers.

Drawing on the same values

There are some values such as cohesion and helpfulness that are also lived by Bosch. A female director, who earlier described all of the differences, now returns to the commonalities: *"I did not see much of a difference, and as I said, what I like a lot about Bosch, in general, is the open and friendly cooperation"* (20D)⁴²⁴. Also, a leading director, an unmitigated BEG employee, concedes that there are some values that are alike: *"Helpfulness, is also a value at Bosch. At least, I have experienced it. [...] This is a value I experienced with Bosch"* (6L)⁴²⁵. One employee even goes so far as to say that Bosch is a role model for the values such as helpfulness: *"These are the traditional values. Bosch sets an example of those"* (3E)⁴²⁶.

One employee sees a conformity in the way of treating employees: *"The next aspect is the appreciation of our employees. But I have to say, this is something that is a common theme within Bosch"* (8D)⁴²⁷. Another employee describes that there are admittedly the same values, but the focuses are different: *"The values*

are similar, because it's still Bosch, but BEG as a supplier has set the focus differently. Both have a high standard of quality, but BEG has to give more. [...] I would not distinguish it so clearly in the values" (21E)⁴²⁸. Another employee also makes the distinction only in details: "I think, in general, it's similar. I think it only differs that the values here are a bit more quote-unquote, 'youthful'" (25E)⁴²⁹.

In the same breath

Another aspect of the annexation strategy is to name both in the same sentence as one firm. A female employee does not make any distinction when she talks about Employee Advocacy: *"I really have fun in winning over girls in this early phase for Bosch as an employer, and if it's, in the end, for Bosch or for BEG, doesn't matter as I am a brand advocate for the whole Bosch group" (13E)⁴³⁰. Another female employee also says, that she "can't say anything bad about collegiality and cooperation about either Bosch or BEG" (28E)⁴³¹. This way of mentioning the two firms in the same breath is a strategy of bringing them closer together without losing the identity of each.*

Outer-out group

In the third step of this strategy, the distinction has completely dissolved. Here, it is more important to emphasize the differences between the whole group and others. A female employee delimits the Bosch values against an automotive manufacturer:

"The Bosch values are extremely important; you notice it in the comparison with other companies such as OEM. That company also has a founder born here in the region, but they would never say, our founder said this and this. And we Bosch employees are really supporting what Robert Bosch said; we know the values" (11E)⁴³².

One director interviewee does not mention a specific example but also draws a comparison between Bosch in general and other firms: *"When I started here, I experienced that in comparison to other companies at Bosch the employee is in the focus and not only the revenue goals" (8D)⁴³³. Another employee also distinguishes Bosch from OEM, by saying: "Before I came to Bosch I was at the OEM working as a student. And there, I always had the feeling that it's a dog-eat-dog society; where everyone is the best and I did not experience this at the business units" (4E)⁴³⁴.*

7.3.5 Conclusion

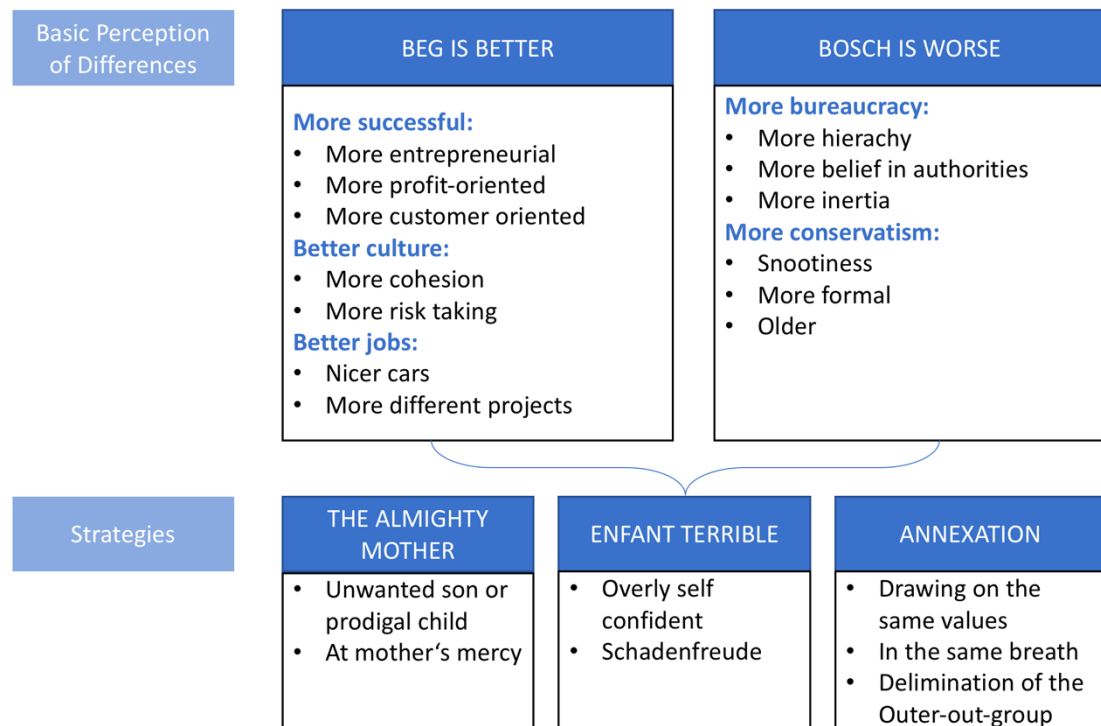


Figure 38: Perceived differences between subsidiary and parent company culture and strategies to deal with it.

The question of the distinction and belonging was very important for the interviewees and could not be answered in a unified way. Figure 38 shows the basic differences, where the interviewees perceive BEG as better and Bosch as worse and the strategies to deal with it. The belief that the subsidiary has, in general, the better values prevails among the employees. They perceive it as more successful because of the more pronounced entrepreneurial thinking and the stronger orientation towards both profit and customer, with better values because of the better cohesion, strong risk acceptance and offering the better jobs with nicer cars and more diverse projects, whereas the parent company is perceived as more bureaucratic with more hierarchies and more conservative with a stronger focus on formalities and snootiness. The strategies to deal with this are either the acceptance of an almighty parent at whose mercy the subsidiary is or the enfant terrible strategy, which means fighting back the mother with self-confidence and glee. The third strategy is the denial of a difference at all and accepting the annexation.

7.4 Summary of the chapter

Change and distinction are two central concepts that were prevailing throughout all of the interviews. The firm went through a massive growth in its fifteen years of existence. In this time, the small internal start-up became a serious player within the parent company. This chapter shows that the employees like to reference two things: the past and the parent company. The former they want to preserve; the latter they want to distinguish themselves from. The interviewees perceive change as threatening because it affects all aspects of their identity the *Unruliness* through the loss of freedom, the *Caring* through the loss of cohesion and the *Entrepreneurial Thinking* through the loss of pragmatism. Interestingly, comfort and customer orientation are not as much affected. These are in turn the points that are mentioned most as distinctive in relation to the parent company. Here, BEG is seen as better than the parent because of its better products and jobs (*comfort*) and its higher customer orientation.

Looking at the way they deal with the change, three strategies become salient; the middle management depression, the newcomer nostalgia and the life cycle acceptance. Of particular importance for the former is that those in middle management are most reluctant to change and will resist it by all means. The second strategy reveals the power of stories, where newcomers perceive that it was better earlier because they heard via stories about the old days. The third important finding here is that the employees are conscious of the natural change of a life cycle, even though they dislike it. This will be analysed further in chapter 9.

Looking at the strategies for distinction, there is rather an inconsistent picture. The first strategy sees the subsidiary as the underdog that has an almighty mother. The enfant terrible sees more power on the subsidiary side and likes to break ranks with small acts of rebellion. The third strategy goes with the conception that after all there is good in both the subsidiary and the parent company and that the two are not so different. The field of tension between hiding in nostalgia and depression and small acts of rebellion is linked to the outlook on the future of the employees. This will be explained in chapter 9.4.3 more closely.

Relating this back to the organisational identity, two findings become most important: (1) Firstly, there are conflicting values between keeping the own identity and becoming more like Bosch. In this whole analysis, very often analogies with

child development were made, reaching from the enfant terrible, over cord clamping from the mother to wanting to stay forever young. The life cycle seems to be an important aspect of the organisational identity, which has been neglected in research so far. (2) The other important factor is the outlook on the future, which critically influences how the employees act and behave, and ultimately also their willingness to be an advocate. If the employees think that the organisational identity can change for the better they will have a positive outlook on the future. This could be if the distinctive values get stronger, for example, the perceived caring gets more because of the greater comfort that the organisation can provide or the success makes it even more entrepreneurial. These two findings will be of great importance in chapter 9.

8 Narrative themes and the organisation

8.1 Thematic analysis on two levels

In this chapter, the additional dimensions found with brand narratives in Chapter 4.4.3 are applied to the 48 narratives found in the interviews. In this thematic analysis, the focus lies on evaluating narratives based on predefined themes and dimensions, with the additional dimensions of *Actor*, *Value*, *Relationship*, and *Connection*. One dimension of the original group, *Nature*, was also analysed, because it helps to understand the meta-themes and the dimensions for brand narratives. On a second level, within each dimension, the narratives are analysed according to the meta-theme to which they have been attributed. A preliminary analysis of the narratives yields five meta-themes: *Enfant Terrible*, *Avant-Garde*, *Extra Mile*, *Family Cocoon*, and *Biedermeier* that all revolve around different values and topics (Appendix II displays all 48, original and translation).

8.2 Nature

The nature of the narratives is one of the most discussed dimensions in organisational narrative research. It revolves around whether there could be identified one collective narrative all employees draw from, or whether employees have personal narratives which may conflict with those of others. The 48 narratives in this research could be ascribed to five different meta-themes: *Enfant Terrible*, *Avant-Garde*, *Extra Mile*, *Family Cocoon*, and *Biedermeier*. These themes all followed specific underlying values introduced in chapter 5.6.2. The values within each theme are very similar and fit one of the ten motivational values described by Schwartz (1994): Benevolence (looking for the welfare of others), tradition (respect to a culture's customs), conformity (rules and restraints including harsh consequences if neglected), universalism (tolerance for all people), self-direction (acting and thinking independently), stimulation (the excitement of new things), security (valuing of stability and safety), power (prestige and status), achievement (personal success), and hedonism (looking for fun).

Each of the meta-themes could be assigned to one of these motivational values. The *Enfant Terrible* theme follows the value of hedonism, with fun being most important; *Avant-Garde* has a value of self-direction with finding an own identity;

the *Extra Mile* focuses on achievement, where personal success is most important; *Family Cocoon* values benevolence highest; and *Biedermeier* relies on conformity, with following the rules as an important paradigm. This means that the values are cohesive within each theme, but indeed conflict if compared with one another. The themes will be more closely described in chapter 8.3. In chapter 9.1, an explanation for the conflicting values of the themes is provided, when all of the themes are located within an *Organisational Life Story*, which means even though the themes are different and sometimes conflicting they are all part of one story, an organisation's story of growing up. The *Organisational Life Story* will be introduced in chapter 8.3.7.

8.3 Value

8.3.1 *The five meta-themes*

The value dimension looks into the narratives from an identity perspective. In branding literature, utility and identity are the two important dimensions, since they relate to whether it solely revolves around the fulfilment of needs (Shankar et al., 2001) or has an identity component (Ardelet et al., 2015). The following chapter will show that the themes are linked to the identity because they revolve around the central values of the organisational identity that are central help to distinguish it from other organisations, particularly from the parent company.

Theme	Story title	Code
The <i>Enfant Terrible</i>	That's not my job	4E
	The useless paperwork	14D
	Dancers at the summer fair	16G
	The cloak and dagger operation for Audi	17G
	The tricycle try-out	19E
	The barbecue popped by the police	21E
	The extinguishing mistake	26E
	Fried eggs on the hood	21E
	The antagonist in the BEG jacket	27G
	The Porsche Interview	30G
	The proving trip without license.	21E
	Breaking in the Jaguar	18E
	Fire alert with the big boss	26E
	Popsicles on the balcony	5E
	The young bunch	14D
	The careful visionaries	15E

Theme	Story title	Code
The <i>Avant-Garde</i>	The adhoc project presentation	13E
	The first offer template	12D
	The missing Bentley	15E
	The coffee idea	24E
	the super secret flagship	27G
	The two minute job-interview	28E
	Low hanging fruits	29E
	The boss in the bus	1P
	The microphone outing	1P
	Meeting at the next day	19E
	Interview in the installation hall	7D
	The Million Euro Project	12D
	Big boss doing maintenance	27G
	The compensation cake	29E

Theme	Story Title	Code
The <i>Extra Mile</i>	The fascinating ACC	13E
	The Chinese Talent Acquisition	20D
	The Reworded Test Automisation	32E
	Learning Bosch Connect by doing	11E

Theme	Story Title	Code
The <i>Family Cocoon</i>	The nice induction presentation	10E
	The rescue from the sinking ship	22E
	The big boss in Japan	27G
	The secretary restructuring	28E
	The help in the hiring freeze	29E
	The sportscar farewell	31G
	The reintegration	4E
	Complaints to the big boss	12D
	Introduction by the big boss	22E
	The termination inquiry	23E

Theme	Story title	Code
The <i>Biedermeier</i>	The transgression of competence	3E
	The successful experiment	6L
	A reason to leave	12D
	The renaming confusion	14D

Table 17: Stories categorized into the main themes.

Table 17 shows the 48 narratives that were found in the interviews could all be ascribed to one of five meta-themes. The table above shows the themes: *The Enfant Terrible*, *the Avant-garde*, *The Family Cocoon*, *The Extra Mile* and *The Biedermeier*. The following chapter describes the narratives with values given in an exemplary story, all the stories belonging to one meta-theme have the same moral.

8.3.2 *Enfant Terrible*

With 16 narratives, the *Enfant Terrible* is the strongest theme. Originating in art or politics, the *Enfant Terrible* describes a person who disregards the rules in a provocative and shocking way (Merriam-Webster Inc., Ed., 2018a). This term reflects the mindset of many of the subsidiary employees, who regard themselves as different, more daring, and more pragmatic than the parent company employees, whom they consider are steeped in rules and conventional thinking.

Title	Barbecue busted by the police (21E)
Content	<p>“The first project I had was BMW, and there was a little party organized by the project lead with food and sparkling wine and then all employees of the project and the special departments came together and in the evening, we had a barbecue. We pulled up the company cars, loaded them full of beer, coke and Fanta. And we turned the air condition fully up to keep everything cold and then we drove to the barbecue area and stayed until the police arrived and told us to repark the cars. But we tried to argue: ‘These are company cars, they are allowed to stand here.’ But the police said they weren’t.”</p>

Table 18: An exemplary story about the *Enfant terrible*.

In the story in Table 18, an employee talks about a party after a successful project. He emphasizes the fun; the exuberant party was so frisky it had to be ended by the police. Spontaneous and unconventional fun is the value that appears very often in this meta-theme, often derived from doing something forbidden or something that might be frowned upon. Typically, the stories never have really bad consequences, no matter how bold or daredevil the employees behaved. Mostly, this behaviour followed a success, which gave them self-confidence. There is a certain moral that applies to all the stories: *Fortune favouring the brave*. Brave and daring behaviour will be rewarded; not necessarily with approval, but at least with fun. The stories also take the hedonistic view that pleasure and happiness are the most important things. This theme is clearly identity-related. The collective identity of the employees is here a child looking for fun and testing out the limits given to him.

8.3.3 *Avant-Garde*

While in the *Enfant Terrible* theme the outcome of the stories was mostly positive and successful, in the *Avant-Garde* theme, success plays even a more important role. Since new ideas and change are the most important thing in the *Avant-Garde* theme, success determines the value of an idea. In the narratives, it is often an idea that inspires change and is then embraced by people. The example in Table 19 describes the kick-off workshop of an initiative for organisational change in the subsidiary. The participants looked for the “low hanging fruits”, of an easily accomplished objective, then they decided to distribute free fruit in every department.

Title	The low hanging fruits (29E)
Content	<p>"We did a little brainstorming, about what comes to our mind what we might want to have and it was my idea, and we wrote it down and then at the end of the workshop, we said, 'Now what are the low hanging fruits, what can we realize soon and fast, where can we make a difference really quick?' And everyone said: 'The fruit basket'. But it wasn't called fruit basket at that time. It was called 'Fruits in the coffee kitchen!' And then my colleague said that if everybody chipped in, it's realizable. And everyone gave some money. [He] organized the whole thing, and gathered a few people and said, we chip in some money and pay for apples and put apples everywhere. Lastly, they did it in December, but I was not there and was not able to witness it. And this is how the whole thing started and of course they brought one apple basket to Mr. President and then they said: 'How did you like the apples? How did they taste' And lastly, Mr. President agreed to proceed with the whole thing. I think that was a really good thing."</p>

Table 19: An exemplary story about the Avant-garde.

In this story, the term 'idea' is explicitly used. The common denominator in this theme is that the ideas are unconventional in the beginning, but then successful. Another important aspect of the narratives from the *Avant-Garde* theme is the way in which ideas are realized. Spontaneity and flexibility, as well as pragmatism and efficacy, are important for the person who has the idea, but also the person who is being approached with the idea. The *Avant-Garde* theme has a strong moral of the importance of ideas. It is idealistic in both a philosophical sense, drawing insight from ideas and ideals, and in an ethical sense, that ideas are paramount. The moral of the story is that ideas matter. The idealistic philosophy is strongly related to a Sturm-and-Stress literature, where young artists are looking for their identity and ask questions of who they are and what they are capable of. So, this theme is also clearly identity-related and marks a later point in the life of the organisation, namely adolescence.

8.3.4 *Extra Mile*

The *Extra Mile* is the third meta-theme identified. One speciality about this theme is that stories belonging to this theme were only told by the women who took part in the study. The stories were told by three regular employees and one female director. In this theme, going the extra mile is rewarded with recognition and approval, or self-realization. While in the *Avant-garde* the outcome was important to the success, here the personal contribution to it plays the most important role.

Title	The Chinese Talent Acquisition (20D)
Content	<p>"I once was in Beijing, at an event another firm organized. The winners of a talent show were invited to this event. It was really exclusive. Even the advisor of Obama was invited by the Chinese administration along with high representatives and so on. But, there was no customer to acquire for me or anything else to do. So, I just listened to the topics presented there, and I also used the time to get to know the talent show winners. We ate dinner together and so on, and in the end, I looked after them for the whole evening, because interestingly [the other firm] had not provided anyone to look after them. So, they were extremely thankful and I also liked spending the evening with these talented people. And as I said, there were other networking contacts that were interesting but we did a lot of things together and we kept in touch and I of course told them what Bosch does."</p>

Table 20: An exemplary story about the Extra Mile.

The story in Table 19 is the story of a female director, who describes how she goes the extra mile to be an advocate to the young talents. The common denominator here is doing something beyond their actual job description and being proud and satisfied with the outcome because they are representing their organisation favourably. The heroine in the exemplary story is on a business trip and advocates for the firm voluntarily. Out of passion for the firm, she sees an opportunity to positively promote the company.

The passion, that is quite salient in these stories, often derives from seeing the big picture and the desire to improve and grow. The stories are all told in a self-confident way, because the heroines know what they have achieved and attribute the success to their own performance. The morale of the *Extra Mile* theme draws on a *Rags to the Riches* narrative, which also Booker (2004) sees as a key narrative, that you can achieve anything if you really want it. Thereby, the theme points to recognizing the own abilities, setting goals and having the passion and to achieve these goals. This theme is linked to the identity because it describes acts of self-realization. Here, the collective identity is a passionate one that is motivated by the aspiration for success and perfectionism. It marks a different stage in identity development than the themes before, rather the young adulthood where the performance idea really matters.

8.3.5 Family Cocoon

The fourth theme is the *Family Cocoon* theme. Here, the hero/heroine is surprised by how well they are treated when facing a challenge or an obstacle. The success they achieve is not ascribed to their own effort, but rather to the help of others. In

the story in Table 20, the superiors step in when they see that an employee is overworked and rescue him.

Title	The rescue from the sinking ship (22E)
Content	<p>“When I just started here, I was told about a sinking ship at the parent company. Some colleagues were involved, and I heard about some horror stories, like you get a call in the evening that you will be spending the next three days at the site of OEM in another town, you won’t even be able to pack your bags. Interestingly, it was later on known that the colleagues from the parent company were treated worse than our colleagues, because superiors here said, ok, this guy is dead, there is only so much the can work, but now it’s enough. The parent company colleagues who were directly in the project did suffer more because there was no one holding their protecting hand over them. And I really liked that.”</p>

Table 21: An exemplary story about the Family Cocoon.

In the *Family Cocoon*, a friendly, helpful ear and a protective and caring behaviour are most important. This is especially appreciated if the person is higher in the hierarchy than the narrator. This meta-theme describes a very altruistic worldview. The narrators appreciate the superiors’ view that everyone should be helped and protected. Thereby the superior neglects status and short-term goals like customer pleasing, by simply pulling an employee out of an ongoing project when he or she is overworked. This is not taken for granted by the narrator but seen as something rather special. The deeper and underlying moral here is that good employers look after their employees and in turn get respect back, what goes around comes around or like family caring about each other.

8.3.6 *Biedermeier*

The fifth and last theme is the *Biedermeier*. In the four stories that are ascribed to this theme, mostly a change is described in which the outcome is a loss of independence or of another important value. The story in Table 21 describes the history of the subsidiary, starting completely on its own and being successful with it and then being incorporated back again.

Title	The successful experiment (6L)
Content	<p>“It’s a relatively large market and Bosch wanted to participate. [...] But at the beginning, it was not clear if it would be successful. [...] We tried at the start to position the subsidiary of Bosch optically as far away as possible from the Bosch brand. An own name, another colour concept, AS-SET was blue, no Bosch in the name and so on. A preferably own brand presence. And this, I’d say, was the start. And then it turned out that the model was going very well. We grew very fast and got very profitable as</p>

well. And then happened what often happens with Bosch, I put it crudely, after the experiment was over, then the Bosch group steps in. This was admittedly for us, who wanted to found an own company and make it successful; a little frustrating, because we saw that we would be getting under Bosch's thumb. On the other hand, there were the advantages, because with the Bosch nameplate, nobody asks for competence and the ability of doing something, it's just clear."

Table 22: An exemplary story about the Biedermeier.

In the *Biedermeier* conformity and conservatism are important values. The teller of the story above accepts the loss of independence and tries to look on the advantage. The rebelliousness and idealism of the early days of the firm is lost. Rules are accepted, and processes are followed. This theme has the morale of surrendering to the greater power. It strongly contrasts particularly with the first two themes *Enfant Terrible* and *Avant-Garde* with their pioneer spirit. When growing older the organisational identity gets slower and battle-weary.

8.3.7 Conclusion

These meta-themes show that the narratives are closely linked to organisational identity and identity development within a Life Story. Interestingly, the worldviews that accompany each theme are at least sometimes in conflict. Yet, they all co-exist within the subsidiary organisation.

Meta-theme	The Enfant Terrible	The Avant-Garde	The Extra Mile	The Family Cocoon	The Biedermeier
Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confidence Fun (at work) Being bold Unruliness Insiderism Complicity Success 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spontaneity Flexibility New Ideas Pragmatism Efficiency Change Simplicity Success 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Passion Effort Desire to improve Perfectionism Seeing the big picture Success 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Caring Down-to-earth Family like treatment Friendly ear Helpfulness Comfort Respect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conservatism Acceptance of customs Conformity Obedience Relying on processes Being aloof
Morale	„Fortune favours the brave“	„Ideas matter“	„From rags to the riches“	„We are family“	„Surrender to the greater power“

Table 23: The five themes of narratives.

Table 23 depicts all four meta-themes with the prevailing values and the underlying moral. Remarkably, success appears as a value in three of the five themes. The *Extra Mile* and the *Biedermeier* theme yielded the fewest stories. The *Enfant terrible* (16) and *Avant-garde* (14) theme yielded the most stories. They seem to be an important part of the collective identity: success is reached by joining together and having fun, combined with having new ideas and dare to realize them.

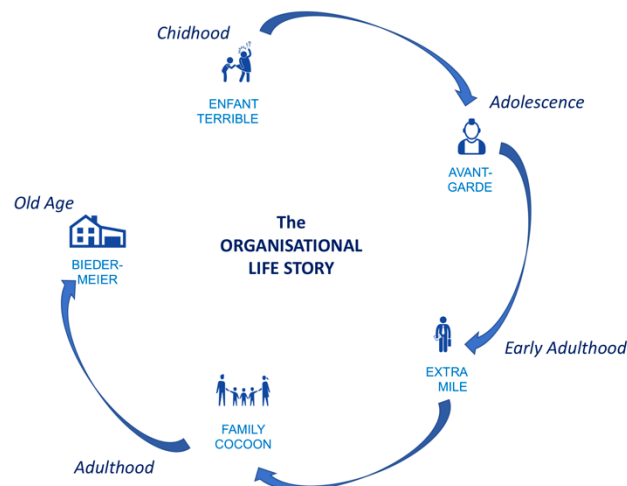


Figure 39: The Organisational Life Story as central concept of this research project.

Looking at the organisational identity with the three core values Entrepreneurial Thinking, Unruliness and Caring, it can be seen that while *Enfant Terrible* mostly relates to unruliness, *Avant-Garde* and *Extra Mile* relate to Entrepreneurial thinking and *Family Cocoon* to Caring, and *Biedermeier* seems to relate to the decline of these. It seems as if in different stages of the organisational identity life cycle different values are in focus and are probably more important than other. As Figure 39 shows, an organisation runs through different phases and certain stories relate to each.

Relating this back to the Nature dimension of narratives described in Chapter 8.2, there are aspects of this life cycle that claim for one collective narrative. Even though the themes of the story are different and sometimes even conflicting, they can all be aligned to one big narrative, the Organisational Life Story. This goes along with the life story of McAdams (1996), who describes that humans begin the construction of life stories in the early adulthood or adolescence and spend the rest of their lives refining them.

8.4 Actor

The following chapter relates to the brand narrative dimension Actor, which has two manifestations: Self and brand. In this chapter, first, the self as an actor is described, with the main themes the stories revolve around and the outcomes. Afterwards, the personal stories are analysed among the main themes *Enfant Terrible*, *Avant-Garde*, *Extra Mile*, *Family Cocoon* and *Biedermeier*. Thirty-six of the forty-eight stories were self-narratives. This means that they included the self as the main actor. The main theme of these stories was a personal success; either a successful presentation at the end of the probation time, the first project success, or success with a pet project that was particularly near and dear. Another frequent theme was success in the early days of the subsidiary. Most of the stories were told in a first-person narrative and provided a real memory of an experience that happened a few days, a few months, or even years ago. If it was years ago, then the narrative often depicted a situation that was very early either in their career or at the point when the subsidiary/organisation started up.

Title	The nice induction presentation (10E)
Content	"But what I kind of liked back then was my induction presentation. I can't remember exactly if we invited the whole division back then, maybe not the whole division, but a lot came and I thought it was a nice experience for me, because I had just started, working there for half a year, and then gave my presentation and the feedback from the colleagues. The general interest was there for my small topic, of what I did in the adjustment phase that was actually, I remember that I was really delighted back then, that was a really nice moment."

Table 24: An exemplary story for the self as actor.

The exemplary in Table 24 starts with a difficult obstacle to overcome and its success. Common obstacles in the stories are unknown or difficult tasks or problems. The outcome of these narratives is that they succeeded either by being creative, or by going 'the extra mile'. For the meta-theme *Enfant Terrible*, this was mostly a playful or non-conforming action. In the *Family Cocoon*, success was followed by recognition, often by someone higher in the hierarchy. In *Avant-Garde*, the success is reached by doing something in a new and unconventional way.

The first-person narratives form the huge majority of the stories told. There are only twelve stories that do not include the self as the main actor. Here, it is either

some colleagues or the original pioneers in the firm. Interestingly, the stories told by the women who took part in the research study often include hard work and successfully going the 'Extra Mile', whereas stories told by the men in the sample focused on fun and shenanigans. However, it should be noted that the majority of the sample were male, so it is difficult to draw too many conclusions from this. Besides the self-narratives, there are also narratives that do not include the self, but other colleagues or employees. Product and Brand do not play the role of the main actors, but in some stories, their role is very important. In the *Biedermeier* theme, the organisation plays the role of the main actor in two stories. In *The Successful Experiment* (6L), it plays the role of the bastard child that was at first not allowed to wear the name of the parent, in the renaming confusion, the organisation does not ask or inform the employees when changing its name, it is almost an antagonist here. The stories that have the organisation as the main actor clearly refer to the organisational identity. Here the organisational identity changes from being an underdog to being aloof. It does not stay stable within the different narratives but evolves within each theme.

8.5 Relationship

8.5.1 Product

The third dimension is the *Relationship* dimension. This describes the relationship to the product or brand in the brand narratives. In some publications, the relationship was rather seen as partner and in others, the relationship was more utilitarian; an enabler to fulfil needs. The product appears in thirteen of the stories, and thereby plays an important role in the sense-making process of the employees. The subsidiary does not have its own products. The manufacturers loan their cars to the subsidiary for a limited time and then take them back after a project is finished. These are mostly prestigious car brands like Bentley or Jaguar, and their brands are mostly named within the stories. Whilst there are no specific meta-themes that relate to the product, its role in some stories is very central.

The exemplary story in Table 24 depicts a common scene, where the manufacturer withdraws a loaned car unexpectedly. The employee here wanted to base a thesis project on working with the car while developing new software functions

and test it on the car and was therefore now facing the challenges due to its absence.

Title	The missing Bentley (15E)
Content	"I came here as a Bachelor's degree candidate. And back then at the interview, they lured me in by telling me that I would be allowed to realize a specific functionality on the Bentley. And then, there I sat, there was no car, but it didn't bother me any further because I just looked for something else. And the nice thing was, this was possible. Our cluelessness because of the missing car that we wanted to work with maybe lasted one day or so. And then we looked for solutions. And on the one hand, I found it in some way cool to experience that people just let me. I contributed a lot to the new solution. And on the other hand, my supervisor and other managers who were involved put things on the right track, making it possible."

Table 25: An exemplary story of the relationship with the Product.

Hence, the product is mostly characterized as something precious; a treasure that can easily break if not treated in the right way, and that must be given back. It also gets attention and can impress people. Therefore, the products, which are mostly the loaned or left to the firm, are often also presented to everyone else as a sign of success and may even be placed in the lobby to signify a reward for the success of a project. In this *Avant-Garde* story, the loss of one opportunity leads to new ideas and success in the end.

The product plays an important part in almost one-third of the stories, and is also a catalyst for action, as in the exemplary above. One might say that the reason for the innovation and the brave (*Enfant Terrible*) and unconventional (*Avant-Garde*) behaviour of the heroes is due to the phenomenon that the products are precious, but also volatile. They cannot be fully owned, so they provide an ongoing fascination as objects of desire.

8.5.2 Brand

While the product often serves as a sign of success due to its precious brand, the brand of the subsidiary has a distinctive role. The brand appears in three stories (*The antagonist in the branded jacket*, *the renaming confusion*, the *Successful Experiment*). The exemplary story in Table 25 is a good example of the underdog self-conception of the subsidiary and the *Enfant terrible* attitude of its employees. It dates to when a department that formerly belonged to the parent company was transferred to the subsidiary, and some employees from the parent company had

condescending attitudes to the subsidiary. The story concerns the phenomenon that every new subsidiary employee gets a branded jacket as a welcome gift, which most subsidiary employees wear with pride. However, this pride was not necessarily felt by someone who has previously worked for the parent company.

Title	The antagonist in the branded jacket (27G)
Content	<p>"I remember when a new subsidiary department was founded, some of the parent company employees had to join. Most of them were critical towards the subsidiary, such as the director formerly at the parent company. When I caught up that this new department would be created, I walked up to my boss and told him. And he was totally happy, because of this antagonist, Mr. X, the director, who had always been against the subsidiary. And I will never forget that my old boss said: "Go to the marketing department and take a subsidiary branded jacket and bring it to Mr. X with regards from the BEG. Now he is finally allowed to wear the BEG branded jacket."</p>

Table 26: An exemplary story about the relationship with the Brand.

This story is about the downfall of someone who was too proud, condescending, and critical towards the new company, as shown by his reluctance to wear the branded jacket. In this example, his wearing of the jacket serves as a mark of his surrender to the subsidiary company, with its stronger identity. The brand here is clearly a distinguishing factor that helps the identity of the subsidiary. The story is linked to the *Enfant Terrible* theme, which has unruliness and pushing limits as central value, and here the brand helps to achieve this.

8.6 Connection

8.6.1 *Superior*

A significant number of stories revolved around the *Connection* dimension, which had two manifestations: in-group and out-group. The different groups mentioned in the narratives, such as superiors, colleagues, parent company employees, and customers form a continuum between the in-group and out-group that will be outlined in this chapter.

The first connection is to the superior. The superior interacts with the self mostly in giving an order, some of which are difficult to fulfil. Afterwards, they give recognition or admonition. They are often depicted in a good light and even as a mentor, who helps and gives advice.

Title	The first offer template (12D)
Content	<p>"I came here as group lead and I got a group with thirteen people who wrote software. And the expectation of my boss was, when he had an application project request: 'You are the application engineer, now write an offer for that request.' And in my whole life I had never written an offer before and sent it off to the customer. And at the firm, we only had one very rough word-template made by one employee who had sent off an offer before in the PMO department - the former Otto-engine department. So, I invested much time in this offer. I just wanted to be sure that when I send it off it would meet the customer's wishes, including timelines and so on. Lastly, it was too expensive for them [...] and I had to deal with it as the group lead. It was a loss of 10,000 or 20,000 Euro. This was the first time my superior confronted me and said: 'Listen, are you aware, that this cost a lot of money, and you produced these costs. Wasn't there an easier way?' This made me wonder. Now, I had the motivation to make every employee help in further developing the template."</p>

Table 27: An exemplary story about the Superior.

In this exemplary story in Table 26, the superior expected the subordinate to fulfil a task that was difficult because the subordinate had no experience in it. In the end, the superior was the one that made the teller think and want to get better.

8.6.2 Colleagues

Title	Fried eggs on the hood (21E)
Content	<p>"Two years ago, we were in the USA for a summer testing trip in Death Valley and it was over 50 degrees Celsius in the shade. And then someone came up with the idea to make fried eggs on the hood. I wonder now are the scrapes in the coating still there or was the car sold for scrap? Because funnily the hood was slanted and the egg melted down until it got fried. (laughs). We didn't taste the scrambled eggs afterwards because the hood was not clean enough to eat anything off of it!"</p>

Table 28: An exemplary story about the Colleagues.

Colleagues in the in-group category usually act as co-conspirators. In the narrative below, the employees go on a trip to test the new calibration of vehicles under extreme temperature circumstances. The story in Table 27 shows that having fun together is an important aspect of these trips and binds the employees together. Especially in relation to the *Enfant Terrible* theme, they can perhaps best be described as partners in crime, who participate in raucous or mischievous behaviour, either directly or indirectly by colluding in the action and cheering on the chief protagonists.

8.6.3 Parent company employees

The parent company employees are a group that subsidiary employees do not identify with, and they want to be distinct from them. The story in Table 28 describes parent company employees using the facilities of the subsidiary. A car standing on the test bench had some test performed on it. After the test, the car had to be newly programmed, which can usually only be done by software engineers and not by calibration engineers. The calibration engineers from the parent company thus refuse to help.

Title	That's not my job (4E)
Content	<p>"I was standing at the test bench waiting for a roll test. In front of me, there were two colleagues from the parent company who worked on the same project and wanted to drive back. I picked that up. And then they discovered that the car was not as well prepared as they needed it to be; it still had to be programmed. And then this one is standing there and says: 'Programming - I cannot do this. I did it once, and the car broke, so I won't do this'. And I think, this is so typical for the parent company, saying 'I did it once and it broke, no, this is somebody else's task.'"</p>

Table 29: An exemplary story about the Parent Company Employees.

Especially in the *Enfant Terrible* theme, the parent company employees are the antagonists, described either as being unhelpful, lacking initiative, being totally incompetent, or complacent profiteers from the subsidiary's ingenuity (That's not my job; The extinguishing mistake). Also, in the Biedermeier stories, they serve as a bad example and not how things should be done (*A reason to leave*, *Transgression of competence*). They also only follow the rules and are risk-averse. Particularly in the narratives about the early days of the subsidiary, the parent company employees are the enemy. Only in the *Family Cocoon* theme, the colleagues belong more into the in-group than into the out-group. Here, common projects are realized together, and their role is like those of the *Colleagues* (*The rescue from the sinking ship*). This could be an indication that in this theme, distinction from the parent company is not as important anymore, the collective identity of the organisation moves more towards a caring and comforting unity that also includes the parent company.

8.6.4 Customer

Another out-group is the customer. The customer here is usually the buyer or upper management from a car manufacturer, such as Porsche or Ferrari. Customers are described as very unpredictable actors that can radically change their minds. A lot of time and effort is put into the project and the customer keeps the hero in suspense until they finally win the bid. Since the subsidiary is a company that must realise customer projects, the customer has a powerful role and determines its success or failure. In the exemplary story in Table 29, the customer summons the project team to his site in Italy at a moment's notice, where they must give a presentation on a specific car software project. It's seen as a special sign of competence that they manage to be successful under these circumstances.

Title	The ad-hoc project presentation (13E)
Content	<p>"At the beginning of a big project, we got involved quite spontaneously by the parent company and the people of the parent company knew the customer already, and the customer said: 'Now put together a project team [...] and come to Italy in two days and show what the project entails. We were a small group of four people. We prepared the presentation on the way to the meeting, and in the end, it was a very good meeting in cooperation with the people from the parent company. We gave the customers the feeling that the project was only possible in this constellation with exactly these people and said 'let's go for it'. With this spontaneous and flexible manner, we were in their good books."</p>

Table 30: An exemplary story about the Customer.

8.6.5 Other connections

There are some other actors, such as the applicants in *The Chinese talent acquisition* (20D); *The microphone outing* (1P); and *The Porsche interview* (30G) that appear as a group that must be wowed in the same way as customers, although without being as powerful as customers, because they cannot decide about joys and sorrows. In all these cases, the narrators had the desire to impress them. Other groups as friends (*The fascinating ACC*, 13E), and competitors (*The Microphone outing*, 1P) always belong to the outer-out-group, since they don't understand the specific customs of the in-group.

8.6.6 Conclusion

The differentiation between in-group and out-group is a very important theme in the narratives and appears in almost every story, whether it is the feeling of cohesion and support in the in-group (*Family Cocoon*), or the ruthless or incompetent behaviour of the out-group (*Enfant terrible*), or describing how things get worse (*Biedermeier*).

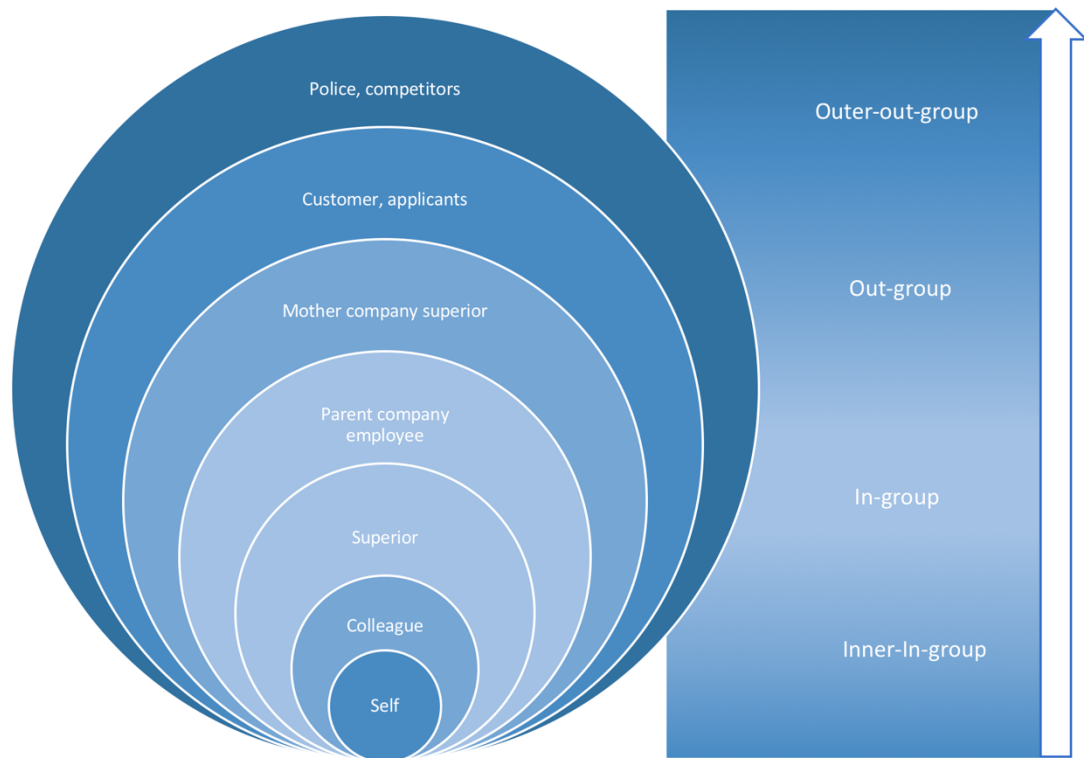


Figure 40: Connection dimensions found within the narratives.

Figure 40 shows the different layers of in-groups and out-groups. Whilst the colleagues are mostly on the same side and are even accomplices or partners in crime they belong to the inner-in-group. The superiors have sometimes an opposing view, so they can be counted in the in-group and a feeling of belonging is shared. In some stories, the parent company employees are part of the group, and they are depicted as on the same side. In most of the stories, the parent company employees are positioned as on the opposing side, and in case of the superiors of the parent company, this is even more extreme. If seen versus the customer, often parent and subsidiary join forces, and the customers and applicants are seen as the adversaries. The police and the competitors are always on the other side and form the outer-out-group. This renegotiation between in-group and out-group is particularly important because it has not been discussed so far within publications of organisational narratives.

8.7 Summary of the chapter

The narratives were analysed regarding five dimensions derived from prior research. The *Actor* dimension shows that the organisational identity does not stay stable; it develops in the different themes from being the underdog to being aloof. The *Relationship* dimension shows that product and brand do play an important role in the stories; while the product is mostly the catalyst for action, brand is used as distinctive element that helps identity negotiation. The *Connection* dimension reveals a constant renegotiation between in-group and out-group which is closely linked to identity. This is especially important, since in most publications about organisational narratives, the organisation is seen as a closed space with no connection to the outside. But the subsidiary's relationship with the parent company is an important part of its identity. It shapes how the employees perceive their collective identity.

The *Value* dimension analysed the five meta-themes that were found towards their values and found a strong link to the organisational identity. It showed that the *Enfant Terrible* mirrored mostly the values fun and breaking rules, which is directly linked to the identity value *Unruliness*; the *Avant-Garde* mostly relates to the values of generating ideas and moving things forward, which is directly linked to *Entrepreneurial Thinking*; the *Extra Mile* mirrors the values personal success and desire to improve which also goes in this direction; the *Family Cocoon* has the values cohesion and family like treatment which is directly linked to the identity aspect of *Caring* and the *Biedermeier* comprises the values of hierarchical thinking and conformity and shows a decline of all these identity values. The *Nature* dimension looking at collective or conflicting narratives showed that although the different themes mirror different values they all add up to one big story: The Organisational Life Story, which describes the course of life of an organisation, similar to the human life, starting with childhood (*Enfant Terrible*), advancing to youth (*Avant-Garde*) and young adulthood (*Extra Mile*), ending up in adulthood (*Family Cocoon*) and old age (*Biedermeier*). The Organisational Life Story, the grand concept of this research project, will be explained in more detail in chapter 9.

Linking these findings to the most salient phenomena in the interviews, change and distinction. It becomes clear that the themes relate to both; as the organisation changes, distinction grows first in the *Enfant Terrible*, becomes highest in the *Avant-Garde* and then declines from *Extra Mile* over *Family Cocoon* to *Biedermeier*. The stories here work like a looking glass revealing the logic proposed in chapter seven even more clearly; they dissect the general fear of change and loss of distinction into stages that build upon each other like a life cycle of a human's life, which is explained in chapter 9.2.

The Organisational Life Story is a new construct, that has not been conceptualized in research so far and is the overarching conceptual metaphor of this research project. Chapter 9 will discuss the Organisational Life Story by starting with the discussion of the different phases in the life story also known as meta-themes and then moving on to a similar concept the organisation life cycle to borrow from this in terms of conceptualizing possible futures. Lastly, the Organisational Life Story is linked back to Employee Advocacy building up on the findings of chapter 6, 7, and 8.

9 The Organisational Life Story and Employee Advocacy

9.1 The conceptualization of the Organisational Life Story

“Issues of time and variation are the core to all sociological analysis” (O’Rand and Krecker, 1990, p. 247).

The quotation above gets to the heart of the findings of interviews and narratives. Everything revolves around the changes that went on over the years and the aspects that changed such as the feeling of distinction. The employees shared stories of certain times that were memorable to them. Past research has failed to conceptualize organisational stories in their entirety and distinctiveness. The model I have developed closes this gap and conceptualizes the Organisational Life Story which is similar to the human life story, as integrating all stories present in organisations. This is a unique and novel way to conceptualize stories in organisational context and provides valuable insights for Employee Advocacy

The Organisational Life Story always starts with the earliest of times, where the employees characterized their identity as the *Enfant Terrible*, the problem child. However, this child got somehow lost on the way. Growing up was one of the strongest motifs within not only the narratives but also in other parts of the interviews. A child growing up is something normal; it is the cycle of life. The other motifs that followed out of chapter eight showed very decisively that they can be put in a certain order to complete a cycle, an Organisational Life Story: The *Avant-Garde* succeeding the *Enfant Terrible* and marking the stage of adolescence, where it is most important to develop an own identity; the *Extra Mile* mirroring young adulthood where everything revolves around personal success before one settles down and starts a family, as in the *Family Cocoon*; and the last epoch, which hasn’t really started yet but seems to be on the horizon, where all efforts are over and a certain inertia comes into focus, here called *Biedermeier*.

These five stages conceptualize a new and unique model to look at organisational stories: The Organisational Life Story integrates all stories in organisations. The organisational identity as it matures has different manifestations according to stages in a life cycle, Erikson’s (1963) model, which will be presented in chapter 9.2 here helps to understand the phenomenon of growing up and outlines the life story. The organisational life cycle concept which is widely used in literature will help to transfer the human life story to the organisation. This new concept, the

Organisational Life Story, helps the understanding of Employee Advocacy, which is going to be described in chapter 9.5.

9.2 The Organisational Life Story model derived from Erikson's developmental stages

The model of the Organisational Life Story I developed serves as the overarching conceptual model. It is a story of a child growing up. The upcoming chapter compares this concept with Erikson's (1963) stages of child development. Chapter Seven showed that the organisation was shaped by two things; the search of an own identity within a constantly changing environment and the constant renegotiation between distinction and belonging, resembling the stages of psychosocial development suggested by Erikson (1963); a pupil of Freud. Erikson proposed that children go through different stages within their development, facing different crises in each stage and thereby transiting into another stage. Erikson developed eight different stages of development, with a basic virtue and typical psychological crisis, which are depicted in Table 30. The Organisational Life Story phases that were developed in this research project clearly resemble the stages of Erikson (1963). Even though the primal stages can be summarized into the first stage, they seem very fitting when applied to the example of the subsidiary:

Age	Virtue	Crisis
<i>Infancy</i>	Hope	Trust vs. Mistrust
<i>Early Childhood</i>	Will	Autonomy vs. Shame
<i>Play Age</i>	Purpose	Initiative vs. Guilt
<i>School Age</i>	Competency	Industry vs. Inferiority
<i>Adolescence</i>	Fidelity	Ego Identity vs. Role Confusion
<i>Young Adult</i>	Love	Intimacy vs. Isolation
<i>Adulthood</i>	Care	Generativity vs. Stagnation
<i>Maturity</i>	Wisdom	Ego Integrity vs. Despair

Table 31: Erikson's (1963) stages of child development.

In the first years, the *Enfant Terrible*, the subsidiary fought for its survival and gained trust and confidence due to its success. It thereby gained autonomy in the second stage and did the things in its own way, sometimes simply by neglecting

the rules of the parent or by doing them differently. The autonomy proceeded in stage three, and the bigger the subsidiary got, the more it got noticed by the parent company where some initiatives were admired, and others belittled. As the subsidiary reached the fourth state it was almost eye-level with the parent company, and the parent company respected it.

Avant-Garde starts the adolescence phase where it becomes more and more important to become distinct from the parent and have the own identity. While bending the rules and doing things differently earlier was merely due to trial and error, it was now more deliberative. As Erikson (1963) says, in this phase, the individual explores who he or she is and develops an own personal identity. At the subsidiary, this identity was a spontaneous and flexible one that believed in pragmatism, which was different from the parent company. The conflict here lay within the role confusion, since the parent company was still there and still trying to somehow maintain control over the subsidiary.

In the *Extra Mile* stage, everything revolves around effort and the desire to improve. In the subsidiary, it is a rather lonely stage, where passion and perfectionism are in focus. The field of tension between isolation and intimacy fits into Erikson's young adulthood stage and marks an important transition to the next stage, the *Family Cocoon*, which it's all about cohesion and care, as is the most important virtue in the adulthood stage. In this stage, on the one hand, the achievement from the *Extra Mile* phase is reaped and evaluated, and on the other, there is a need to nurture others and create a positive environment.

In the last stage, which is the *Biedermeier* stage in the subsidiary concept and the Maturity stage in the psychosocial development, the stagnation has come to its full manifestation and there is rather a retrospective and contemplating about the achievements than experiencing something new. In the subsidiary, the *Biedermeier* stage is not a stage that the organisation has experienced yet but is in the minds of the employees and also feared by them. In their eyes, this stage also symbolizes the surrender in the fight of autonomy. In summary, it can be stated that there are a lot of similarities with the psychosocial development of Erikson (1963). The basic conflicts are similar to what the employees depicted when they spoke about their fear of the change and their strategies for dealing

with it. The Organisational Life Story describes nothing else as the conceptualization of the organisational identity maturing, growing up.

9.3 Organisational life cycle a brief overview

The following chapter describes the organisational life cycle, which is important to understand the Organisational Life Story, because unlike the human life, the organisational life can have different courses. Organisational life cycles are one of the “most widely used concepts in the social sciences” (O’Rand and Krecker, 1990, p. 241). They can be defined as the evolution of organisations that happens in a consistent and predictable manner (Hanks, Watson, Jansen and Chandler, 1993). Adizes (1979) compared these life cycles to the ones of living organisms relating to them as something with beginning and end, birth and death. According to Hanks et al. (1993), they face in their various stages of growth different problems they must adapt to, such as adjusting to their increasing size. Not only the “organizational structures” (Quinn and Cameron, 1983, p. 33) and other aspects are changing with the life cycle stages, but also the “cognitive orientation of the organization members” (Quinn and Cameron, 1983, p. 33), their collective identity, that change with time. According to Chandler (1962), who was one of the first to apply the life cycle concept to organisations, organisations develop patterns in response to growth and market challenges. Scott and Bruce (1987) pointed out that a significant change, which will even turn into crisis, is the factor that triggers the transition from stage to another.

Author	Context	Stages	Contextual dimensions	Structural dimensions	Methodology
Greiner 1972	‘Growing organisations’	Creativity, direction, delegation, coordination, collaboration	Age, size, growth	Management focus, organisation structure, top management style, control systems, management rewards	Conceptual development of life-cycle stages
Gailbraith 1982	High-technology ventures	Proof of principle prototype, model shop, start volume production, natural growth, strategic manoeuvring	Age, size, growth, task	Tasks, people, rewards, processes, structure, leader	Conceptual development of life-cycle stages
Churchill and Lewis 1983	Small businesses	Existence, survival, success, take off resource maturity	Age, size, problems	Management style, organisation, extent of formal systems, major strategy, business owner	Empirical analysis of 110 owners and managers of small businesses
Quinn and Cameron 1983	Literature review on nine life-cycle models	Entrepreneurial stage, collectivity stage, formalisation and control stage, elaboration of structure stage	Age, size, criteria of effectiveness	Communication structures, formalisation, planning degree, strategy	Conceptual development of life cycles based upon prior life-cycle research
Miller and Friesen 1984	Corporation older than 20 years	Birth, growth, maturity, revival, decline.	Age, number of employees, sales growth	Organisational structure (formalisation, centralisation), innovation and strategy	Sample of 161 periods of 36 firms (prevalence of complementarities among variables within each stage and the inter-stage differences)
Kazanijan 1988	Technology-based new ventures	Conception and development, commercialisation, growth, stability	Age, size, growth, management problems	Organisational systems, sales/marketing, people, production, strategic, positioning, external relations	Growth model developed from two case studies; generation of sample of 105 technology ventures

Table 32: Synthesis of existing life cycle models after Engelen, Brettel and Heinemann (2010, p. 518).

Many organisational life cycle models have been devised. These life cycle models can help managers foresee complicated times and act accordingly. “It could help management know when to let go of cherished past strategies and practices that will only hinder future growth” (Hanks et al., 1993, p. 25). Table 32 by Engelen, Brettel and Heinemann (2010) shows the context in which the life cycle model appeared, the different stages within the life cycles, the dimensions it referred to and the methodology with which it was conceptualized. It becomes clear that the life cycle is mostly a conceptualization of changes going on within an organisation regarding structure, formalisation, strategy and management (Engelen et al., 2010). Looking at the single models, the models vary in the number of stages and their meanings.

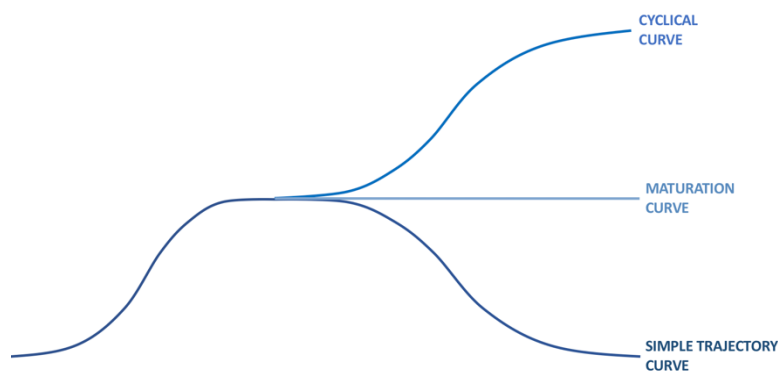


Figure 41: Different Life cycle courses

Duobiene (2013) made a synthesis of eleven different life cycle models, distinguishing five generic stages: *Start-up*, *Growth*, *Maturity*, *Renewal* and *Decline*. Intriguingly, not all the organisational life cycle models display decline, or the end of the firm. Some models stop with the *Resource Maturity* phase such as the model of Churchill and Lewis (1983) or Scott and Bruce (1987), or *Stability*, which is the last phase in Kanzanjian’s (1988) model. Whereas the classical models resemble a trajectory with an increase, stagnation and decline, there are some models that have a cyclical course, which includes stages that indicate a further rise after a recent decline, such as *Rival* in Miller and Friesen’s (1980) model or *Renewal* in Lester, Parnell and Carraher’s (2003) model. Figure 38 illustrates that there can be three different curve progressions; the simple trajectory with growth, turning point and decline; the maturation curve, characterized by growth, turning point and stabilization; and the cyclical curve that has a second rise after a previous low, and then takes either a course of stabilization such as in the model of Churchill and Lewis (1983) or one of decline, such as in the model of Miller and

Friesen (1980). The previous chapter showed that the organisational life cycle is characterized by stages, but different models describe different course of the life cycle. The different stages and trajectories will be of special importance when compared to the Organisational Life Story.

9.4 The Organisational Life Story concept and the life cycle

9.4.1 Life cycle model of the Organisational Life Story

The model in Figure 42 shows that the different themes can follow a life cycle of the organisational identity, which means that The *Enfant terrible* reflects the phase of childhood, whereas the *Avant-garde* theme reflects the phase of adolescence, the *Extra Mile* depicts the phase of early adulthood, where capitalism is the prevailing worldview. The fourth stage is the *Family Cocoon*, which represents an altruistic worldview of helping each other. The phases of the Organisational Life Story will now be described and compared to the organisational life cycle.

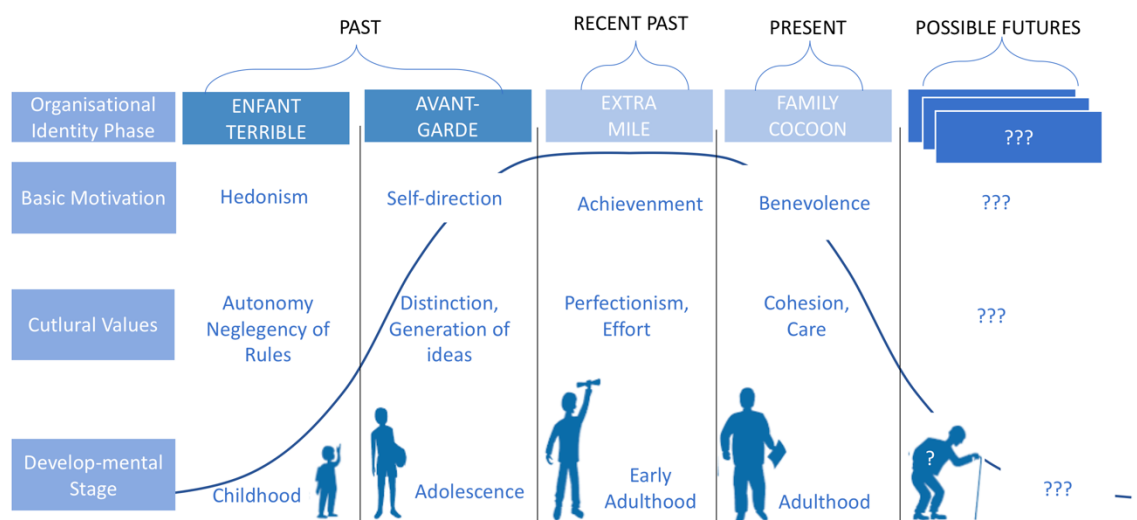


Figure 42: Life cycle with basic motivation, values and developmental stage.

Enfant Terrible

The first manifestation of the organisational identity is the *Enfant Terrible*. As a child fun is the most important thing and rules only prevent the fun, hence they are either bent or broken. The term *Enfant Terrible* is derived from French and literally means 'terrible child'. The Merriam Webster Dictionary has two different definitions for it, which show the ambivalence of the term. On the one hand, it is

“a person known for shocking remarks or outrageous behaviour” (Merriam-Webster Inc., Ed., 2018a), meaning that the person attracts negative attention because of his or her behaviour. On the other hand, it is defined as “a usually young and successful person who is strikingly unorthodox, innovative, or avant-garde” (Merriam-Webster Inc., Ed., 2018a). This indicates that the behaviour is tolerated by others because of the success. Other rules also apply. Since the *Enfant Terrible* cannot be educated it is allowed its own behaviour. Interestingly, the term *Avant-Garde*, which is the second stage of the life cycle already emerges in this definition. Moving to the next stage, there will be more emphasis on the new ideas rather than on the unruly behaviour.

The values that prevail in this stage are self-confidence, which is shown by a bigger acceptance of risks and a tendency to bend the rules due to a certain boldness that is the dominating value and behaviour here. The stage is also characterized through having fun and complicity, which means that there are a lot of joint events that mark important stages of camaraderie. In looking for fun and pleasure as the most important thing, it follows a hedonist motivational concept. Schwartz and Bardi (2001, p. 270) describe it as looking for “pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure and enjoying life)”, which means that their goal is fun, and the success that comes from it is only a side product. The model types of Schwartz (1994) have two dimensions including four higher order constructs, which are directly opposed: Self-transcendence vs. self-enhancement, conservation vs. openness to change. Hedonism, the most important value of the *Enfant Terrible*, comes between self-enhancement and openness to change (Zasuwa, 2015). This means that in the *Enfant Terrible* stage, the organisation is motivated to try something out and get a benefit of mostly fun out of that.

This stage can be compared to the start-up phase of Hanks et al. (1993) and Duobiene (2013), where entrepreneurial values are seen as the most important (Adizes, 1979; Quinn and Cameron, 1983). Hanks et al. (1993) synthesized the start-up phase of many other studies with the following characteristic: The firm is young and small in size, the growth rate is inconsistent and there are no processes and only few politics, and the founder has an important role. The structure is very simple and niches for business must be identified.

Avant-Garde

The second stage of organisational identity is the *Avant-garde*. In adolescence, it is most important to gain a certain autonomy and develop an own identity. In the *Avant-Garde* phase, new ideas and innovativeness are in focus. The term derives from the French term which comes originally from military language and means vanguard. Literally translated it means going forward. It is mostly used in literature or art, where it depicts a “group of people, who develop new and often very surprising ideas” (Merriam Webster Inc., Ed., 2018b) and is also often equated with a pioneer role. Creativity and innovation are the most important traits of this movement no matter if in art or in literature. The *Avant-garde* are not just trendsetters, but groups who induce permanent change. This name was picked for this stage of the Organisational Life Story because it is a stage where ideas and their realization matter the most. It is a stage of awakening and moving forward, thereby it is not important who had these ideas, but that they are going to be realized. This marks a particular difference to the third stage, where personal success is the most important thing.

It is important to explore new ways of doing things. In the subsidiary, these ways are pragmatism and simplicity. Spontaneity and flexibility are held as high values. The topic of a lot of stories was the positive side of change and initiative. Similar to the evolution of a child who grows to an adolescent, the motivation changes from a hedonist to an idealist one. In Schwartz’s (1994) value construct, the *Avant-Garde* falls into the self-direction motivational construct, that is shaped by “independent thought and action choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, independent, curious, choosing own goals)” (Schwartz and Bardi, 2001, p. 270). In the adolescence, the most important value is to be distinguished from others, to pursue the own way and to become as distinct from the parents as possible. On the one hand, the openness to change is high here and traditions from a parent company are questioned to the greatest degree. On the other hand, it is not as self-absorbed any more as the *Enfant Terrible* was; a transition has taken place to a more self-transcendent conception of the self.

This stage can be compared to the *Growth* stage of Duobiene (2013) or Kazanjian (1988). Hanks et al. (1993) subsume this stage as characterized by a rapid

growth, the beginning of a formal system with law enforcement and a higher volume production that in the start-up phase. In summary, one might conclude that in the *Avant-Garde* stage, even more than in the *Enfant Terrible* stage, awakening is a huge theme, and everything is subordinated to this goal.

Extra Mile

The third stage of organisational identity is the *Extra Mile*. In the stage of young adulthood, it is important to perform and show achievements. The term derives from an idiom which refers to doing more than one is required (Merriam-Webster Inc., Ed., 2018c). In an organisational context, it has often been used to describe employee engagement or organisational citizen behaviour (Van Dick, Grojean, Christ and Wieseke, 2006). The employees do more than what is expected of them because it furthers their positive self-concept. In the *Extra Mile* stage, the organisation, as well as the members of the organisation, are individualists working on their own in order to be maximally successful; there is no notion of collectivism and this value is not one of the highest. This will shift when the organisation transitions towards the *Family Cocoon* where the collectivist value will become more and more important.

The effort put into the work is a high value, as well as the passion the task is done with. It is here important to improve the self until perfectionism is reached; only then success will be the reward. This third stage fits to the achievement stage in Schwartz and Bardi's (2001, p. 270) value construct, which describes a striving for "Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (successful, capable, ambitious, influential)". This means that the being successful is key to a positive self-evaluation and there is a strong belief that the success can be reached by effort and ambition. Here, it is necessary to play by the rules and respect the social standards in order to be successful. Here, there is still an openness to change, but the emphasis lies more in the self-enhancement. This stage marks a turning point; moving towards the *Family Cocoon*, there is less self-enhancement and openness to change; the sails are not so much set on growth as rather on preservation.

This *Extra Mile* stage can be compared to the Maturity stage of Smith, Mitchel, and Summer (1985) or Miller and Friesen (1980). Lester et al. (2003, p. 343) describe this stage as the stage of success, where the size gets larger, and the

organisation gets more formal and bureaucratic. They point out that the organisation at this point has already “passed the survival test”. There are more specialized departments than in the other two stages. Hanks et al. (1993) describe this stage as the consolidation stage; in their framework, the growth has now slowed down, and the bureaucracy is already on the rise. The main goal here is to make the business profitable. It is a time of efficiency and result-orientation. In conclusion, one might say that in the *Extra Mile* stage the company now has grown up and in the prime of life.

Family Cocoon

The fourth stage of the organisational identity is the *Family Cocoon*. Here, helping each other and giving concealment and comfort combined with mutual respect are the most important things when getting older. The term *Family Cocoon* is not really a well-established term in art, literature or elsewhere. It was chosen because it best fits the prevailing values in this stage; the family-like treatment of the members of the organisation as well the organisation being home-like, where all the members can feel secure and comfortable. The cocoon, with the image of a protective covering to securely withstand the storms until the next phase, seemed fitting for this stage.

This collective conception of working is contrary to the previous stage, the *Extra Mile*. In this phase, it is now more important to treat colleagues and associates like family, which amounts to the late adulthood, where individual performance is pushed to the background and team effort and helping each other becomes more and more important. In Schwartz and Bardi's (2001, p. 270) framework, it comes closer to the motivational stage of benevolence. This term describes “Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, and responsible)”, meaning that this stage rather follows a motivation of preserving things than creating something new; fostering a comfortable and benevolent environment for employees and managers with harmony and respect. Personal success has been replaced by joint achievements and team play. In the *Family Cocoon* stage, self-enhancement is pushed in the background by self-transcendence and there is no more openness to change, but rather a conservation of tradition.

This stage can be compared to the Renewal stage of Duobiene (2013) or Lester et al. (2003), Miller and Friesen (1980) describe it as Revival stage. Hanks et al. (1993) describe it as the *Diversification* stage, where the company is the largest and has a considerable number of processes and a high degree of bureaucracy but is not dominated by these yet. The number of different products is diverse here. Lester et al. (2003, p. 343) present an interesting aspect of this phase that was also often referred to in the interviews: “The renewing organization displays a desire to return to a leaner time”. Here, the organisation has a divisional or matrix structure and information processing is complex (Lester et al., 2003). Concluding, it can be said that at this point the organisation is past the turning point. It is not in decline, but the wish back to simpler times indicates that the organisation is past its peak.

9.4.2 Chronology

Looking at the narratives of the different stages, it can be seen that those with the *Enfant Terrible* theme were mostly told by employees with a long tenure (27G over ten years, 14D over ten years, 30G over ten years) and they are all talking about the earliest times. Also, the pioneers play an important part in the first two stages of *Enfant Terrible* and *Avant-Garde*. Secondly, none of the *Extra Mile* stories is told by the old hands, but rather by employees of a medium long tenure. This indicates that this phase was not long ago. Of course, the phases and stories can overlap and there are also stories that happened in the recent past but nevertheless have the *Avant-Garde* theme (e.g. *The Low Hanging Fruits*, 29E). But there is a general movement from the *Enfant Terrible* values that were important in the beginning to the *Extra Mile* values that became important in the more recent past. Assigning specific year and date to the transition from one stage to another is not possible, because the employees have mixed memories, for some employees, anonymity, for example, started when it was 500 employees (2G), with others it was more than thousand (10E). However, if we perceive organisational identity as shared beliefs of the employees and follow the constructivist approach, there is no real milestone when the organisation transitioned from one stage to the other. The transition is only happening in the minds of the employees.

Another interesting factor that indicates in which stage the organisation is at the time of the study, is that the greatest number of stories could be assigned to the

Avant-Garde and *Enfant terrible*, which is a sign that these are the stages that are now left behind and fond memories to be told. The stories relating to the *Biedermeier* stage are all stories that express a certain fear that the employees don't want to go there. This means the *Biedermeier* is only one possible future and indicates that the organisation was at the moment of leaving the *Family Cocoon* stage when the field research was conducted. This is also shown by tangible efforts that are taken to regain the old culture, which is typical for this stage.

In summary, it can be said that the stages of organisational identity follow a certain chronology. While the stages of the *Enfant Terrible* and the *Avant-Garde* depict the past, the *Extra Mile* can rather be the recent past and the *Family Cocoon* as the present stage. Now the organisational identity seems to be at the end of the *Family Cocoon* stage, where the desire is to go back to a simpler time in the past and the value of cohesion is held high. In addition, it can be said that this organisation, which was the blueprint for the life cycle, depicts a rather positive course of the Organisational Life Story. Even though it grew very fast, it nevertheless managed to maintain its own organisational identity and therewith the identification of its members. With its good working conditions and Work-Life Balance as well as great cohesion it also managed to keep the employees satisfied. Hence, it can be stated that the organisation has a very positive culture with a lot of advocates. Nevertheless, the decline is not sparing this organisation as well and is already on the horizon.

9.4.3 Possible Futures

As mentioned, the *Biedermeier* is only one possible future. There are three different possible futures the organisation faces at the moment. One is staying in the *Family Cocoon Forever*, which would resemble the maturation curve of Figure 41 in chapter 9.3; the second is going back to the roots to the *Enfant Terrible*, which would be close to the cyclical curve in Figure 41; and the third is the fifth theme that was also depicted in the stories, the *Biedermeier*; the simple trajectory curve of Figure 38. Looking at the curves the different futures would make, Figure 43 shows that the *Biedermeier* future would conclude the life cycle with ongoing decline. The *Family Cocoon Forever* future would paint a plateau and the *Enfant Terrible Reloaded* would depict a further rise. The possible scenarios will now be described in more detail.

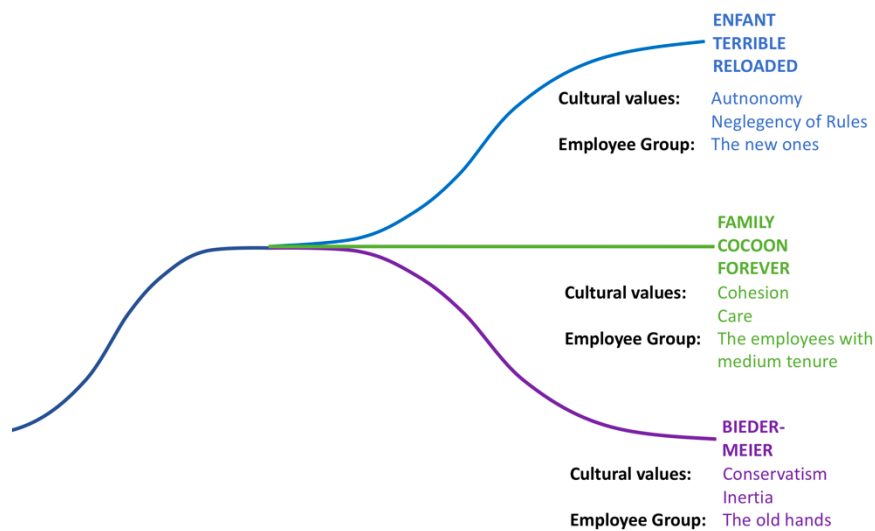


Figure 43: Possible Futures, their cultural manifestation and the group of employees.

Enfant Terrible Reloaded

The *Enfant Terrible Reloaded* is the best possible future. It is more wishful thinking than believing it would be actually possible. In the interviews, the interviewees often talked about the BEG spirit and they ascribed it to the mentality of the early days. They spoke of the cultural values also the negligence of rules and the autonomy. There are some employees who wish this phase back. By founding the instigator network there are also real efforts made to go back to the old identity. The instigator network is an initiative sponsored by the president for the whole subsidiary to bring in new ideas. A female colleague mentions her motivation to join because she wished to go “back to the roots, trying to reunite the BEG” (29E)⁴³⁵. She wants to reawaken the “innovation spirit” (29E)⁴³⁶. Another interviewee wants to increase the “collaboration across the divisions again” (24E)⁴³⁷, which is a topic of the old days for him. It is important to the members to rely on the old values such as courage and openness:

“I would really like to invest a little more into a more courageous and more open culture, [...]. I think it is really worth it to think about it. [...] Maybe the instigator network can contribute something and look for measures to take, in order to recreate such a culture. I don't have an elaborate master plan, [...] but I am motivated to disrupt things” (15E).⁴³⁸

Going back to the *Enfant Terrible* identity would boost the success of the firm in the eyes of the employees. It would be a renaissance of all that was perceived as the central core of the success. It is the most possible future the employees can depict. But not all employees share this vision. Mostly only the members of the instigator network think that it is possible. Interestingly, these employees were

all quite new and had not been with the firm when it actually was in the *Enfant Terrible* stage. They draw their wishes only from the stories they heard: “If you hear the old warhorses talk, [...] if they tell how it was back then [...], you get a little wistful” (15E)⁴³⁹. They hope that the most glorious days are yet to come.

Family Cocoon Forever

The second possible future, *Family Cocoon Forever* is that everything stays as it is. The firm has now grown up and the employees accept this grown-up state and don’t see any change at the horizon: “We have the topic that we are growing as a BEG, with which we struggle a little bit. Maybe it’s normal, and I would call it growing up” (17G)⁴⁴⁰. Everything that has happened has led to this point and the goal is reached. Employees who see this in the future are those who are satisfied with the status quo: “I am really happy here, and that I think that is a relatively good work environment, yes, offering new possibilities, and I really think that BEG is a very good employer” (5E)⁴⁴¹. They don’t wish for change, as the *Enfant Terrible Reloaded* visionaries do, and neither are they afraid of change, as the *Biedermeier* visionaries are. They enjoy the prosperity and conveniences of this phase: “I think in principle, Bosch and BEG are both terrific employers. If I compare it to my friends who work in other companies, they say: You have a canteen?” (28E)⁴⁴². Those, who favour this future, do not wish back early times when life was harder and more uncertain.

Biedermeier

The *Biedermeier* stage depicts another possible future where there is a maximum presence of bureaucracy and lethargy. This stage is the worst fear of the employees. As in life, we don’t want to become our parents, so the subsidiary fears losing its identity in favour of the parent company. Here, the organisation grows old and is not as fast and witty as it used to be. There are no new ideas at that point and no urge to express the own identity. This possible last stage is shaped by a conservative worldview; in Schwartz and Bardi’s (2001, p. 270) framework it is the motivational direction towards “Tradition: Respect, commitment, and the acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self (humble, accepting my portion in life, devout, respect for tradition, moderate).” At this stage, the organisation completely surrenders to the processes and customs of the parent company of conservatism and bureaucracy. There is a

certain acceptance to one's fate and no efforts to change anything. This is no more about self-enhancement and change, but rather a stage of conservation and self-transcendence (Zasuwa, 2015). In the *Biedermeier* stage, the own culture of the subsidiary is replaced by the full embracement of the parent company's culture, which equals a loss of identity. This loss can trigger also a loss of self-confidence, which had always been the root of the success of the firm. Hence, this stage would have a negative effect on the company.

This stage can be compared to the Decline stage of Hanks et al. (1993), Smith et al. (1985) or Lester et al. (2003). Some life cycle models omit this last stage (Kazanjian, 1988; Quinn and Cameron, 1983). Others think it should be awarded with an own stage since it has special characteristics (Lester et al., 2003, Adizes, 1979). In this stage, the growth rate is in decline, the organisation is not as successful as it used to be, and the market strategy is the reactor. There is excessive bureaucracy (Hanks et al., 1993), which makes the organisation slow and manifests in complete formalization and a strictly functional structure (Lester et al., 2003). In conclusion, this stage sounds the death knell of the organisation.

The *Biedermeier* stories are mostly told by old hands who had been with the organisation for its whole course of life until this point. As they had experienced all previous stages of birth, upswing and maturity, for them the simplest and thereby most likely future would be the simple trajectory, and since they thought all good had come to an end, they were not as hopeful as the new ones who saw a positive future on the horizon.

Reasoning for the different futures

The reason why there are different future visions is the different experiences and backgrounds of the different employees. The *Biedermeier* future is mostly depicted by old hands with a tenure of over ten years who have seen all phases of the life cycle and now see this as the inevitable. They have sometimes been with the company from the very beginning of the firm (12D, 6L). Sometimes they are even home-grown and haven't seen anything other than the firm and its course (14D, 3E, 16G), so for them, this makes this kind of future even more inevitable because they have not seen other organisations growing up. The *Family Cocoon Forever* future is mostly depicted by employees with a medium tenure (about five to ten years). One reason for this could be that they have only been there during

the *Family Cocoon* lasted and have not seen anything else. The other reason can be that they are really satisfied with how things are at the moment and don't feel a change going in a bad direction. The third possible future, the *Enfant Terrible Reloaded* is mostly seen by new employees with a tenure of less than 3 years (3E, 19E, 22E, 26E, 29E) and/or are part of the Instigator program (15E, 22E, 32E). They are not home-grown talents but have seen some other places of the firm. This indicates that how the employees see the future is dependent on their past experience and own course of life. This will have also consequences for their Advocacy which is described in the next chapter.

9.5 Indications for Employee Advocacy

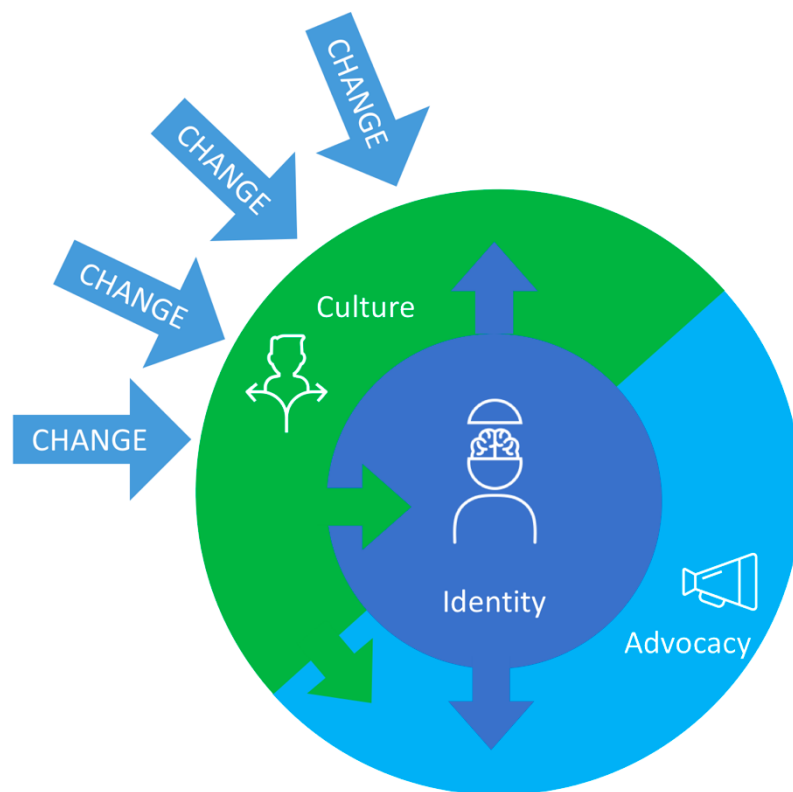


Figure 44: Relation between Organisational Identity, Organisational Culture and Advocacy.

Figure 44 shows the model developed in this research project which describes the link between Organisational Identity, Organisational Culture and Employee Advocacy. If we perceive identity as the shared beliefs that are understood and culture as the shared beliefs that are expressed, we can relate to identity as thinking and to culture as doing. Identity and culture influence each other mutually. For example, if we take the lack of processes that used to make the employees feel like rebels, then the lack of processes is the cultural manifestation that lets employees have a shared understanding that they are rebels. Change in every

form first affects the outer shell, in which the culture processes and then engages into the core, and the identity of being a rebel changes. This affects both the culture and Employee Advocacy. Employees do not act as boldly anymore because they think they are not rebels, and they don't feel special anymore. Since growth leads to change over time, so does Employee Advocacy.

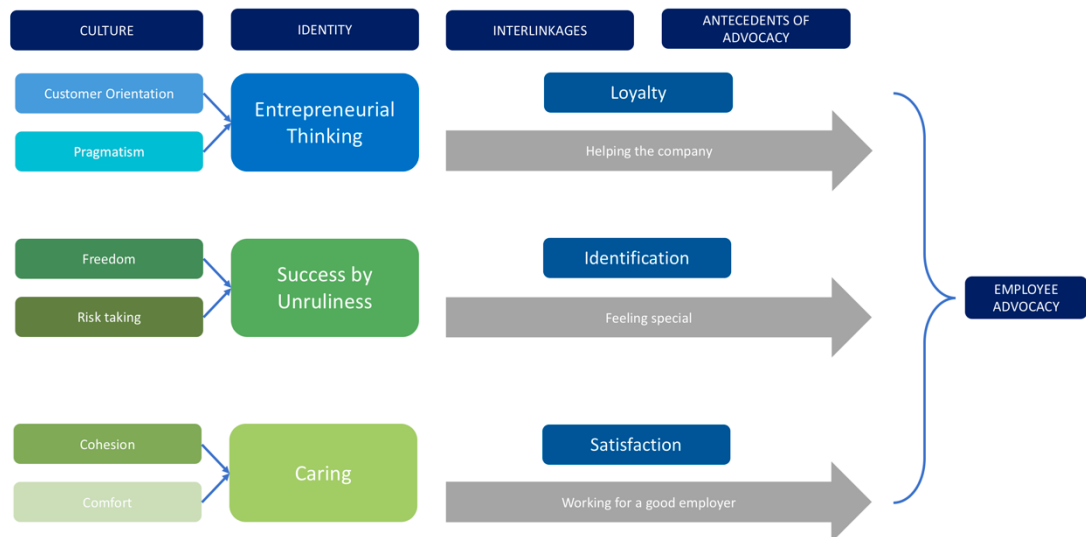


Figure 45: Relationship between culture, identity and the antecedents of Employee Advocacy.

If we look at the connections from a more detailed perspective, we have to take the antecedents of Employee Advocacy into account. The overall aim of this research project was to find out what motivates employees to become advocates from an organisational perspective. Here, it was necessary to understand how organisational culture and organisational identity link to Employee Advocacy and its antecedents loyalty, identification and satisfaction. Figure 45 shows this relation. If all three of these antecedents are held high, Advocacy is the highest. Chapter 6 showed that if the employees are loyal they want to help the company and thereby act as advocates; if they are satisfied they want to let everyone know that they work for a good employer thereby act as advocates; if they are identified as a company member, they feel proud and special and improve their own image by telling everyone for whom they work. But satisfaction, loyalty and identification and Employee Advocacy do not happen in a vacuum. They build upon the culture and identity of an organisation. Chapter 6.5 showed that each identity value links to one of the antecedents: *Loyalty to Entrepreneurial Thinking*, *Identification to Unruliness* and *Satisfaction to Caring*. Employees only have the feeling they are working for a good employer who can be advocated for if they feel comfort and

cohesion; if they think the organisation is caring. They only want to help the company by advocating for it if they think they can contribute through entrepreneurial thinking, and they only advocate if they think they have something special to tell and are proud of the organisation that is trying new things and bending rules, by Unruliness.

But how does this relate to a changing organisation? If we have the perception that while culture is the expressions of shared beliefs and identity is the understanding of them, we can see that they are interrelated. If one changes, the other does, too. During the life cycle of the subsidiary, its identity core values (*Caring, Success by Unruliness and Entrepreneurial Thinking*) changed from *Enfant Terrible* to *Family Cocoon* to an outlook into three possible futures. In the identity concerning the stages that have been reached so far, none of the values completely disappeared but the emphasis of the values changed. The culture with its six manifestations (*cohesion, comfort, risk-taking, freedom, pragmatism, customer orientation*) did change due to the environment, the growth and the success of the firm making it adapt. This means changes in the identity also triggered cultural changes. A big corporation cannot have the same culture as a small start-up; though these changes do not work all at once but gradually. The stages can only mark these points at a moment.

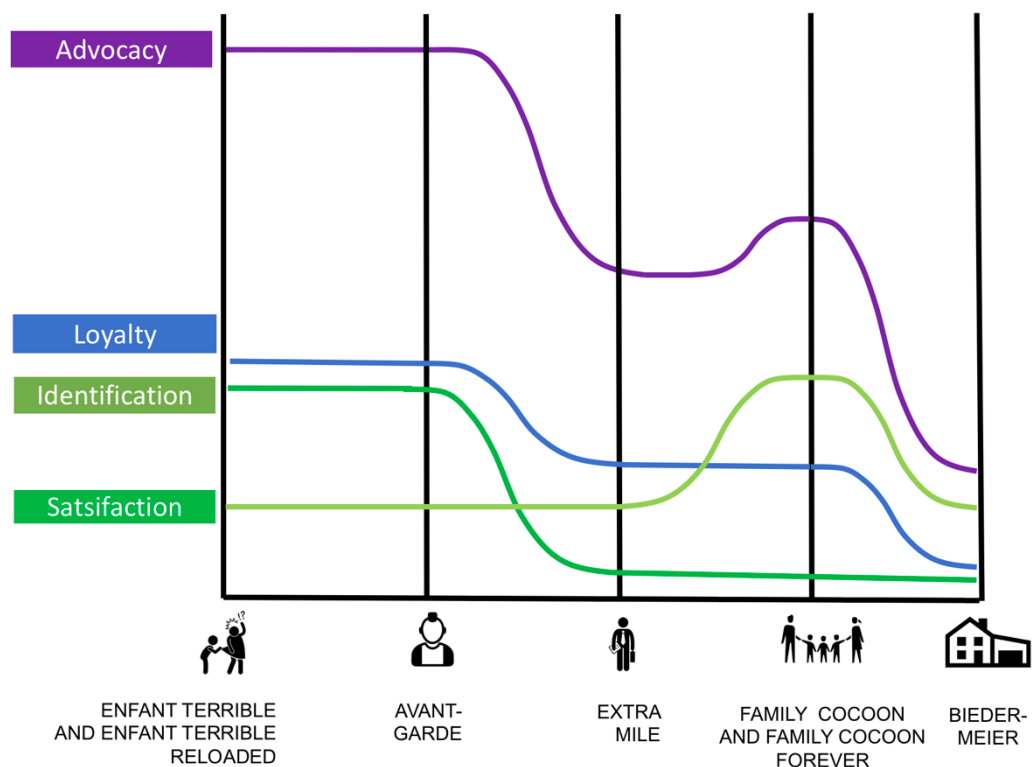


Figure 46: Life cycles of Advocacy, Loyalty, Identification, and Satisfaction.

But what does this mean for the Employee Advocacy at the different stages? Figure 46 shows in a simplified way how Employee Advocacy develops along the life cycle. It shows that Employee Advocacy is the highest in the *Enfant Terrible*, because here loyalty and identification are high, and satisfaction is on a medium level because of the high cohesion but considerably low comfort. Loyalty is high because the culture of customer orientation and pragmatism of the early days gives the people the feeling they can really make a contribution. By advertising the company to others, they feel that they can help the company. The same applies for identification; in the early days the employees feel particularly special and proud that they are part of such a risky endeavour, like a pioneer exploring new borders they like to tell people about their big plans enthusiastically.

In the *Avant-Garde* a similar picture is shown; the Employee Advocacy is also high at this point. The organisation is still small and trying to find its path. Now the endeavour is not only just an idea; the ideas bear first fruit. The early success is a reason to identify with and tell others about the special ways it's reached. The contribution one can make is still perceived as high, which leads to a high loyalty, and helping the company seems in this early phase still timely. In this stage, comfort is also not high but the high cohesion and reaching of goals together leads to a high satisfaction, and employees like to talk about how great their team is; thus, the Employee Advocacy is also still high.

In the *Extra Mile*, a decline in Employee Advocacy can be seen. Once the company got bigger the willingness to take risks and the freedom decreased, which decreased the identity of unruliness and the employees are not believing as much in the firm anymore. Also, the belief that a single person could contribute was declining, leading also to reduced loyalty. In such a situation, the satisfaction stays on the same level because on the one hand, comfort increases in a bigger firm, with more extras like a canteen and an on-site hairdresser, but on the other hand, personal success is valued over team success. The cohesion here is low because of more anonymity, so employees might talk about the good facilities but not so much about the company or team.

In the *Family Cocoon* Advocacy experiences a renaissance. The satisfaction is on the rise because cohesion is at an all-time high, success and profit are now no longer seen as the most important, and the well-being of the employees and

a family like treatment are in focus. Because the employees feel that they are appreciated and that their voice is heard, the loyalty is higher. However, identification is at an all-time low, because freedom and unruliness are a thing of the past. The employees do not talk to outsiders about being special any more. If employees are advocates here, they do it out of satisfaction and loyalty, because they are thankful for the good circumstances and want to give something back. Interestingly, if an organisation has reached this stage, not only the current stage is important but also the outlook for the future is important for the Advocacy.

Relating the different futures to the different possible outcomes in Employee Advocacy, it can be said that those with a positive outlook on the future, such as the *Family Cocoon Forever* and the *Enfant Terrible Reloaded* visionaries are the better advocates because they don't feel frustrated and anxious but rather positive. This affects their satisfaction because they think their employer will stay in good shape and things will stay as positive as they are or get even better like in the old and golden days. It also affects their identification because they don't fear losing their identity and also their loyalty because they have the feeling that they can give something back. In the negative future, the dystopian *Biedermeier* stage, they are not satisfied because they don't like the inertia, they are not identified because they think that the organisation has lost its identity and they are not loyal because they think that their contribution does not matter anymore. Looking at the different people who said this, there was a tendency that the employees who had been there the longest made the worst advocates because of their fears. Those who had the shortest tenure were full of hope for the return of the golden times and thus made the best advocates. The satisfied employees with the medium tenure make also good advocates because they were not afraid.

9.6 Summary of the chapter

As chapter 8 showed, the narrative meta-themes mark different phases of the organisational identity. They tell the Organisational Life Story, meaning that all stories told within the organisation are part of one big story. This relates to the concept of the organisational life cycle depicting change in organisations. Here, Erikson's (1963) stages of childhood development can be applied to the meta-themes: In this study, it starts with the *Enfant Terrible* as a child, moves on to the

adolescence of the *Avant-Garde*, faces early adulthood with the *Extra Mile* behaviour that transits in the *Family Cocoon* and ends with the Biedermeier stage. But the *Biedermeier* is only one possible future. Other possible futures that are seen by the interviewees is the *Family Cocoon Forever*, which can be compared to the maturity trajectory and the *Enfant Terrible Reloaded*, which relates to the cyclical trajectory. The latter two are rather positive outlooks on the future and were mostly held by new employees or those with medium tenure. Relating this back to Employee Advocacy, it can be said that in the first two phases and also the *Enfant Terrible Reloaded* phase of the life story the Employee Advocacy is particularly high. The *Biedermeier* stage is the worst phase for Employee Advocacy.

10 Conclusions and recommendations

10.1 Research summary

The aim of the research project was to find out what motivates employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective. The findings show that the antecedents of Employee Advocacy, *identification*, *job satisfaction* and *loyalty* are each linked to the organisational culture and organisation identity of the research firm: *Satisfaction to Caring*; *Identification to Unruliness*; and *Loyalty to Entrepreneurial Thinking*. There were two overarching strategies taken by the interviewees: Either they compared the status quo to the old days or they made a comparison to the parent company. The narratives revealed valuable insights into organisational culture and organisational identity.

Here, five meta-themes were generated and analysed in a two-step process with the dimensions of *Nature*, *Connection*, *Actor*, *Relation*, and *Value*. These meta-themes relate to both changes and distinction as aspects of organisational identity. The narrative themes dissect the fear of change and the worries about the loss of distinction into stages that build upon each other. Meaning, they are comparable to the life cycle of a human life from childhood to late adulthood, which was introduced as the Organisational Life Story chapter 9, but with different possible futures. The following chapter will now conclude the thesis by discussing the four main theoretical contributions as well as the methodological contributions, managerial implications, limitations, and future research possibilities

This research contributes to the knowledge in the field of organisational studies particularly in studies of organisational culture, organisational identity and Employee Advocacy. The study investigated the relationship between Employee Advocacy, its antecedents, and culture and identity of organisations. Of special interest was how the antecedents link to organisational culture and organisational identity, and how the perception of organisational culture and identity could be accessed via stories. A conceptual framework was developed with four major contributions. It became clear that accessing organisational culture and organisational identity through the looking glass of narratives can generate meaningful findings for Employee Advocacy.

10.2 Theoretical, methodological and practical contributions

10.2.1 Theoretical contributions

First theoretical contribution: Model showing the link between Employee Advocacy and its antecedents.

There is very little literature directly addressing Employee Advocacy from a non-managerial perspective or practitioners view (e.g. Raitner, 2018), nor from a motivational perspective (Tsarenko et al., 2018). In the existing publications, Employee Advocacy deduces findings from Word-of-Mouth in recruiting (Breaugh and Starke, 2000) and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Tsarenko et al., 2018; Bettencourt, 2001). Although the findings of WOM in recruiting and OCB serve as guidance for the present research, there come restrictions. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour has more aspects than talking about the employer to others such as organisational compliance (Smith et al., 1983) which may be personally, organisationally or task-related (Podsakoff et al., 2000), are not explained separately for each of the different OCB behaviours.

The other guidance from literature, WOM in recruiting, (Breaugh and Starke, 2000), is very scarce, because WOM mostly relates to marketing (Sunderam et al., 1998), especially when it comes to the motivational factors (Shinnar et al., 2004). Also, the studies here are vastly different and incomparable (Zottoli and Wanous, 2000), with the motivations only described very generically. Motives such as self-enhancement (Cable and Turban, 2003) and prosocial motives (Van Hoya, 2013) are only implicitly linked to the antecedents, satisfaction, loyalty and identification.

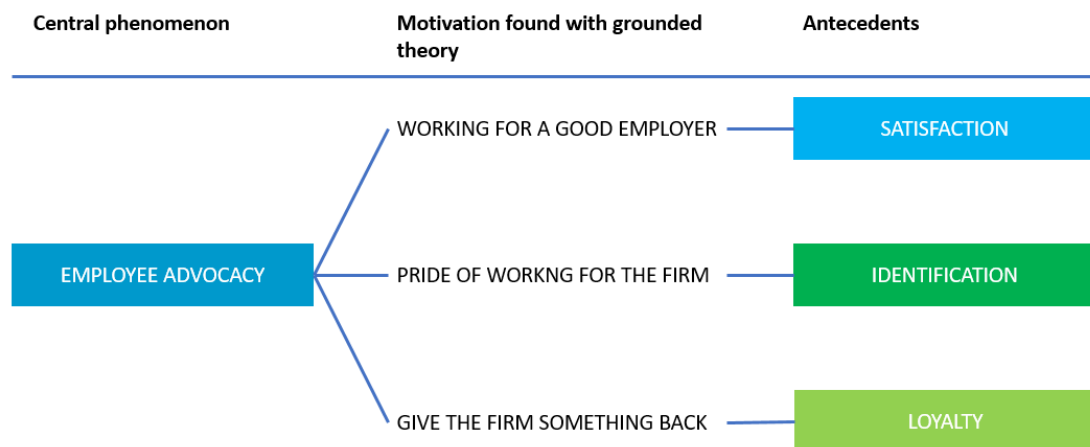


Figure 47: The link between Employee Advocacy and Satisfaction, Identification, and Loyalty.

One of the major theoretical contributions of this thesis is to fill this gap by proposing a model of Employee Advocacy which is comprised of an inter-play between satisfaction, identification and loyalty (see Figure 47).

There are specific links between Employee Advocacy and these three antecedents.

- The link between loyalty and Employee Advocacy is the wish of the employees to help the organisation, which goes along with Rioux and Penner's (2001) motives of prosocial values of wanting to help their organisation. It also confirms the link of Employee Advocacy with the concept of organisational justice (Otto and Mamatoglu, 2015).
- The link between Employee Advocacy and satisfaction is the employees' wish to let people know that they are working for a good employer. This agrees with Sunderam et al.'s (1998) findings in marketing that positive feelings are a key motivator for talking.
- The link between Employee Advocacy and identification is the employees' wish to express their pride in working for the firm, which agrees with the self-enhancement theory of Cable and Turban (2003).

Linking satisfaction, identification, and loyalty directly to Employee Advocacy without relying on other concepts such as Word-of-Mouth and Organisational Citizenship behaviour is what has been neglected in prior research so far.

Second theoretical contribution: Conceptualization of the relation between the Antecedents, Organisational Culture and Organisational Identity.

This research adds to the research on organisational culture and identity in regard to loyalty, satisfaction and identification. Looking at the antecedents of Employee Advocacy in current literature mostly shows external (Fombelle et al., 2011) and personal factors as influencing factors (Hatch and Schultz, 1997) of loyalty, satisfaction and commitment; organisational factors relating to organisational culture and organisational identity have been neglected in this concern. The theoretical contribution in this research addresses this gap.

In Albert and Whetten's theory (1985) organisational identity is central, distinctive and stable. All three of these assumptions are challenged in research (Pratt and Foreman, 2000; Tajfel and Turner, 1986; He and Brown, 2013). The findings of this research project show that there are central values shaping the organisational identity. These are important to the employees to distinguish themselves from the parent company. Here, the distinction was especially important for the identification. **This research contributes to this stream of research by linking the fear of losing the own identity by being less distinctive from the parent company to their identification**, especially the emotional component as described by Tajfel (1984).

According to the stability aspect of Identity, change was a topic that was very important for the organisational identity of the employees. It became clear that the organisation is more an evolving entity to the employees that underlies constant change and goes along with the conception of Ashforth and Mael (1996). **Regarding Employee Advocacy, besides distinctiveness, the instability of the organisational identity affected their loyalty, identification and satisfaction the most.**

Many different models conceptualize culture; only a few are analysed in this thesis. Regarding Employee Advocacy, the collective aspects of culture that revolve around the contact employees have with others are most salient. The literature review shows that the cultural aspect that includes the relationship with colleagues and superiors (Ellig, 1998; Herzberg et al. 1959) is important for satisfaction and was confirmed through these research findings. **In this research project, cohesion and comfort, which manifest in openness, helpfulness and**

good working conditions are the most important factors for satisfaction. The literature review shows that for loyalty, recognition (Jins and Radhakrishnan, 2012), interactional justice (Otto and Mamatoglu, 2015) and trust (Lipka et al., 2014) were most important. **The research findings additionally show that customer orientation and the feeling of contributing are most important for loyalty.** In the literature review, it became salient that besides goal alignment, which is rather a strategic factor (Adler and Adler, 1988), for identification mostly personal factors were important; no other organisational factor was found. **The research findings show that for identification the perceived freedom and the firm's readiness to take risks are the most important cultural aspects. Here, the risk-taking is also a strategic factor, which supports the findings of Adler and Adler (1988).**

This research adds to the existing body of literature by conceptualizing Organisational Identity with the aspects of change and distinctiveness and Organisational Culture with the aspects of cohesion, comfort, customer orientation and risk-taking, as the most important factors for the antecedents of Employee Advocacy.

Third theoretical contribution: The organisational life cycle as story

This research is the first to conceptualize the organisational life cycle as a framework for stories: **The Organisational Life Story**. Prior research failed to develop a framework for narratives that was not generic or incomplete. While existing frameworks are drawn from literature (Collison and Mackenzie, 1999; Gabriel, 1991a) or just loosely summed up themes (O'Connor, 2002), they do not adhere a framework that works in the organisational context. **This research contributes to existing research by presenting the life cycle framework for organisational stories as the Organisational Life Story.** The in-depth thematic analysis of the stories reveals their deep connection to organisational identity. The Organisational Life Story represents in each stage a phase of the organisational identity.

Using the life cycle as a framework is a new and unique way to look at organisational stories. In previous research, some publications address the idea of combining the organisational life cycle and stories (Boal and Schultz, 2007; Riad, 2011; Jalan, Sinha, and Ulus, 2014), but they do not use the life cycle as a framework in the organisational context. The stories in this research address the

early days as well as the possible future of a decline of the firm and mark every stage of the organisation's identity in relation to the Life Story.

This project also follows the tradition of Boje (1995) and Abma (2000) who conceptualized organisational stories as one big myth which multiple voices draw from. Here the collective story is the Organisational Life Story, which starts at its birth and ends with its decline. Looking at the meaning of past and future, this research adapts McAdams' (1999, p. 486) human life story, which conceptualizes life as an "internalized and evolving story that results from a person's selective appropriation of past, present and future" to the collective identity of the organisation. The past and the expected future define the life story of the organisation. **This is the first research conceptualizing the organisational narrative as one big life story.**

Fourth theoretical contribution: Conceptualizing Employee Advocacy as a dynamic concept linked to the life cycle

The fourth and most important contribution presents a new perspective on Employee Advocacy. Research to date has only looked at Employee Advocacy as a static concept, in which looking at findings from Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 2000) and Word-of-Mouth in recruiting (Van Hove, 2013; Williams et al., 1993) there is no dynamic perception of Employee Advocacy visible. Current approaches only address the current status; a current willingness of talking about the organisation and are completely neglecting the past and future of the organisation and employees. The only concept loosely relating the life cycle concept to Employee Advocacy is the employment life cycle, which describes the different phases an employee goes through in his or her stay at a specific firm (Costello, 2006; Jacobs, 2012). It relates to the change of performance, satisfaction and loyalty, and with the rise and decline of these factors, the employment life cycle proposes to keep employees in the early stages to foster talking positively about the employee (Jacobs, 2012). However, this approach only looks at a single employee from an individual perspective and does not include organisational factors.

In this research project, Employee Advocacy is not conceptualized as stable but as a dynamic concept shaped by the changes in organisational culture and identity and reflected in the stories that people tell. **Thereby past, present and future**

play an important role in Employee Advocacy. While the early stages of a young organisation are most nurturing for Employee Advocacy, the nurturing culture can also have a renaissance in later stages. Here, it is not only important that this renaissance actually arrives, and the organisation rejuvenates itself, the employees must think this kind of future is possible. The thought of a renaissance of the organisation also occurs in some life cycle models (Miller and Friesen, 1980; Flamholtz, 1986), but here there are no links to Employee Advocacy.

The outlook towards the future is just as important as the current stage of the organisation. The outlook of employees with short and mid-tenure was more positive than that of the old hands. This research project provides the new insight that keeping the organisation eternally young or giving the employees at least the outlook towards eternal youth is the key to Employee Advocacy.

10.2.2 Methodological contributions

This research project employed a new combination of methods to find out what motivated employees to be advocates from an organisational perspective, and to explore the relationship between Employee Advocacy, its antecedents, and organisational identity and organisational culture. To research this relationship, a combination of ethnography and narrative inquiry which included an auto-ethnographic account, semi-structured interviews and 48 extracted narratives was chosen. The narratives were analysed with a thematic analysis and the semi-structured interviews were analysed with grounded theory. This yielded two contributions.

The first contribution is a four-dimensional framework to analyse narratives within organisations. This framework includes dimensions found in brand narrative research being applied to organisational narratives for the first time. Researching the narratives with the dimensions *Actor*, *Connection*, *Relationship* and *Value* gives valuable insights into the organisational identity and different identity stages as well as the Organisational Life Story.

The second contribution is the combination of grounded theory and thematic analysis. The findings from thematic analysis, where the stories served as a looking glass into all important aspects of identity, culture and advocacy, helped to bring

order into the grounded theory findings including the important constructs of distinction and change. Lastly, the auto-ethnographic account evaluated the context of the findings in regard to the culture, identity and advocacy. Only by combining the findings of the different methodologies of grounded theory, thematic analysis and auto-ethnography, drafting the Organisational Life Story became possible.

10.2.3 Managerial Implications

This research project shows that Employee Advocacy is important for getting new employees in, but employees need certain circumstances in order to be willing to be advocates. This is especially important when a lot of change is going on in a firm, like start-ups growing into a big organisation, or newly-found subsidiaries. The managerial implications relate to two aspects of advocacy: the stages in the life cycle and the advocates themselves. Looking at the different stages of the life cycle, the first implication for managers is that they should assess which stage of the life cycle the organisation currently is in. In the *Enfant Terrible* and *Avant-Garde* stages, they should try to keep the magic alive as long as possible. This can be done by furthering *Enfant Terrible* behaviour by not making any specifications or by encouraging the bold ideas of the *Avant-Garde*. It can also happen through idea-initiatives like the instigators in the subsidiary. In this stage, managers should point out how special the organisation and its endeavour are. This should happen via stories, because these stories of successful projects of the early days have the power to last through the whole organisation's life.

Once beyond these two stages best for Employee Advocacy, there are still some things that can be done. In the *Extra Mile* stage, besides trying to move to the next stage, it can also depict a positive picture of the future such as rejuvenation. In the *Family Cocoon* stage, managers should emphasize the cohesion and comfort and that the organisation is now in a state of well-being, because satisfaction here is the strongest trigger for Employee Advocacy. But also hints of a possible rejuvenation of the organisation taking it back to its early glory can be effective. Here, also initiatives like the instigators can help to bring the culture back, or initiatives that look into the history of the organisation, like anniversaries, can be effective. Organisations should by any means avoid landing in the *Biedermeier* stage, because not only do the employees here make the worst advocates but generating a positive outlook on the future is here the most difficult.

Looking at the different target groups for advocacy, managers should first avoid taking old hands, because they have the worst outlook on the future. They rather should use short-tenured employees who are still in the honeymoon phase and have the most positive outlook on the future, or employees with mid-tenure who also have a quite positive outlook on the future. To socialize the honeymooners, internal mentoring programs can help, as can making the old hands tell their stories to the new ones. The research findings also showed not only that important for Employee advocacy is the past, present and future of an organisation, but also the personal experience of the employee. Management can further advocacy by being aware of the stages and knowing the organisation's identity.

10.3 Limitations and future research

No research goes without limitations. However, these limitations could be the ground for fruitful future research.

Generalisability

Due to the decision to take a qualitative approach to the research aim, generalisability was not the aim of the study. Deliberately, only one subsidiary of one large corporation in Germany was chosen. Going down this route had the advantage of researching one organisation in depth and foregoing the pitfall of gaining only superficial insights of organisational culture and organisational identity, as because these constructs are mostly subconscious within the heads of employees they require extensive researching. Nevertheless, future research could look into comparing multiple subsidiaries in several countries to look at how nationality and industry could affect the findings.

Secondly, within in this one subsidiary 33 interviews were conducted, of which only eight were conducted with women. Since the subsidiary had a very low rate of female employees; this was already above the ratio. The findings with women were not largely differing from those with men besides their higher focus on personal success rather than fun. However, future research might look into organisations that have a higher proportion of women to see whether this influences the culture and identity of the organisation and in turn Employee Advocacy.

Another point is that the research generated 48 narratives. These revealed very fruitful insights and acted as a looking glass into organisational identity and organisational culture. In particular, the connection dimension was an interesting one because it has not been looked into in past publications. The renegotiation between in-group and out-group within narratives could be researched on a broader scale.

Researcher Bias

I chose to research one organisation in depth. This also included staying at the organisation and working there as a doctoral researcher for four years. One side effect of this was that I knew some interviewees on a work basis. This had certain advantages, such as knowing who to pick in regard to advocacy, since it was important for the research to pick employees who considered themselves as advocates. Another advantage was that they were not afraid of talking openly in the interviews because they considered me as an insider who belonged to the in-group and expressed this openly in the interviews. They would not have talked this freely if they were talking to an outsider and had the fear that they would say something wrong. However, being in the organisation as an employee, I had my own preconceptions about the organisational identity and organisational culture and had to be careful not to mix these with those of the interviews. Within the research process, I tried to always keep this in mind and to separate my role as a researcher from my role as an employee. This has also been discussed in chapter 5.4 extensively. Nevertheless, some remaining bias is still possible. Future research could here address this, by analysing different organisations with being less an insider by staying only a couple of months in the organisations, or only by making regular visits.

Full assessment of the life cycle

The life cycle of the organisation turned out to be a very important construct in this research project. Although I stayed with the organisation for a few years, it was only possible for me to experience its current life cycle phase (Family Cocoon). Additionally, the interviews took place only within a time frame of eight months, so all other phases of the life cycles either lay in the past or in the future. And there could not be any statements about the transitions from one phase to the other. Since the conception of identity and culture in this research project is

that these are shared beliefs and there is no objective assessment of them, this is not seen as a flaw of the research. The interviewees' perspectives on the past and future are what mattered more than the actual stage. However, future research could explore multiple organisations or even subsidiaries of an organisation at the different life cycle stages and gain real-time experiences of the relationship between organisational identity, organisational culture and the antecedents of advocacy. This could also help to assess the relationship between employee life cycle and organisational life cycle, since this was an interesting finding on the interviewees' outlook towards the future. It would also be interesting to look into different subsidiaries with different cultures and since this research was with an incorporated start-up to also explore the life cycles from a start-up perspective in regard to Employee Advocacy.

10.4 Concluding remarks

"All children except one grow up" J. M. Barrie (1999), Peter Pan

Since stories are a very important construct within this thesis, it seems appropriate to end this thesis with a quote from a story. This is the famous first sentence of J.M. Barrie's novel *Peter Pan*. The story is about a boy who lived in Neverland and never grows up. Together with the lost boys, Peter survives various adventures; he fights pirates and crocodiles, swims with mermaids and dances with fairies. In Neverland, the children are able to live out their childhood, have fun and live a life without obligations. Peter invites the Darling children to live with him in Neverland getting there by flying. Peter alleges that all children can fly but forget how to when they grow up. This stands for the power of belief.

As an allegory for eternal youth and infantility, *Peter Pan* gives us the impression that growing up is a choice, and if we do so we lose our special powers such as the ability to fly. But in the moral of the story, Peter can only preserve his infantility by forgetting everything he experienced and not learning from his own mistakes. So, besides the obvious advantages of youth, it is important to grow and learn, but also to keep some youthful values like fun and friendship alive. This is valid for humans, and for organisations, too.

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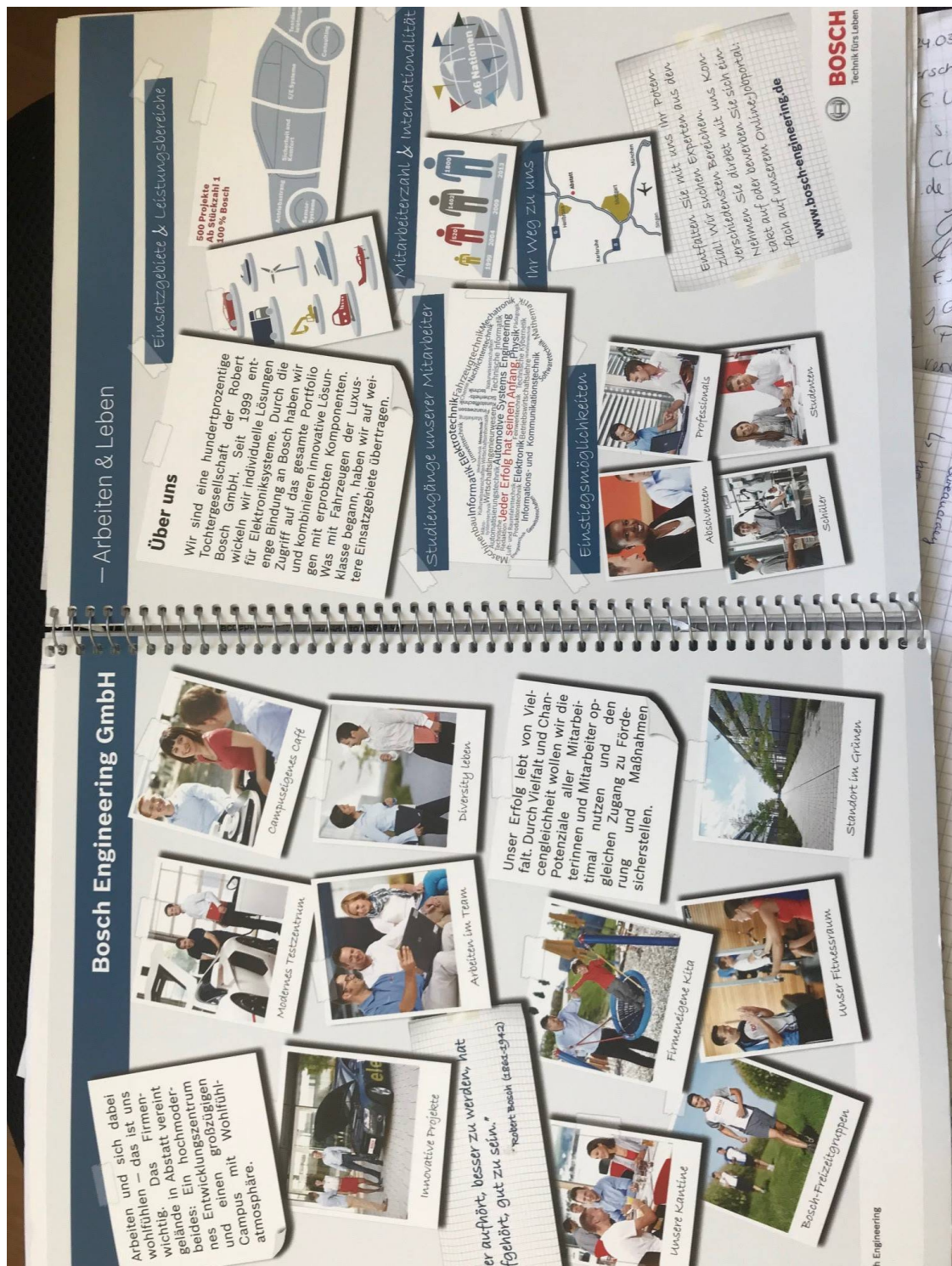
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Appendix I – Information about the subsidiary



Appendix II – Stories

Enfant Terrible

Inter-viewee	Title	Story (Original)	Story (Translated)
4E	That's not my job	<p>„Ich sag nur ein Beispiel, letzte Woche, oder diese Woche ich weiß gar nicht mehr. Eigentlich da typisch Bosch. ich steh unten am Prüfstand, ich hatte ein Rollentest, vor mir war ein anderer auf der Rolle, da kommt ein Kollege, kommen Kollegen aus Feuerbach, die im gleichen Projekt arbeiten hier her und wollen eine Fahrt zurück und ähm, man stellt halt fest, ich hab das halt mitgekriegt, weil ich gewartet hatte bis der Test fertig war. Man stellt halt fest, dass das Fahrzeug jetzt noch nicht so vorbereitet ist, wie die es brauchen, und die müssten noch flashen, also das ist halt das Fahrzeug programmieren. Und dann stellt sich der hin und sagt: "Also flashen das kann ich nicht, das tue ich nicht, das hab ich einmal gemacht, da ist das ganze Fahrzeug, da war das Fahrzeug, kaputt also das mache ich nicht. Dann denke ich mir so, ja das ist typisch Bosch, ja dieses, ja, "ich hab das mal gemacht, das ging kaputt und als nee, da ist jemand anders für zuständig."</p>	<p>„I will just name one example of last week or this week, I can't remember. And it's actually typically Bosch. I was standing at the dyno and had to wait for a roll test. In front of me, there were two colleagues from Feuerbach, who work in the same project and want to drive back. I picked that up because I had to wait until my test was done. And then they discover, that the car is not as well prepared as they needed it. It still had to be flashed and programmed. And then this one is standing there and says: Flashing - I cannot do this, I will not do it, I did it once, and after that the car was broken, so I won't do this". And I think, this is so typically Bosch, saying "I did it once and it broke, no, this is somebody else's task."</p>
14D	The useless paperwork	<p>„Ja vielleicht zu diesem Thema: alles selber gestalten. War unser erstes Softwareprojekt da gemacht und da kommt Herr Chef dann zu mir an und sagt so ahm" ja wie testest du deine Software". Naja hab ich mir noch keine Gedanken drüber gemacht, so groß wird man halt schon mal gucken ob sie tut. Dann hat er so gemeint „ja hm ah guck doch mal, dass man da mal beim Bosch guckt wie testen die, was machen die eigentlich und dann machen wir bei das bei uns halt, dass wir halt mal irgendwie n template machst, dass so auch die anderen testen. Weil ah kam dann raus, hat sich irgendwie noch keiner in dem ganzen Laden Gedanken gemacht wie man das testet, dann bin ich bei meinem Bosch dann vorstellig geworden, der Bosch hat dann viel Papier rausgekratzt wo aber dann von den Leuten wo ich gesprochen hab klar war, das steht auf dem Papier, aber eigentlich machen se nix davon was se da auf Ihrem Papier schreiben und dann hatten wir halt die Chance das zu nehmen, zu verändern an das was wir tun und dann am Ende uns quasi unseren Prozess selber zu schreiben. Also das ist so ein bisschen. Wenn ich jetzt heute jemanden neu einstelle das geht dann ein bisschen anders."</p>	<p>„Yeah maybe relating to the topic "shaping things". It was our first software project and Mr. Superior approached me and said: "Hey, how are you testing your software?" And I haven't been thinking much about that, rather yeah, we will sure check if it works in the end. And he said "Yeah, just look how they do it at Bosch, what exactly are they doing and then we adapt it for us, that you somehow make a template and the others test it." And then it turned out, that in the whole joint, nobody ever thought about how we test stuff. So I approached Bosch, and they fetched out a lot of paperwork. But then I talked to people. Yes, this stands on the paper, but actually they are not doing anything of this. And then we had the chance to take this and change it to that what we really do, and in the end write our own process. This is what I meant. If I hire somebody nowadays it is a little different."</p>
16G	Dancers at the summer fair	<p>„Es gab wirklich mal ein Sommerfest, das ist echt kein Witz, da hatten, da haben die, die es organisiert haben, Tänzerinnen organisiert, das wäre heute undenkbar. Das war damals schon unpassend. Aber als das dann, als die praktisch angefangen haben, hab ich gedacht, sag mal, was ist denn hier jetzt los. Und das ist halt ne Riesenparty gewesen dann. Die hatten ja auch alle Klamotten an und so weiter, das war also, nicht falsch verstehen. Aber so zum einheizen praktisch, aber das war schon auch richtig Party Und ist es in Ordnung ist es compliant, das gab es da nicht. Ja oder auch Weihnachtsfeiern, Einbauhalle, weißt du, da haben alle mitgeholfen. Da waren halt 200 Leute im Einsatz, haben Bierbänke aufgebaut, sich um Essen gekümmert. Und das wesentliche war, man saß zusammen und hat sich ausgetauscht und da ging es nicht darum, was jetzt für ein Geschenk da jetzt überreicht wird und was es</p>	<p>„There was indeed this one summer fair, this is no joke, the people who organized the whole thing hired dancers, which would unimaginable nowadays, it was also inappropriate back then. But when it started, I thought, what the heck is going on? And it was just this massive party. They sure had their clothes on and so on, don't get me wrong, but just to get people in the right mood, and it was a real party. And the question, is this compliant, that simply was not there. Also the christmas parties in the installation hall, you know, everyone helped. There were 200 people that set up ale-benches and arranged food. The essential thing was to sit together and share thoughts, and nobody cared what kind of gift they got</p>

		zum essen gibt oder da hat man halt Pizza bestellt und es war in Ordnung. Das Wesentliche war eigentlich, dass man sich austauscht und zusammensitzt"	and what's for dinner. We just ordered pizza and it was ok. The essential thing was actually to sit together and share thoughts."
17G	The cloak and dagger operation for Audi	„Das Bild, das mir im Kopf bleibt ist, es ist Montag morgens und wir hocken in unserem Büro, in einem Halbkreis, von 7 oder 8 in unserer Gruppe damals. Und in der Mitte saß der Herr 6L und liest und aus irgendeinem Gesetzbuch vor. Und Hintergrund, was passiert ist: [...] mittwochs oder donnerstags, kam eine Anfrage rein, dass der Herr OEM-CEO der war damals Vorstandsvorsitzender Audi [...]. Und er sollte ein neues Bentley Cabriolet in Nevada irgendwie zu einem Presetermin fahren. Und es war irgendwie ein halbes Jahr vor Serie unser Steuergerät war noch nicht Serienreif, und solange das Gerät noch nicht serienreif ist, ist unsere Airbag-Warnlampe an, weil der Airbag ist nicht aktiv und wenn er nicht aktiv ist, muss man das dem Fahrer zeigen, und dann ist die Warnlampe an. So. Und jetzt sagt der Audi aber, das sieht aber scheiße aus, wenn jetzt hier Fotos gemacht werden, und da leuchtet die Warnlampe auf, also schickt uns mal einen Datensatz, dass die Lampe aus ist. Geht nicht, der Airbag ist ja nicht aktiv und wenn die Lampe aus ist, dann könnte man denken, das Ding funktioniert. Ja, hier wir übernehmen die Verantwortung und alles klar. Wir haben das dann gemacht, [...]und haben diesen Datensatz erzeugt. In einer Nacht und Nebelaktion und der musste dann auch getestet werden und die Tests liefen halt am Wochenende. So und dann sind halt samstags und sonntags jeweils zwei Kollegen von uns hier, haben vorschriftsmäßig sich angemeldet an der Pforte, hier zwei Stunden gearbeitet, die Tests angeschmissen und wieder raus. Montags morgens war der Test fertig, wir haben die Daten an Audi geschickt. Der Kunde war mega zufrieden, alles gut [...], vier Stunden später kam denn dann der 6L und hat uns vorgelesen, dass Sonntagsarbeit strengstens verboten ist und nur in Sonderfällen und Notfällen und für gewisse Branchen, Taxi, Krankenhaus, Restaurants, Hotel etc. gilt und alle anderen dürfen nicht arbeiten. Und dann haben wir versucht zu argumentieren, es war ein Notfall, weil der Kunde es unbedingt wollte. Und die Antwort war nein, wenn der Herr OEM-CEO, mit drei Tage Vorwarnzeit sein Auto fahren will [...]. Und ich glaube seitdem hat nie mehr jemand sonntags - offiziell – gearbeitet“.	There is one picture that sticks in my head. It is Monday morning and we are sitting in our office in half circle, it was seven or eight in our group at that time. And Mr. 6L reads from some law code. What did happen? I think it was Wednesday or Thursday, there came in a request, that Mr. OEM-CEO, back then he was chairman of Audi [...], should get a new Bentley Cabriolet in Nevada and drive to a press event. And somehow it was half a year before series production and our control unit was not ready to go into production, and as long as the device is not ready, our airbag warning light is on, because the airbag is not active, and this has to be shown to the driver, so the lamp is on. But now Audi came and said, "this looks like shit, when photos are taken, and the warning light is on. So send us a new data set, to turn of the light". But we told them this does not work, if the light is off, one might think the thing works. And they said "we accept the liability, say no more". So we did it and created this data set - in a cloak and dagger operation. And of course it had to be tested and the tests ran at the weekend. And so, Saturday and Sunday each two of the team here, registered at the front gate, worked two hours, started the tests and left. Monday morning the test was done and we sent the dataset to Audi. And the customer was absolutely satisfied, all well [...]. Four hours later, Mr 6L came and read to us, that Sunday work is strictly prohibited and only allowed in special cases, emergencies and for specific industries, such as taxis, hospitals, restaurants, hotels, etc. and everybody else is not allowed to work. And then we tried to argue, it was an emergency, because the customer really wanted it. But the answer was no this is not an emergency, when Mr. OEM-CEO wants to drive his car with three days advance warning time [...]. And I think ever since nobody worked on a Sunday - officially - anymore.
19E	The tricycle tryout	„Ich finde es hier bei BEG toll, dass der Herr Geschäftsführer noch so nah an der täglichen Arbeit ist. Es gibt ja Leistungsvorgaben...wenn bei der Überwachung selbstbeschleuniger passieren können, also, dass es von alleine beschleunigt, dann muss der Herr Geschäftsführer unterschreiben, dass es trotzdem in Serie geht und da gibt es ein schönes Bsp., dass Herr Geschäftsführer meinte, er könnte mir das jetzt stundenlang erklären, es ging um das 3-rädrige Motorrad., das müsste man ausprobieren. Und dann setzte er sich dann drauf in seinem Anzug und hat gesagt, ja es sei kein Problem, das kann man wegbremsen, man merkt es nur ganz leicht und hat dann die Unterschrift daruntergesetzt... Weg von dieser Bürokratie, was hier immer mehr kommt, aber so was finde ich, macht es einmal den Herr Ge-	“I like it here at BEG, that Mr. President is so close to the daily work. There are performance targets, if in maintainance could self-accelerations take place, which means the vehicle accelerates on its own, then that Mr. President has to sign, that it is nevertheless ready for series production and there is a nice example that Mr. President said, I could spent hours explaining it to him, it was about the tricycle, or he could just try it out. And then he sat on it in his suit, and said, ok that's not a problem, you can overbrake it, you only slightly notice it and signed the document. Without any bureacracy, which is more and more visible. But I think,

		<p>schäftsführer sehr menschlich aber auch begeistert es mich hierfür zu arbeiten, wenn ich mich BOSCH'lern unterhalte, die kennen nicht mal den Bereichsvorstand und hier kennt jeder den Herr Geschäftsführer“</p>	<p>things like that humanize that Mr. President very much and on the other hand this fascinates me to work here. If I talk to other Bosch'ler, they don't even know their Divisionary chair, and here everybody knows that Mr. President.“</p>
21E	The barbecue popped by the police	<p>“Das erste Projekt, wo ich dazugekommen bin für BMW, da hat man Ende 2013 zum Projektende, da gab es hier ein kleines Sit-in vom Projektleiter mit Essen und Sekt und da sind dann alle Mitarbeiter vom Projekt und der Fachabteilung dazugekommen. Und abends sind wir dann Grillen gegangen nach Ludwigsburg. Mit dem Firmenwagen vorgefahren, der Projektleiter hat erstmal alles mit Bier, Cola und Fanta vollgeladen und die Klimaanlage voll aufgedreht, dass auch alles schön kalt waren und dann wir nach Ludwigsburg auf den Grillplatz gefahren und dort gegrillt bis die Polizei abends kam. Wir mussten dann die ganzen Fahrzeuge wegfahren, dann meinten wir auch das sind Geschäftswagen, die dürfen hier stehen, aber die Polizisten meinte ne das dürfen die nicht dann mussten wir die umparken“</p>	<p>„The first project I came to was BMW, this was at the end of 2013, and there was a little sit-in organised by the project lead with food and sparkling wine and then all employees of the project and the special departments came together and in the evening we had a barbecue in Ludwigsburg. We pulled up the company cars and the project lead loaded them full with beer, coke and fanta and turned the air condition fully up, to keep everything cold and then we drove to Ludwigsburg to the barbecue area and grilled until the police arrived. We then had to put away the cars and said but these are company cars, they are allowed to stand here, but the police said, they are not, and then we had to repark them.“</p>
21E	The proving trip without licence	<p>“Bei BMW gibt es Richtlinien, dass man bestimmte Führerscheine besitzen muss, aber das hat mir zeitlich nicht gereicht, weil ich noch nicht so lange dabei bin, die anderen Kollegen haben das schon länger aber auch nicht alle. Und weil ich Nachwuchs bekommen habe, konnte ich im Herbst den letzten Führerschein nicht machen. Und BMW Fahrzeuge, wenn sie uns überstellt sind, brauchen wir den nicht, wenn wir die haben, dürfen wir die bewegen, aber auf Erprobung waren 16 Mann und 2 Fahrzeuge, 10 Tage und ich hatte den Führerschein nicht und durfte nur fahren lassen und musste immer einen Chauffeur suchen der mich durch die Gegen fährt. Das war nicht so amüsant. (lacht) Die anderen Kollegen hatten keine Zeit, deshalb bin ich mit, dass wir was auswerten konnte und Support leisten halt. War hauptsächlich im Hotel und Messungen ausgewertet. Das war meine schlimmste Erprobung.“</p>	<p>„At BMW there are guidelines, that you have a specific driving permit, but that was not possible for me time-wise, because I am not that long here, and the other colleagues do possess this already, but not all of them. And because we got addition to the family, I was not able to take the test for the driving permit last autumn. The thing is with BMW vehicle, if we have them here, we don't need these licenses, but on this proving trip, we were 16 men and 2 vehicles for 10 ten days and I did not have the license and only had other people drive me. I had to constantly look for a chauffeur, who cruises me around. That was not so amusing (laughs). But the other colleagues did not have the time and so I came to the trip, to make sure we had something to evaluate. Most of the time I spent in the hotel and evaluated the measurement. This was my worst proving trip.“</p>
21E	Fried eggs on the hood	<p>„Oder Spiegeleier braten auf der Erprobung auf der Motorhaube in USA vor zwei Jahren. Da waren sie vor zwei Jahren in den USA auf der Sommererprobung, im Death Valley bei einer Erprobung und da hatte es über 50 Grad Celsius im Schatten und dann hat man sich überlegt Spiegeleier auf der Motorhaube zu braten. Ich glaube die Lackkratzer sind heute noch auf der Motorhaube.BMW, aber der wurde verschrottet. Die Motorhaube war halt schräg und das Ei ist dann nach unten geflossen bis es hart war. (lacht) Wir haben es dann aber nicht probiert. Die Motorhaube war ja doch nicht so sauber.“</p>	<p>„Another thing was baking fried eggs on the hood in the USA two years ago. We were two years ago in the USA for the summer proving trip, in death valley, and there were over 50 degree celsius in the shade and then someone came up with the idea to bake fried eggs on the hood. I think, the scrapes in the coating are still there. But I think it was sold for scrap. Because funnily the hood was slant and the egg melted down until it got boiled (laughs). We didn't taste it afterwards because the hood was not that clean.“</p>
26E	The extinguishing mistake	<p>“Auf der Leistungsrolle brennt es gerne und auch beim DGS brennt es da immer wieder oder in Schwierdingen. Und da hat es wohl die Betriebsfeuerwehr mal geschafft, hinzufahren bei einem Einsatz und es stand vor dieser Leistungs-</p>	<p>„In the performance dynamometer there are regular fires and also at DGS, ist the same or in Schwierdingen. And the company fire department accomplished it to drive up to there during an operation - in front</p>

		<p>rolle auf der Straße ein Auto mit offener Motorhaube. Und die dachten, dass das Auto das ist, das gelöscht werden muss und haben das Auto komplett ausgeschäumt. Aber eigentlich hat es drinnen auf der Leistungsrolle gebrannt. Und dann haben sie irgendwann die Türen aufgemacht und gesagt „Jetzt löscht mal da drinnen noch, weil hier draußen das Auto, das war eigentlich noch gut.“</p>	<p>of this performance dynamometer, there stood a car on the street with an open hood, and they thought, this is the car that has to be extinguished, so they foamed the whole car. But actually inside the performance dyno was the fire. So the employees at some point opened the doors and said: "So could you now please quench inside, too. Because this car here outside is actually good."</p>
27G	The Antagonist in the BEG Jacket	<p>„Also was vielleicht auch ganz interessant war, ja so die, ja ich erinnere mich dran, als die CRI gegründet worden ist, da einige Boschler in die CRI gekommen sind, die eigentlich immer sehr kritisch der BEG gegenübergestanden sind, da gab es zum Beispiel, den Herrn Bosch-Abteilungsleiter. Das war ein Abteilungsleiter bei CC und ich hab das damals mitbekommen, dass es diese CRI geben soll und ich weiß noch dass ich dann dem Herr BEG-Abteilungsleiter meinem alten Abteilungsleiter berichtet habe und der hat sich dann tierisch darüber gefreut, ha, unser Gegenspieler immer schon gegen die BEG. Und dann werde ich nie vergessen, hat der Herr BEG-Abteilungsleiter gesagt, jetzt gehen sie gleich mal, zum SAM holen eine BEG Jacke und nehmen sie dem Herr Bosch-Abteilungsleiter mit und sagen schönen Gruß von der BEG, jetzt darf er auch endlich mal eine BEG Jacke tragen. Das ist auch so eine typische Geschichte, was vielleicht auch so ein bisschen auch erzählt, wie es in der Vergangenheit war“</p>	<p>„There was something, that might have been interesting, I remember, when the CRI was founded, some of the Bosch'lers came to CRI, most of them critical to the BEG, as an example there was Mr. Bosch Director. He was a director at CC and I caught up that the CRI should be created and I remember that I walked up to my old director and told him. And he was totally happy, because of this antagonist, who has always been against BEG. And I will never forget that Mr. BEG Director said: "So now you got to the SAM department and take a BEG jacket and bring it to Mr. Bosch Director with regards from the BEG. Now he finally is allowed to wear the BEG jacket". This is also a typical story about the past.</p>
30G	The Porsche Interview	<p>„Der Herr Gründer hat am Anfang bei den Vorstellungsgesprächen, da hat er immer jeden, also die Vorstellungsgespräche waren meistens in Schwieberdingen, weil da die Personalabteilung war am Anfang und der hat dann immer jeden Bewerber in seinen Porsche gesetzt und ist mit dem Porsche nach Tamm gefahren und hat denen das neue Firmengebäude in Tamm gezeigt und ist quasi hin und wieder zurück gefahren. Und das war total glaube ich für viele. Also bei mir ging das leider nicht, weil ich noch ein Vorstellungsgespräch bei Bosch hatte, aber das war schon was, was glaube ich viele schon sehr beeindruckt hat.“</p>	<p>„Mr. Founder had at the beginning in the job interviews, he had always, so the interviews were mostly in Schwieberdingen, because the HR department was there, and at the beginning, he sat every applicant into his Porsche and drove to Tamm with them and showed them the new company building and then drove back. And this was for most of them, it was not possible with me, because I had another interview at Bosch, but that was something, I believe impressed a lot of them“</p>
18E	Breaking in the Jaguar	<p>„Hatten Spaß zusammen, wurden von der Polizei fast verhaftet. Wir sind auch mal abends und haben bisschen geshoppt und dann ging der Kofferraum nicht mehr auf und da war aber der Laptop drin. Dann haben wir versucht den irgendwie aufzumachen und dann kam irgendwann ein Polizist an und hat sich gewundert. Dann kamen wir erstmal in Erklärungsnot, weil wir das Auto aufbrechen wollten, das wir den schönen Jaguar aufbrechen wollten. Danach hat er uns dann geholfen. (lacht)“</p>	<p>„We had so much fun together and were almost arrested by the police. We were out and about in the evening and also did a little shopping and then the truck was not openable anymore but the laptop was inside. So we tried to open it somehow and then a police officer came and was surprised. So at first we could not offer an explanation for wanting to break into the car, that nice Jaguar. But in the end, he helped us.“</p>
26E	Fire alert with the big boss	<p>„Und sich schweife jetzt gerade in bisschen ab, aber ganz interessant ist auch zum Beispiel einen Kollegen von mir gab es, da ist die Freundin, die macht so - wie heißt das – Junior-Manager-Programm, und die ist dann auch bei so einem G, bei so einem Shadowing mit“gelaufen, dann war Feueralarm und dann hat die auf der Treppe wirklich den G1 gesehen und „Uaaaaahhhh“ und ich habe so gedacht „Na, und?““. Ersten würde ich den wahrscheinlich nicht mal erkennen, wenn ich an ihm vorbeilaufe, weil ich gar nichts mit dem zu tun habe. Und das wäre für mich vollkommen „Na, und?““. Dann läuft der halt neben mir auf der</p>	<p>„I am starting to stray a little now, but it is a quite interesting topic, a colleague of mine experienced. His girlfriend is, she does a - what is it called, junior managers program, and she did also shadowing with an executive. And then there was fire alert and on the stairs she really saw the CEO of Bosch, and was really "Uaaaaah" and I just thought "so what?". First of all, I would not even recognize him, when I passed him, because I am not concerned about him. And also it would be totally, "so</p>

		Treppe. Erstens sind wir nicht giftig, noch ist er heilig"	what, he is only walking besides me on the stairs, he is neither poisons nor sacred."
5E	Popsicles at the balcony	"Eine Geschichte mit de Sommer. Manchmal ist einer in den Supermarkt marschiert und hat 100 Eistüten gekauft und dann ist halt die kmplette Firma auf den Balkon und hat Eis gegessen. Und das gab es relativ häufig, halt immer wenn etwas besonderes war. Halt einer hat ein Projekt ins Ziel gebracht. DAs gibt es halt jetzt nicht mehr. Ja, ist einfach zu groß der Laden."	„One story of the summer, sometimes somebody just walked right to the supermarket and bought 100 popsicles and then the whole company was sitting on the balkony and ate ice-cream. This actually happened a lot, mostly if something speical happened, for example when a project was led to success. This does not occur anymore. The firm just became too big."
14D	The Young Bunch	"Oder vielleicht eine andere Anekdote, als 12D dann kam von GES als neuer Gruppenleiter im Diesel hat er also die Gruppe ahm da so erste Sitzung, da zusammengerufen und dann war so die Vorstellungsrunde, so wer was macht und dann hat also jeder gesagt ich bin jetzt schon 6 Monate da, ich bin 9 Monate da, ich bin jetzt grade gekommen und da hat man so richtig gesehen. Da hat man richtig gesehen wie er so richtig erleicht. So langsam so weil er sich das von der Boschwelt nicht so richtig vorstellen konnte und am Ende war dann wenigstens der Mr. Experte da, der gesagt hat ja ich bin jetzt seit 10 Jahren bei Bosch und jetzt seit einem Jahr bei GES da war so richtige Uuff wenigstens einer. Also der war da erst mal bedient, also das war auch so die Reaktion von dem Boschlern auf dieses neue Konstrukt, die haben ja alle keine Ahnung, die sind ja alle erst ganz frisch dabei, das kann ja nix sein, die können ja nix."	„Maybe another anecdote, when Mr. 12D came, to BEG, he was the new group lead in diesel. Then when he came, he called togehter the group for the first meeting. Then there was in the introduction round, who does what and so on. And everyone said, I am already here for 6 months, I have been working here for 9 month, I have just started and you rally could see, you really could see, how his face turnde pale. Really slowly, because coming from Bosch, he could not really imagine and in the end, there was at least Mr. Expert Employee there, who said I have been working with Bosch for ten years and now for one year at BEG. And then he was "ufffff" at least one. So, he had enough. This was just the normal reaction of the Boschler to this new construct: Oh they are clueless, they are total freshmen. Nothing will come of it. They are incapable."
15E	The careful visionaries	„Jaja. Auf jeden Fall, also wir hatten, quasi alle die sich auf die Netzwerkstellen beworben hatten hatten gewisse Ideen mitgebracht in die ersten paar Treffen, die wir da ja moderiert abgehalten haben, und die haben wir ja am Anfang alle gesammelt, haben unsere Motivation so gegenseitig erklärt, haben uns gegenseitig ein bisschen kennengelernt und beschnuppert und dann gab es so eine erste Zusammenfassung, die auch an den Herrn Geschäftsführer da kommuniziert worden ist, das ist aktuell der Stand vom Impulsgebernnetzwerk und dann kam von ihm die Rückmeldung ganz klar, Leute seid visionärer, also es war wirklich, er hat sehr stark ermutigt da deutlich mehr zu spinnen, es war ihm alles von der Flughöhe deutlich zu gering, was ein überraschendes Feedback war, damit hatten wir jetzt mal nicht gerechnet, den meisten ging es glaube ich auch so, wie es mir ging, ich bin dann sehr stark in so einen inneren Dialog erst mal gegangen, also ok, wieso kam es dazu, warum kam jetzt genau dieses Feedback, warst du jetzt wirklich, wo sind denn eigentlich die Grenzen, ja, sind das wirklich äußere Grenzen und dann hab ich wirklich schon stark gemerkt, dass das sehr viele innere Grenzen sind, die man sich irgendwie automatisch setzt oder angeeignet hat oder wie auch immer und die jetzt erst mal aufgebrochen werden. Also es war sehr gut diese Rückmeldung zu kriegen"	"Yes, yes, we all had apply for the instigator positions and brought in some ideas from the first moderated meetings. We explained our motivation to each other and got to know each other and sniffed at each other and then there was the first summary meeting that was also forwarded to Mr. President: This is the current status in the instigator network and then the reply by him was totally clear: Guys, you have to be more visionary. He really encouraged us to be crazier. To him the level was too low. We did not see that coming. Most of us felt that. At first, I really started thinking for myself, why did he say that, why did he give that feedback. And it was really enlightening to see, where are the limits, are they really outer limits or is it my own limits, and I realized that it was a lot of own limits, which I automatically set or acquired or whatever. Now, the limits have to be pushed anew. It was really good to get that feedback."

Avant-Garde

Inter-viewee	Title	Story (Original)	Story (Translated)
12D	The first offer Template	<p>„Ja also vielleicht mach ich es mal an einem Beispiel da an dem ersten Projekt das ich selbst hatte. Ich kam als Gruppenleiter hin und mich hat erwartet eine Gruppe mit 13 Leuten die Software geschrieben hat. Die Erwartungshaltung vom Herrn 6L damals war wir haben eine Applikationsprojekt-Anfrage und du bist ja Applikateur, jetzt mach mal ein Angebot dafür. Ich hatte in meinem Leben vorher noch nie ein Angebot geschrieben, an einen Kunden abgegeben. Es gab in der BEG ich glaub eine sehr grobe word-Vorlage von einem Mitarbeiter der mal im PMO dem damaligen Automotorenbereich ein Angebot abgegeben hat, ja und dass einfach sich so durchzuwurschteln eigentlich mit nichts quasi oder außer mit rudimentärsten Grundlagen quasi ein Angebot zu machen, das nachher ich mein das Angebot, da war viel dabei, da war das lernen dabei in das ich sehr viel Zeit investiert hab, in dieses Angebot... ich wollt einfach sicher sein wenn ich dem Kunden ein Angebot gebe, dann soll das seinen Wunsch treffen, es soll seinen Terminplan treffen usw. und so fort. Das war ihm letztendlich zu teuer[...] und ich hab dann als Gruppenleiter damit umgehen müssen einen Verlust von ich glaub 10 oder 20.000 Euro Aquisitionsaufwand nicht verrechnen zu können, der dann auf der Kostenstelle liegen blieb[...] An der Stelle mein Chef zum ersten Mal konfrontiert und hat gesagt: "Hör mal zu, ist dir eigentlich klar, dass das sehr viel Geld gekostet hat, was du da produziert hast. Hätte das nicht einfacher auch gehen können?" Was mich dann wieder zum Überlegen gebracht hat [...]. Ich habe eine Angebotsvorlage gehabt und die Motivationen an jeden Mitarbeiter zu bringen dann, des bisschen was bestanden hat an Grundlage ständig weiter zu verbessern, das war auch was, was ich in der BEG gelernt habe, dass man wirklich also das was ich gesagt habe sich gegenseitig zu helfen, da war es klar, wenn die Angebotsvorlage von mir verbessert wurde, weil s einfach bestimmte Paragraphen gegeben hat die man da einbinden musste, dann war klar, dass jemand das oder ich selber das dann in dem Vorschlagsdokument für den nächsten Angebotsvorlage wieder verbessert habe und eingebracht habe. Also dieser ständige Drang sich zu verbessern, besser zu werden.“</p>	<p>„Yes, maybe I given an example with the first project I did myself. I came here as group lead and I got a group with thirteen people who wrote software. And the expectation of Mr. 6L back then was, that we have an application project request and you are the application engineer, now write an offer for that. And in my whole life I had never wrote an offer before and send it off to the customer. And at BEG, I think there was a very rough word-template by one employee who had send off an offer in the PMO department the former Otto-engine department. And yes, the muddling along with nothing besides really elementary basics and handing out an offer. And yes the offer was, I learned much, I invested much time in this offer. I just wanted to be sure, that when I send off the offer to the customer, then it should meet their wishes, it should meet their timelines and so on. Lastly it was too expensive for them [...] and I had to deal with it as the group lead, it was a loss of 10.000 or 20.000 Euro akquisition expense, that could not be recharged, that remained on our cost center [...]. This was the first time my superior confronted me and said: "Listen, are you aware, that this cost a lot of money, and you produced these costs. Wasn't there an easier way?" This made me wondering. I had an offer template and the motivation to get to every employee, to further develop the little bit that was there at the beginning. And that was something I have learned at BEG, that you need to help each other, what I already said. It was clear, when the offer template was improved, because there were some specific paragraphs that had to be included, then it was clear that there had to be somebody who brought in the suggestion in a suggestion document for the next offer template. There was this desire to permanently improve.“</p>
15E	The missing Bentley	<p>„Also selbst erlebt, sogar selber ein Stück weit Protagonist, ähm, also ich hatte ja erzählt, ich bin ja als Abschlussarbeiter hier eingestiegen. Und damals war es noch so in dem Vorstellungsgespräch hat man mich gelockt, damit dass ich eine spezielle Funktionalität in dem Bentley umsetzen kann, dann war es so, ich kam, meine Arbeit hat gestartet und kurz davor wurde quasi von Bentley dieses Fahrzeug abgekündigt, also bzw. dieses Projekt kam nicht zu Stande. Und dann saß ich halt erst mal da und es gab kein Auto, hat mich nicht weiter gestört, und ich hab mir dann halt was anderes gesucht und das schöne war, das ging halt auch, also diese Ratlosigkeit, ok so das Auto an dem wir das machen wollten ist jetzt nicht da, die hat vielleicht einen Tag oder so vorgehalten. Und dann ging es aber auch weiter lösungsorien-</p>	<p>„From my own experience, yes to a certain extent as protagonist even... As I have already told, I came here as a Bachelor's degree candidate. And back then at the interview, they lured me in by telling me that I would be allowed to realize a specific functionality in the Bentley. And then, there I sat, there was no car, but it didn't bother me any further, because I just looked for something else. And the nice thing was, this was possible. The cluelessness because of the car, that we wanted to stuff with isn't here, it maybe lasted one day or so. And then it kept going, solution oriented. And on the one hand I found it in some way cool to experience that</p>

		<p>tiert. Zum einen fand ich es sehr cool, das zu erleben, dass man mich dann auch gelassen hat. Ich hab selber viel dazu beigetragen, dass es eine andere Lösung gab, und zum anderen hat man aber auch seitens meiner Betreuung und den Führungskräften die da noch involviert waren, halt auch ein bisschen die Weichen gestellt, dass es auch möglich war. Das war für mich cool, das war ein super Einstieg für mich, möglicherweise hätte es andere geschockt, weil man ein anderes Erwartungsbild hat, wie vorbereitet das denn alles zu sein hat, wenn man eine Abschlussarbeit macht, für mich war es perfekt, weil ich so Formula Student-mäßig dann wieder arbeiten konnte, das mach ich immer noch am gernsten.“</p>	<p>people just let me. I contributed a lot to the new solution. And on the other hand, my supervisor and other managers, who were involved put things on the right track making it possible. And that was cool for me, and really good start for me. Possibly, somebody else would have been shocked, because they were expecting something different, about how prepared everything had to be, when doing a thesis, but for me it was perfect, it was like being in formula student again, and this is what I like the most.“</p>
24E	The coffee idea	<p>“Also ich weiß nicht, du weißt vielleicht, dass ich innerhalb BIOS BOSCH intern Open Source aktiv bin bisschen und da war es so, dass ich vor drei Jahren für den Inno-BMW so eine Tablet-Applikation gemacht habe. Das war ein Thema, das den dortigen Fachexperten, den Bosch-Experten, auch interessiert hat, und er hat dort mitgemacht und auch auf ähnlicher Infrastruktur-Basis zusammen mit einem Bacheloranten weiterentwickelt. Jedenfalls, wie gesagt, der Kontakt zu den Bosch-Experten war halt dadurch da und wir haben dann einfach mal in einer Kaffeeküche, und das finde ich eigentlich auch das Interessante, das war für mich so ein bisschen das Wiedererlebnis von dieser ursprünglichen Kultur in Möglingen, dass es halt fachbereichsübergreifend war, also einer von CD einer von EBI. Wir haben dann darüber diskutiert, welche Funktionen man noch vom Fahrzeug aufs Tablet bringen kann. Da sind wir darauf gekommen, dass das die Müdigkeitserkennung wäre, dass das gehen könnte. Und er hat mich dann halt auf einen Alt-BEGler, den, wie heißt er, den XY hingewiesen, der mich dann wiederum auch auf einen Alt-BEGler, den YZ, also die sind jetzt beide beim CC, hingewiesen hat, der dann das Thema Müdigkeitserkennung hatte. Für mich sind das halt einfach so indirekte Strukturen, die es halt noch gibt. Und mit dem YZ haben wir halt dann tatsächlich das Ding umgezogen, also raus aus dem Steuergerät, aus dem ??-Code generiert für das Tablet selbst. Das wurde dann beim Bereichsvorstand vom CC vorgestellt und ich fand es halt spannend, dass es aus so einer, wie soll man sagen, Kaffeerunde oder Kaffeidee, das Ganze geboren worden ist. Das war halt dann noch ein bisschen, ich weiß nicht, wie man es nennen will, BEG-Spirit reloaded, sage ich jetzt mal.“</p>	<p>„I don't know. You might know that I am a little active within the BIOS (Bosch internal open source) and then it happened, that 3 years ago I made a tablet application for the Innovation-BMW. This was a topic, that interested the responsible domain expert, Bosch-Expert, and he participated, also on a similar infrastructure basis, together with a bachelor thesis candidate. Anyways, as I've said, the contact to Bosch-Expert was there. And then we sat together in the coffee kitchen and I think that is the interesting thing, that for me this was kind of reliving the original culture in Möglingen, just the cross-departmental, someone from CD and someone from EBI. And we discussed which features, we could also bring from the vehicle to the tablet. So we had the idea about drowsiness detection and that this would be possible. Then he told me about a BEG alumni, what's his name, XY who told me about another BEG alumnus, YZ, they are both at CC now, and he had the topic drowsiness detection. For me it's about this indirect structure, which are still there. And with YZ we indeed moved the thing, out of the control unit, from the code for the tablet. Then it was presented to the leading director of CC and I found it really exciting, that this whole thing was born in a coffee round, a coffee idea. That was a little bit, I don't know how to call it, BEG Spirit reloaded, I'd say.“</p>
27G	The super-secret Flagship	<p>„Da sieht man so eines, was da unten im Foyer steht, ich meine ich kann mich erinnern, das ist ja schon was besonderes. Das ist das erste ESP für ein dreirädriges Fahrzeug gewesen. Und der Chassis Bereich hat da unheimlich lange akquiiert und dann war es supergeheim. Da hat man dann schon was gemacht, da durfte dann niemand was von wissen und es war auch in der ASR damals schon relativ geheim. Und ja dann hat man dann doch irgendwann, dieses Projekt dann offiziell bekommen. Und hat dann da auch tatsächlich dieses Projekt hinbekommen, und hat das tatsächlich dargestellt und finde ich sehr erfolgreich dargestellt und heute finde ich, ist es ja eigentlich so das üblich Expose, wenn man die BEG sieht, dass hat sich so zu einem Standard Business entwickelt, ja wo man lange nicht gewusst hat, passiert was, wird es nichts, wird es wohl was, und dann halt nachher da halt tatsächlich draus so ein BEG Produkt abzuleiten, das fande ich schon eine super Sache“</p>	<p>„You can see one in the foyer downstairs. I remember that was something special. It was the first ESP for a three wheeled vehicle. And the chassis department put a lot of time and effort in the acquisition and it was super-secret. They already started but nobody was allowed to know and it was also very secret in the ASR meeting. And then finally they got the project officially. And really accomplished a good result and I think this was really successful, and it is really the flagship of the BEG, it develop to standard business. And for a long time we didn't know is it really happening, is it falling through, is it working. And later on to really realize this kind of BEG project, that is amazing.“</p>

28E	The two minute job interview	<p>„Also das, keine Ahnung, das hat schon angefangen, wo ich damals zu, beim Abteilungsleiter XY angefangen habe, das war halt, ja, ich bin halt zu meiner Vorgängerin hin und hab gefragt, ob sie sich vorstellen könnte, dass ich den Job mache und sie hat gesagt, schwätz mal mit dem Abteilungsleiter XY, der kam gerade aus dem Büro raus und hat gesagt, komm wir gehen Mittagessen und dann war es das (lacht). Also wir machen dann halt mal geschwind ein Vorstellungsgespräch beim Mittagessen in der Kantine mit 300 Leuten drumherum - äh - reden eigentlich 2 Minuten über den eigentlichen Job. Die restlichen 43 Minuten über Urlaub, essen, trinken, so persönliche Sachen einfach. Also so ein absolut untypisches Vorstellungsgespräch - was halt auch wieder personenbedingt ist“</p>	<p>„No idea, this already started, as I started working with Director XY. It was like, I approached my predecessor and asked her, if she could imagine me doing the job, and she said, just go ahead and talk to Director XY, and he was just exiting his office and said, come on let's go to lunch together, and that was it (laughs). So just have the job interview at lunch with 300 people surrounding us. And then we talked two minutes about the actual job and the remaining 43 minutes about holidays, food, drinks, personal stuff. It was an absolutely unusual job interview - of course this was also due to his personality.“</p>
29E	The low hanging fruits	<p>„Und als wir dann brainstormt haben, so alles was uns so einfällt, was wir gerne hätten und dann hab ich das halt eingebracht und hatten es aufgeschrieben. Und haben dann am Ende des Workshops haben wir dann halt gesagt, was sind denn jetzt hier die Low-Hanging-Fruits, was können wir äh, was kann man gleich, was können wir schnell umsetzen und wo können wir schnell einen Effekt... und dann haben halt alle gesagt, hier der Obstkorb, da hieß es gar nicht Obstkorb, da hieß es Früchte in der Kaffeeküche. Und dann hat sich der 22E dann sofort voll für eingesetzt. Und meinte ja, lass uns jetzt hier alle zusammenlegen, wirklich hier, die haben das selbst bezahlt. Ich war danach - leider - einen ganzen Monat im Urlaub, direkt nach dem Workshop, aber der 22E hat das dann organisiert und hat dann mit ein paar Leuten gesagt, wir schmeißen jetzt hier Geld in die Mitte und kaufen einfach Äpfel und packen überall Äpfel hin und das haben sie letztendlich gemacht im Dezember. Ich war leider selbst nicht da, ich hab es nicht mitbekommen. Und so hat das ganze angefangen und natürlich haben sie auch einen Apfelkorb beim Herr Geschäftsführer hingestellt und danach ist dann der 22E mit - ich weiß nicht, ob er alleine gegangen ist oder mit irgendjemandem mit, ähm, zum Herr Geschäftsführer gegangen und gesagt: Wie fanden Sie es, die Äpfel, wie haben sie geschmeckt und letztendlich hat dann der Herr Geschäftsführer wohl direkt zugestimmt, dass man das komplett weitermacht und dass das eine gute Idee ist und dass er da Geld für geben würde. Und das fand ich eigentlich eine richtig schöne Sache.“</p>	<p>„We did a little brainstorming, about what comes to our mind what we might want to have and it was my idea and we wrote it down. And then at the end of the workshop, we said, now what are the low hanging fruits, what can we realize soon and fast, where can we make a difference really quick. And everyone said, the fruit basket, but it wasn't called fruit basket at that time. It was called "Fruits in the coffee kitchen". And then 22E really supported and said, that if everybody chipped in, and everyone gave some money. Sadly, after that I was on holiday for a whole month, immediately after the workshop, but 22E organised the whole thing, and gathered a few people and said, we chip in some money and pay for apples and put apples everywhere. Lastly they did it in December and I was not there and was not able to witness it. And this is how the whole thing started and of course they brought one apple basket to Mr. President and then 22E went to Mr. President and said: "How did you like the apples? How did they taste?" And lastly Mr. President agreed to proceed with the whole thing and that it is a good idea, he was willing to spend money on. I think that was a really good thing.“</p>
1P	The boss in the bus	<p>„Also ein typisches Beispiel der Mr. Alt-Bosch-Geschäftsführer, der war damals noch Vorsitzender Geschäftsführer und wurde von Toyota für die Einbindung des Werks in Aras eingeladen. Das war die erste Produktion des Jahres. Da führten wir das Gesamtbremssystem ein, das war mein erstes großes Projekt. Hat auch funktioniert und wir sind heute noch stolz drauf. Das war sehr komplex. Und deswegen wurde er eingeladen. Und dann ging es um Werksbesichtigungen. Die haben Busse gehabt mit unterschiedlichen Führungen, unterschiedlich sprachigen Führungen. Und dann hat er an der Bushaltestelle gewartet bis eine vorbeikam, das war eine Französische. Er kann Französisch. Ist eingestiegen und ist rum. Inzwischen haben die gesucht wo ist der Mr. Alt-Bosch-Geschäftsführer, Toyota hat Panik bekommen. Weil der sollte natürlich vom Werksleiter persönlich, das war der Vertreter des wichtigsten Zulieferers. Nach einer Viertelstunde haben sie ihn nicht gefunden bis er zurückkam. Und er war vollkommen zufrieden. Er hat sich sogar gefreut das er es auf französisch machen kann, hat es ein bisschen geübt. und den Toyoten war das</p>	<p>„A typical example is Mr. Former Bosch-CEO, when he was chair and was invited to Toyota for the integration of the plant in Aras. It was the first production of the year and we were introducing the joint-break-system. It was my first big project. It worked and we are proud on it until this day. But it was really complex and therefore he was invited. And he should have a tour over the plant and they had busses with different tours in different languages. And he just waited at the Bus station until a bus arrived, and it was the French one and he just jumped in and went around. In the meantime they were looking for him, where is Mr. Former Bosch-CEO, panicking. Because the plant manager himself, wanted to show him around, because he was the representative of the most important supplier. And they were looking for him for 15 minutes, until he came back and he was completely</p>

		<p>oberpeinlich. Aber der Herr Bosch-Alt-Geschäftsführer hatte kein Problem sich in einen Bus zu setzen.“</p>	<p>pleased with the situation and was even happy that the tour was in French, because he could practice his language skills. And the Toyota people were totally embarrassed. But is Mr. Former Bosch-CEO was completely okay with driving by bus.“</p>
1P	The microphone outing	<p>„Beispiel vielleicht, ich habe ein aktuelles Beispiel, genau. Ich habe ja gestern die Vorlesung gehalten. Und dann gab es anschließend eine Diskussion. Ich habe so ein Mikrofon um den Hals hängen können und zwei studentische Hilfskräfte sind mit Handmikrofon immer rum und haben die Fragenden mit den Mikrofonen bedient. Und die zweite oder dritte Frage war ein chinesischer Student. Der hat das Mikrofon und die Hand genommen und es hat nicht funktioniert. Hat versucht rumzudrücken. Dann kam die Hilfskraft, hat das Mikrofon gekommen, hat auch versucht rumzudrücken. Es hat nicht funktioniert. Und in der Zwischenzeit bin ich einfach so die Hälfte des Hörsaals hoch, mein Mirko weg, hab es den Chinesen gegeben, der konnte seine Frage stellen. ich habe es dann beantwortet, habe es umgehängt und bin wieder zurück. Ich habe mir gar nichts dabei gedacht. Und hinterher kam einer und sagt genau da sieht man, dass du nicht beim Autohersteller bist.“</p>	<p>„One example, a current example, I was giving this lecture yesterday and there was a discussion afterwards. And I had a microphone around my neck and two student assistants were walking around with hand microphones and gave the enquirers the hand mics. And the second or third question was by a Chinese student. He took over the microphone and it did not work, he tried and pressed it, and then the second assistant came and also tried to press on it. But it did not work. In the meantime, I just walked up half the lecture hall, took off my microphone and gave it to the Chinese student, that he could pose his question. I answered it, hung it back around my neck and walked back. Afterwards, someone approached me and said, that is exactly showing that you are not working with a automotive manufacturer.“</p>
19E	Meeting at the next day	<p>“Und andererseits hat mal eine ehemalige Arbeitskollegin, ich wäre beim BOSCH und sie suchen... die machen so Alkoholwegfahrsperrern, machen das simpel und wollen das jetzt intelligenter machen, ich bin da auf den Karsten ernst zugegangen und der war gerade in Hamburg und konnte sich gleich am nächsten Tag mit meiner ehemaligen Arbeitskollegen und da habe ich auch nur positive Rückmeldung bekommen, weil es unvorstellbar ist eigentlich, dass gleich am nächsten Tag Vorort ist und das mögliche Projekt bespricht. Hier sind die Wege sehr kurz, deshalb.“</p>	<p>“On the other hand, my former colleague knew that I was at Bosch and she was know producing alcohol engine immobilisers , and want to simplify and maket it smarter. So I approached Karsten Ernst, who was in Hamburg at that time and the verynext day he could meet with my former colleague and this got me only positive feedback, because actually it is unimaginable that the very next day someone is at the site and discusses a poissible projects. The distances are very short here, that's it.”</p>
7D		<p>“Und das Vorstandsgespräch mit Herrn Geschäftsführer. Und die Tour durch die Einbauhalle. (lacht) Natürlich, er ist Verkäufer. Ne wir haben das Erstgespräch haben wir auf der Zentrale geführt, das war jetzt eher ein persönliches Kennenlernen und dann hatte ich aber auch den Wunsch gehabt, ich möchte es mir mal anschauen, weil Abstatt kann ich jetzt gar nichts, eben von der BEG auch nicht. Also ich wollte es mir Vorort anschauen und dann haben wir spontan, wie BEG vermutlich auch sonst ist, am nächsten Tag nachmittags, hier uns wieder getroffen oder abends und dann hat er mich hier durchgeführt. Und da der erste Eindruck, als er kannte Hierarchieunabhängig Namen. Die Leute haben freundlich begrüßt, waren nicht super gestresst, sondern eher offen und neugierig geschaut, also eine relativ offene Haltung. Gut es war jetzt abends und es waren nicht viele da, das muss ich jetzt auch dazu sagen. Wollten ja auch noch keine riesen Bewegung auslösen – wer ist das jetzt da.“</p>	<p>„And the interview with Mr. President with the tour through the installation halls (laughs). Of course he is a salesmen. We had the first interview at the head quarters, this was a rather personal meet and greet and then I wished to see the site, because I did not know Abstatt and BEG. And I wanted to see everything on site and then we met again spontaneously, as BEG usually is, the next day in the afternoon, here on site. And in the evening he guided my through the halls, he knew the names, regardless of the hierarch, the people greeted him friendly, did not seem super stressed out, but rather open and looking curious, relative open posture. Of course it was in the evening, and there were not a lot of peope, I have to add that. But we did also not want to create a lot of guessing, who is this.“</p>
12D	The million Euro project	<p>“wir haben dann das erste erfolgreiche Projekt das war akquiriert vom Geschäftsbereich, das war zur damaligen Zeit eine horrend Summe das war ein Umsatz von 4,4 Millionen Euro wo wir eine Abstimmung gemacht haben wir hatten ei-</p>	<p>„We had acquired successfully the first project from the BU, which was at that time horrendously high, a revenue of 4.4 Mio Euro. We had an alignment and had besides the estimate of the BU, which they had done</p>

		<p>gentlich außer einer Abschätzung des Geschäftsbereiches, die die für sich gemacht haben, die aber für den Kunden nicht gepasst hat, Garnichts auf dem haben wir wieder aufgesetzt, wir haben das Projekt dann vom Kunden akquiriert um Zusammenarbeit mit dem Geschäftsbereich und wir hatten dann ein Projekt von dem wir keine Ahnung hatten wie wir es machen sollen. Das war wieder mal das gleiche wir hatten auch technisch Sachen zugesagt, die wir nicht zu dem Zeitpunkt augenscheinlich nicht machen konnten. Wir hatten keine Ahnung davon. Und wir haben uns dann wirklich gemeinsam durch gewühlt, da war es halt wieder das Thema Hilfsbereitschaft. Es war so dass wir uns die Information beschafft haben. Wenn der eine was nicht gewusst hat, dann hat man sich zusammengesetzt, hat Arbeitsgruppen gebildet, hat Gespräche gehabt in der Kaffeeküche, das bis heute noch anhält. Hat sich gegenseitig beraten und hat wirklich, wir haben wirklich erfolgreich das Projekt in Serie gebracht und wir haben erstens einen unheimlichen wirtschaftlichen Erfolg mit dem Projekt gehabt und auch den ganzen Projektleuten. Wir haben den kompletten Kundenkreis damals für die BEG gewinnen können, durch die gute Reputation und ja den Menschen hat es Spaß gemacht und die haben dann auch in dem Projekt dann wieder neue Mitarbeiter ausbilden können, die dann auch wieder den Spirit hatten, also das war einfach die diese Erfolgs-story die da am Anfang dahinter lag. Aus Nichts, klingt fast wie Tellerwäscher, aber aus der Geld zu machen, des war schon sehr gut"</p>	<p>but did not match for the customer, nothing, what we could build on. But we acquired the project from the customer in order to collaborate with the BU. And then we had this project and had no clue, how to do it. It was the same as usual, we committed to things on technical level, which we obviously could not do at that time. We had no clue. And we muddled through it together and there was this topic helpfulness. We gathered the information somehow. And if one person did not know how to do it, we huddled together. We built working groups and had talks in the coffee kitchen, which is still prevailing. We consulted in each other and so we managed to produce the first project successfully in series. And on the one hand the business success with project and all the people was enormous and on the other hand we could win over the complete customer segment for BEG, through the good reputation and yes, the people had fun and they could also train new employees in the project, who also had the spirit. This was just the success story that laid behind it. Make money from nothing, sounds almost like from rags to riches. But this was really great."</p>
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Extra Mile

Inter-viewee	Title	Story (Original)	Story (Translated)
11E	Learning by doing Bosch Connect	<p>"Ich bin ja E2.0 Ambassador, d.h. ich treibe das Thema ein Stück weit. Die Kollegen sagen eher, sie haben es bisher nicht gebraucht, sie brauchen es heute auch nicht. Sie sehen halt das Potential nicht. Ich soll das ja bisschen verkaufen und vermarkten und habe aber auch letztes Jahr, haben wir ein Projekt gestartet, also ein Kundenprojekt, da machen wir die Kommunikation zu 100% über BOSCH connect. Das ist echt richtig gut gelaufen, das freut mich besonders, weil anfangs hieß es: „Wo rechne ich das ganze ab? Was bringt mir das überhaupt?“ Wenn man das aber kombiniert, ist das schon gut, weil die Mitarbeiter müssen dann immer an Kunden-Projekten arbeiten und wenn sie das mit BOSCH connect machen, dann lernen sie das Tool kennen und können dann das auch abrechnen."</p>	<p>"I am an E2.0 ambassador, which means I promote the subject E2.0. Some colleagues say, they did not need it until now, they won't need it in the future. They just don't see the potential. And I am supposed to promote and sell the subject, and last year, we started a new project, a customer project, and we are conducting the communication 100% via Bosch connect. This went really well, and I am particularly happy about this, because at the beginning everyone said: "Where can I charge this? What am I getting out of this?" But if you combine it, it's really good because the colleagues always need to do customer projects and if they do it with Bosch Connect they get to know the tool and could charge it nevertheless."</p>
13E	The fascinating ACC	<p>"Teilweise schon, ein witziges Bsp., wir waren in Kalifornien unterwegs, im Urlaub und da gab es sehr viele Porsche Fahrzeuge und ich hatte zum Zeitpunkt auch die Porsche mitbetreut und hatte immer nach den ACC-Sensoren gesucht gehabt und dass ist dem einen Bekannten, der als Bauingenieur tätig ist, dann auf den Zeiger gegangen, dass ich da nur rumgelaufen bin, auf den Golfplätzen oder den Parkplätzen und da gesucht habe, welches Auto hat ACC. Da haben sie mir mal eines Abends, eine große ACC Akkut mitgegeben hat und meinte so „Nimm die und dann ist aber Ruhe für den Rest vom Urlaub“ Ich stehe da schon dahinter, auch im Privatleben, jetzt hat</p>	<p>"Partly yes, there is a funny example. We were on the move in California, for holiday. And there were a lot of Porsche vehicles and I was working with a Porsche project at the moment. And I was always looking for ACC sensors, and one friend of mine, who works as a civil engineer, was annoyed by me walking around on the golf courts and parking lots and looking for cars with ACC (Active Cruise Control). And one evening they gave me a big package of ACC Akut (headache drug) and said, "now take these and that's the end of that</p>

		meine Schwester bei BOSCH auch schon anfangen, also steh da schon dahinter.“	for the rest of the holiday.” And yes, I am behind these kinds of things, also in my private live. And now my sister also started working with Bosch, so yes, I am behind that.“
20D	The Chinese Talent acquisition	<p>„Ich war auch einmal bei einer Veranstaltung in Peking, die Siemens organisiert hat und Siemens hatte da vorher einen Talentwettbewerb und hat die Leute, die gewonnen haben, zu diesem Event mit eingeladen. War ein ganz exklusives Event. Die hatten auch den Berater von Obama mit eingeladen und so weiter, von der Beijing-Regierung oder von der chinesischen Regierung auch entsprechende hohe Vertreter da und so weiter und so fort. Auch von Bosch waren ein paar Kollegen da und das heißt, es gab für mich nicht einen Kunden zu akquirieren oder sonst irgendwas in der Hinsicht. Ich habe mir die Themen aus wissenschaftlicher oder aus betriebswirtschaftlicher Hinsicht angehört, die die da beschrieben haben, aber habe eben die Zeit auch genutzt, nachdem ich diese Talentstudents kennengelernt habe, habe ich dann im Endeffekt den ganzen Abend, also wir waren dann beim Essen zusammen und so weiter und so fort. Dann habe ich mich um die gekümmert, weil interessanterweise Siemens niemanden bereit gestellt hatte, sich um die zu kümmern und da waren die natürlich extrem dankbar und für mich war das auch schön mit diesen jungen Leuten, mit diesen talentierten Leuten, da den Abend da zu verbringen. Wie gesagt, es gab-, es waren auch andere Netzwerkkontakte die interessant waren, aber wir haben eben auch vieles zusammen gemacht und zu denen habe ich dann auch noch Kontakt gehalten und so weiter und so fort. Denen natürlich erzählt, was Bosch macht.“</p>	<p>“I once was Beijing, at an event [another firm] organised, there was a talent show foregone and the people who won, were invited to this event. It was a really exclusive event. Even the advisor of Obama was invited and so on by the Chinese administration also accordingly high representatives and so on. Also from Bosch there were colleagues, and this means, there was no customer to acquire or anything else like this. I just listened to the topics from a scientific and economic perspective, that where presented there, but I also used the time to get to know the talent students. We ate dinner together and so on, and in the end I looked after them for the whole evening, because interestingly [the other firm] had not provided anyone to look after them and so they were extremely thankful and I also liked it to talk to this young and talented people and spend the evening with them. And as I said, there were other networking contacts that were interesting but we did a lot of things together and kept in touch and so on. And I of course told them what Bosch does.”</p>
32E	The re-worked test automation	<p>„ich habe auf eine bestimmte Kompetenz gemacht, das ist Diagnose gewesen, habe mich darauf spezialisiert, also ich hatte das als Hauptthema und ich habe immer von Projekt zu Projekt mehr Qualität in die Software reingebracht, habe von Projekt zu Projekt immer mehr automatisierte Tests hinzugefügt, dass man wirklich sehr hohe Qualität hat und die Kollegen haben immer gesagt, wenn wir ein Projekt 32E aufbauen hat man kein Problem mit Qualität da stimmt alles, dann ist es zum nächsten Schritt gekommen, das hat mir schon mal Spaß gemacht, das hat mich gefreut, dann war diese Kundenkontakte sind gekommen, wo ich den Kunden auch beraten habe, auch in die richtige Richtung gelenkt habe, sozusagen, dass man da Hauptpfade erstellen kann, dann hab ich gemeinsam mit CC Fiat Hauptpfad, und um Maserati, Ferrari daraufzukoppeln, hab den kompletten Hauptpfad aufgeräumt, verbessert, der Koordinator dort war völlig begeistert von der guten Zusammenarbeit und ich denke, das ist genau der Schritt, den man machen soll, sich auf eine Kompetenz konzentrieren und sein Knowhow und Expertise dareinzubringen, die Qualität zu sichern, dann sind die Leute zufrieden, man ist schnell, man ist effizient, das war wirklich ein gutes Erlebnis. Auch wegen dieser Zusammenarbeit mit CC, weil die haben jetzt ein ähnliches Konstrukt wie jetzt ich arbeite in PT und es gibt es einen Koordinator und die Entwickler sitzen alle in Indien und dann machen sie nur das Notwendige, aber sie denken nicht Zukunftsorientiert was könnte ich verbessern außerhalb von dieser Anforderung, das kann man nur praktisch selber machen hier in Deutschland, Indien wird nicht das entscheiden können und deswegen waren sie voll begeistert und war auch toll, ich hab einen Hauptpfad gemacht für drei große Kunden, die man dann also einfach pflegen kann. Das war</p>	<p>„I specialized in a specific competence, diagnose, this was my main subject and I added from project to project more quality to the software, and added more and more automated testing, to gain really high quality. And my colleagues kept on saying: "If we build up a project of 32E, we never have problems with the quality", and then the next step began. It was really fun, and I was happy. And then the customer contacts came, where I advised the customer and leaded everything in the right direction, you might say, because you can create main paths, and then I created together with CC the Fiat main path and in order to connect Maserati and Ferrari with this, I tidied up the whole main path and improved it. Their coordinator was totally enthusiastic about the good collaboration and I think, that is exactly the step you have to take. To concentrate on one competence and bring in your know-how and expertise, in order to assure quality. Then people are satisfied and you are fast and efficient, that was a really good experience. Also because of the collaboration with CC because they have a similar construct as us. And now I work at PT and there is a coordinator and the developers are in India and then they do just what is absolutely necessary, and they don't think future oriented, what could be improved besides these minimum requests. This you can only do yourself</p>

		echt toll. Das hat mir gefallen. Auch diese Anerkennung danach.“	here in Germany. India won't be able to decide this. And because of this they were totally enthusiastic and this was good. I did one main path for three big customers, you can easily maintain. This was really good. I really liked that. Also the recognition I got.“
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Family Cocoon

Inter-viewee	Title	Story (Original)	Story (Translated)
10E	The nice induction presentation	„Also, mir fällt jetzt eigentlich nicht so wirklich etwas ein, ich weiß noch, was ich ganz gut fand war damals mein Einarbeitungsvortrag, da, ja da kamen ziemlich viele aus, ich glaub, jetzt weiß ich gar nicht mehr so genau, ob wir da ganz PT noch eingeladen haben damals, also vielleicht nicht ganz PT, aber es kamen ziemlich viele und das fand ich ein ganz schönes Erlebnis für mich, also ich hatte ja gerade erst angefangen, 5, 6 Monate, ein halbes Jahr hatte ich gearbeitet, und dann meinen Vortrag gehalten und ja das Feedback von den Mitarbeitern und generell das Interesse, was da war, von einem relativ kleinen Thema, was da war, was man halt in der Einarbeitung macht, das war eigentlich, also das weiß ich noch, dass ich das damals ganz, also dass ich mich da total gefreut habe. Und das einen ganz schönen Moment fand.“	“I can't really think of something, but what I kind of liked back then was my induction presentation, many came, I can't remember exactly if we invited the whole PT division back then, maybe not the whole PT, but a lot came and I thought it was a nice experience for me, because I had just started, 5 or six months, half a year, I had worked and then held gave my presentation and the feedback from the colleagues and the general interest, that was there, for my relatively small topic, what I did in the onboarding phase, that was actually, I remember that I was really delighted back then, that was a really nice moment”
22E	The rescue form the sinking ship	“Als ich gerade angefangen habe, wurde mir von so einem sinkenden Schiff da erzählt, war bei CC, da waren einige Kollegen so drin, wo dann auch so Horrorstories mit, man kriegt abends irgendeinen Anruf, ach übrigens die nächsten drei Tage verbringen wir bei BMW und Klamotten werden gestellt, ist kein Problem, du brauchst keine Koffer packen. Also solche Sachen finde ich halt schon krass. Die spannende Sachen, die man dann später mitbekommen hat, ist, dass es den CC Kollegen schlechter ging als den BEG Kollegen, weil halt hier die Leute noch gesagt haben, ok, der Mann ist kaputt, also wir können begrenzt arbeiten, aber irgendwann ist Feierabend und das hatten halt die Kollegen, die direkt im Projekt waren, hatten halt größere Schmerzen, sage ich jetzt mal, weil da hat keiner mehr die Hand drüber gehalten. Und das fand ich ziemlich cool”	“When I just started off, I was told about a sinking ship at CC, some colleagues were involved and I heard about some horror stories, that you get a call in the evening, that you are spending the next three days at BMW, you will be provided with clothes, no problem, you don't need to pack bags. But I think these kinds of things are heavy. And interestingly, it was later on known that the CC colleagues were treated worse than the BEG colleagues, because people here said, ok, this guy is dead, there is only so much we can work, but now we've had enough and the CC colleagues who were directly in the project, did suffer more because there was no one who held their protecting hand over them. And I really liked that.”
27G	The big boss in Japan	“Ich war mal auf einer Dienstreise in Japan, 2006 war das glaube ich, in Yokohama gibt ein Hotel, das Landmark Tower, das ist ein riesengroßes Hotel. Die Lobby ist so groß wie die Kantine vorne. Und dann kommt man in diese Lobby rein und dann stehen da ganz großzügig irgendwelche Sessel und ich komme aus dem Fahrstuhl raus und ganz hinten in der Lobby sitzt der Herr Geschäftsführer mit dem Rechner und guckt hoch und erkennt mich und stellt sein Notebook weg und kommt her und sagt, Mensch, Herr 27G, was machen denn Sie hier in Japan. Und das war für mich da erinnere ich mich immer wieder gerne dran, weil ich das Parallelbild kenne, ich habe zwei Jahre im Abteilungsleiterbüro beim CC gesessen und der Abteilungsleiter hat glaube ich in den ganzen zwei Jahren nie ein Wort mit mir geredet. Das ist für mich so ganz prägend, so dieses Bild, wie der Herr Geschäftsführer auf einen Mitarbeiter zu geht, Mensch, Herr 27G, was machen	„I was on a business trip in Japan, in 2006 I think. In Yokohama there is this Hotel, the Landmark Tower, a really huge hotel. The lobby is as big as the canteen upfront. When you get in the lobby, there are these huge, generous armchairs, and as I step out of the elevator, I see at the far end of the lobby, Mr. President looking up his Laptop and recognizes me. He puts away his notebook and walks towards me and says: "Gosh, Mr. 27G, what brings you to Japan?" And I really like this memory because I know a different picture. I worked two years in front of the director at CC and the director didn't say a single word to me in the whole two years. And this was a defining moment for me, the image

		denn Sie hier. Das ist eine Art Respekt und Nahbarkeit, die ich extrem positiv finde."	of Mr. President walking up to a regular employee and saying "Gosh, Mr 27G, what brings you to Japan?" That is way of being respectful and approachable that I find extremely positive."
28E	The secretary restructuring	<p>"Was da eigentlich ziemlich cool war, ich hab ja beim Herrn Bereichsleiter und hab ja dann nach 9 Monaten zum Abteilungsleiter XY rübergewechselt, was ja überhaupt gar nicht der Plan war. Ähm. Und wir hatten da aber ein bisschen, ein seltsames Modell so mit mehreren Projektassistenten und die Aufgaben und so weiter, die waren nicht richtig klar. Ich hab mir dann halt überlegt, wie man das dann machen kann. Und hab das mit dem Herrn Paetz so durchgesprochen, um zu sagen ok, hier machen wir eine Projektassistentin und meine Stelle machen wir dann wieder eine klassische Sekretariatsstelle und so weiter. Weil ich wollte aus dem Sekretariat raus, deswegen wollte ich diese Projektassistentenstelle haben und der Herr Bereichsleiter hat das halt für mich durchgesetzt, weil er halt mich haben wollte und ja, und ich hab das dann halt mit dem Herrn Bereichsleiter durchgesprochen, so und so hab ich mir überlegt, weil ich hab gemerkt, da und da und da klemmt es und er war da total offen und total dankbar auch für das Feedback, weil er selbst kann es ja dann auch schlecht einschätzen so. Also so das war dieses, so diese Offenheit auch mal organisatorisch so ein bisschen was umzustellen und so, das fand ich schon ziemlich cool"</p>	<p>„This was actually really cool. I was with Mr. Leading Director and then after 9 months transferred to Director XY, which was actually not at all the plan. We had a little strange model with several project assistants and tasks and so on, and they weren't really clear. So I started wondering, how can we do it. And discussed it with Mr. Leading Director, just to say, here turn this into a project assistant position and my position will be a classical secretary's office position and so on. Because I wanted to leave pure administration, because of this I wanted to have this project assistant position, and then Mr. Leading Director pushed it through, because he wanted to keep me. And then I discussed it with Mr. Leading Director and I shared my thoughts, because I notice this doesn't work and he was really open to it and thankful for the feedback, because he could not really assess this himself. There was this willingness to change the organisational structure, and I thought this was really cool."</p>
29E	The help in the hiring freeze	<p>"Also wir hatten uns damals gerade gegründet gehabt und dann hatten wir so eine tolle Imagebroschüre und ich wollte ihm die eigentlich nur geben und dann hat er aber auch gesagt, ja erzähl doch mal einfach ein bisschen was davon und hat sich das angehört und das fand ich toll. Es hat trotzdem noch Jahre gedauert, bis es gesponsert wurde, weil er das letztendlich nicht entscheidet, sondern bei der HRL glaube ich, ist das angesiedelt, und da ... ja... da waren damals andere Kriterien wichtig. Und ähm, äh, aber ich fand es toll, dass der sich da mal angehört hat. Und ich bin auch bei der Formula Student aktiv gewesen und dann hab ich ihn auch öfters mal gesehen, bei der Formula Student, weil er da jedes Jahr auch hingehört und ich hab dann seine Tochter kennengelernt, weil die auch in einem Formula Student Team ist, die Tochter XY, genau. Und als ich dann eingestellt wurde 2013, war hier eigentlich kompletter Einstellungsstopp und er musste letztendlich unterschreiben, dass ich doch eingestellt werden darf, ok, und dann war das gerade zu der Zeit, als mir der Vertrag zugeschickt wurde und es war gerade zu der Zeit als Formula Student wieder und dann ist der Herr HR mit mir zu ihm gegangen und hat mich noch mal vorgestellt. Und dann meinte der Herr Geschäftsführer auch, edass seine Tochter schon von mir erzählt hat. Und allgemein seither auch, ich bin ganz begeistert, er kennt meinen Namen, er grüßt mich oft im Flur oder so und er hat auch seither - wir haben ein soziales Projekt gemacht, bei uns in der Gruppe und da brauchten wir eine Spende dafür und dann hat er auch das direkt äh, ich hab ihm da geschrieben ob er bereit wäre dafür zu spenden, und dann hat er das sofort gemacht, Maximalbetrag, den er spenden konnte, äh und äh, für dieses für Habitat for Humanity."</p>	<p>„So we had just founded our (formula student) team back then and made this cool image brochure and I just wanted to give it to him. And then he (Mr. President) said: "Just tell me a bit about it" and listened to me and I really liked that. Of course, it did take us still years to get sponsored by BEG, because lastly he doesn't decide this, I think it's HR who does, and they had other criteria. But I just found it cool, that he listened to me. And I was active with the formula student and there I saw him some times, because he attends it every year. There I also met his daughter, XY yes, who is also in a Formula Student team. And when I was hired, there was a complete hiring freeze and lastly he himself had to sign for me to be hired nevertheless, ok and this was about that time when the contract was sent to me that it was also formula student. So Mr. HR just went to him and introduced me. And then Mr. President said that his daughter already told him about me. And ever since, which really amazes me, he knows my name and greets me in the hallway. And when we did a social project in our group and needed some donations, I wrote him directly and asked him if he was willing to donate, and he agreed immediately and gave us the maximum amount he was able to donate."</p>

31G	The sportscar farewell	<p>„Das war die Verabschiedung vom Herrn Gründer. Aber das war, das war wirklich was, wo sich die Kollegen Gedanken gemacht haben, wie kann man, wie kann man diesen Abschied würdig gestalten und dass man ihn dann mit nem Luxusauto dann abholt, ein Versuchsträger war das, ähm, und und dann eben ja, da einen großen Empfang bereitet, wo alle Mitarbeiter dann eben auf dem Hof stehen. Also es war schon alles sehr beeindruckend. Man hat halt gesehen, ok, ähm, äh, der Mann hat was für die Firma getan und es wird ihm jetzt zurückgegeben. Also das war so meiner Meinung nach so ein Ereignis, was das sehr gut gezeigt hat.“</p>	<p>„It was the farewell of Mr. Founder. That was really something where the colleagues put a lot of thought in how to make his farewell worthy and then they picked him up with a luxury car, it was a experimental vehicle and then there was a huge reception, where all of the employees were standing in the courtyard. This was really impressive and you really realized, this man had done something for the firm and now he is getting something in return. I think this showed it really good.“</p>
4E	The reintegration	<p>„. Also ich war eine Zeit lang krank, ich war ein Jahr lang krank und ich hatte nie das Gefühl, dass ich deswegen irgendwie ausgegrenzt wurde oder so oder irgendwie Nachteile hatte. Ja, klar ich bin ja auf einmal ausgefallen, jemand anders musste meine Arbeit machen und so weiter. Aber ich bin danach wieder eingegliedert worden in mein Projekt, in meine Gruppe, hab mein Projekt wieder bekommen, ich wurde nicht gekündigt oder so, ich wurde auch unterstützt in der Zeit in der ich krank war, mein Gruppenleiter hat mich oft angerufen, besucht hat er mich jetzt nicht, aber das ist auch ok. Also ich wüsste jetzt nicht, ob ich das bei einem OEM oder so erwartet hätte.“</p>	<p>„I was sick, sick for over a year, and I never had the feeling that I was excluded in any way or had disadvantages because of that. I dropped out from one day to the other, and someone else had to do my job. But when I came back I was integrated again in my project and my group, got back my project and was not fired or something like that and I was even supported during that time and my group leader called me a lot, he did not visit me, but that was ok. I don't know if I had expected something like that by OEM.“</p>
12D	Complaints to the big boss	<p>„war mal Feedback als er ne Zeit lang vor dem Herrn Assistent mal keinen Assistenten gehabt. Wo ich dann auch zu ihm gesagt habe, Herr Geschäftsführer mit Verlaub aus meiner Sicht kann es so nicht weiter gehen, man kriegt sie gar nicht mehr, man kriegt gar keine Themen mehr und wo ich da immer wieder merk man hat mit Sicherheit nicht das weil der Herr Altmann ihm gesagt hat er braucht einen Assistenten sondern weil er es selber gemerkt hat, da hat er wieder einen eingesetzt. Aber das sind auch Punkte die nimmt er einem nicht krumm, sondern das sind wirklich Sachen, die er auch aufnimmt und dann auch umsetzt. Also die Nahbarkeit an der Stelle ist da sehr groß da.“</p>	<p>„There was a time, long before Mr. Assistent, when he did not have an assistant. At this time I said, Mr. President, I beg your pardon, but in my opinion it can't go on like this, you are not available anymore, topics can't be placed anymore. And of course he didn't get an assistant then because I said so, but because he noticed it himself, and he hired one again. But these things, he does not take the wrong way, but these are really issues he accepts and also realizes. He is very approachable at his end.“</p>
22E	Introduction by the big boss	<p>„Der Herr Geschäftsführer geht hier in der Kantine Mittagessen, das ist echt cool. Bei uns sind die Abteilungseiter nicht mal mit in die Kantine, um Teil von dem her, das ist offen. Bei der letzten BEG Inforunde haben sich die neuen vorgestellt, einer hat den Namen vergessen, da hat der Herr Bihr den Namen genannt. Das fand ich auch sehr beeindruckend.“</p>	<p>„Mr. President is having his lunches here in the canteen, which is really cool. At Bosch not even the directors went to the canteen with us. This is very open. At the last info circle, the new ones introduced themselves, one forgot to tell his name and then Mr. Bihr told the name. That was really impressive.“</p>
23E	The termination inquiry	<p>„Gerade jetzt der Kollege, der am Freitag seinen Ausstand feiert, ist jetzt halt seit 8, 9 Jahren oder so dabei und hat gekündigt, weil er aus familiären Gründen wieder zurück nach Nordrhein-Westfalen möchte, da hat scheinbar der Herr Geschäftsführer bei ihm angerufen, oder angeschrieben, wieso er geht, und was da los ist, so nach dem Motto. Das fand ich irgendwie interessant, dass sich die Geschäftsführung für den einzelnen Mitarbeiter irgendwo interessiert. Ja er hat sicherlich ein paar Berührungspunkte mit dem Herrn Geschäftsführer gehabt, aber trotzdem, es war ja jetzt kein Bereichleiter oder Abteilungsleiter oder so, sondern ein technischer Projektkoordinator, der einfach hier einen guten Job gemacht hat und dass da dann der Chef nachfragt, was da los ist, fand ich beeindruckend.“</p>	<p>„A colleague, who had his farewell on Friday, was for 8,9 years with us and he gave his resignation, because he wanted to go back to Nordrhein-Westfalen for family reasons. And apparently that Mr. President gave him a call, along the lines of, what's going on, why is he going. And I thought this was interesting, that the management is interested in every single employee. He may have had a few touchpoints with Mr. President, but nevertheless, he was not a leading director, but only a technical project coordinator, who just did a good job here, and that the big boss makes an inquiry here, that impressed me.“</p>

27G	Big boss doing maintenance	<p>„Also man hat schon gemerkt so ein CC Manager hat normale Ingenieure gar nicht angeschaut. Für die warst du Luft. Und eben parallel dazu, wenn du bei der BEG Büromaterial gebraucht hast und die Frau Sekretärin war nicht da, dann kam halt der Herr Ruppmann aus seinem Büro und hat gefragt, was kann ich Ihnen helfen. "Oh Gründer ich brauch eigentlich nichts, ich brauch eigentlich nur Büromaterial", "ja sagen Sie mir mal was Sie brauchen." Und hat dir dann das Material gegeben (lacht). Das ist einfach so dieses. Das war für mich ein kompletter, also auf der einen Seite Luft für einen Manager zu sein. Und das hat man dann auch schon mal sehr deutlich gesehen. Also der Bosch Manager in Schwieberdingen, war ein Herr in Anzug mit Krawatte, der dich ignoriert hat und der Herr Gründer hatte durchaus auch schon mal durchgelaufene Schuhe an, und war zwar auch finde ich, hatte eine Autorität ausgestrahlt, aber das war einfach anders das war wirklich für mich ein Gegenprogramm.“</p>	<p>„So could notice that a CC director did not even look at normal engineers. For them you simply didn't exist. And on the other hand, if you needed office supply and Ms. Secretary was not there, then Mr. Founder came out of his office and asked, how he could help you. And then "Oh Mr. Founder, I actually just need offices supplies." "Yes, yes, tell me what you need." And he gave you the material (laughed). And this for me was just completely, on the one hand not existing for a director, and you could see this very obvious, the man in suit and tie, ignoring you, and on the other side Mr. Founder with passed through shoes, but nevertheless radiating authority. But that was really something different.“</p>
29E	The compensation cake	<p>„Ich finde ihn sehr sympathisch, absolut und auch für Formula Student. Er (Herr Geschäftsführer) hat sich am Ende, hat er mal hier zu einer Runde eingeladen, wo er sich bedanken wollte und unser Feedback wissen wollte, was wir nächstes Jahr noch verbessern können, das fand ich richtig cool. Und ja er hatte Kuchen bestellt gehabt bei Eurest und die haben es verpennt und dann hat er am Montag drann, drauf selbst Kuchen gebacken und mitgebracht. Genau deswegen sehr sympathisch.“</p>	<p>„I think he (Mr. President) is very sympathetic, absolutely, also for Formula Student. At the end, he invited to a thank you round, where he wanted to thank us and ask our feedback, how we could improve it in the next year. I liked that very much. And he had ordered cake with the catering and they omitted it and then the Monday after he baked a cake himself and brought it to work. This makes him so sympathetic.“</p>

Biedermeier

Interviewee	Title	Story (Original)	Story (Translated)
6L	The successful experiment	<p>„Das sind die berühmten, sie haben es vielleicht mal gehört, three Letter Companies, also IAV, AVL und FEV, die machen das seit Jahren für Bosch im Unterauftrag, bzw. auch direkt für den Fahrzeughersteller im Unterauftrag und kriegen dafür Geld. Und es ist relativ großer Markt und Bosch wollte auch davon partizipieren. Man hat also zwei Fliegen mit einer Klappe geschafft, äh geschlagen, einmal die Beherrschung der Modellvielfalt und zum zweiten auch in diesem Markt der Dienstleistungen ein Stück abzukriegen. Aber es war von Anfang an nicht klar, ob das gut gehen würde, weil eben Fahrzeughersteller gewohnt sind den Service ja bisher kostenlos von Bosch zu erhalten, denn sie kauften ja die Komponenten. Und damit man diese ich nenne es einmal Koppelgeschäfte, also Service ist im Komponentenpreis inbegriffen, vermeidet hat man ganz am Anfang der Firmenzeit versucht die Tochterfirma von Bosch möglichst optisch weit weg von Bosch zu schieben. Eigener Name, es war mal ein anderes Farbkonzept da, ASSET war mal blau, keine Bosch-Marke im Namen, und so weiter. Und möglichst eigenständigen Marktauftritt. Und das, ich sag mal, das war der Start - und dann hat es aber sich gezeigt, dass das Modell sehr gut funktioniert hat, wir sind sehr stark gewachsen, sehr profitabel auch. Und dann kam, was bei Bosch oft kommt, dann wird es, ich sag mal, ein bisschen salopp gesagt, nachdem das Experiment vorbei ist, dann wird es in den Konzern reingeholt. Was für uns zwar, für die Gründer, die ein</p>	<p>„It's the famous three letter companies, may be you already came across them, I mean, IAV, AVL and FEV. They have been doing this for years for Bosch as subcontractor, also directly for the car manufacturer as subcontractors and get money for this. It's a relatively large market and Bosch wanted participate. So it was killing two birds with one stone: On the one hand, controlling the diversity of models and on the other hand to get a share of the pie of this subcontractor service market. But at the beginning it was not clear, if it would be successful. Because the car manufacturers are used to get this service free of charge by Bosch, because they bought the components. In order to avoid these tie in businesses, where the service is included in the component price, we tried in the starting time to position the subsidiary of Bosch optically as far away as possible from the Bosch brand. An own name, another colour concept, ASSET was blue, no Bosch in the name and so on. A preferably own brand presence. And this, I'd say, was the start. And then it turned out, that the model was going very well.</p>

		eigenständige Firma aufbauen sollten und diese zum Erfolg führen sollten, insofern etwas frustrierend war, weil wir schon gesehen haben, jetzt werden wir wieder an die kürzere Leine genommen. Andererseits hatte es auch Vorteile gehabt, weil mit dem Bosch im Firmenschild fragt niemand nach Kompetenz und niemand nach Fähigkeit etwas zu tun, es ist einfach klar."	We grew very fast and got very profitable as well. And then happened, what often happens with Bosch, then it got, I put it crudely, after the experiment was over, then the Bosch group steps in. This was admittedly for us, who wanted to found an own company and make it successful, a little frustrating, because we saw, that would be getting under Bosch's thumb. On the other hand, there were the advantages, because with the Bosch nameplate, nobody asks for competence and the ability of doing something, it's just clear."
3E	The transgression of competence	„Mhhh, ja oder dass man halt, oder also ein Beispiel war bei mir, ich war in Karlsruhe gewesen mit dem Vortrag Fahrerassistenzsysteme für die Sportwagen von morgen und es war natürlich auch öffentlich bekannt, weil durch Internet und so weiter und ich hab von den CC Marketing Kollegen, eine Anfrage was ich da präsentiere, warum ich als BEG Powertrainer über Fahrerassistenzsysteme erzählen kann, darf soll, was ich damit überhaupt zu tun hab, klar wir konnten das auflösen, weil wir halt schön zeigen kann ok hier BEG intern, wir arbeiten zusammen und das ist halt BEG und das wird als BEG dargestellt und nicht als Bosch, aber schon allein, dass man halt so Rückfragen kriegt, ist natürlich immer so ein bisschen ja, wo sich halt Leute anscheinend in ihrem Gebiet halt irgendwie Eindringlingen befürchten und so“	„yes, or maybe, that you, or an example I experienced, I was in Karlsruhe giving a presentation about driver assistance systems for the sportscars of tomorrow. And of course it was publicly known, because of the Internet and so on. And the CC Marketing colleagues, asked me, what I was going to present and why this was done by me, from Powertrain talking about assisted driving. In the end, we could dissolve it, because we could show how well we collaborate internally and this is how BEG is, and it is presented as BEG and not as Bosch. But this fact by itself, that there were such queries, this just, a sign of fear of intruders their field."
12D	A reason to leave	„es gab eine Bewertung der, Gott wie hieß das, der Mitarbeiterzufriedenheit damals schon. Lange bevor es die MABs und AS-Umfragen gab und da war ein Ziel in den Boschsätzen von GS war drin: Hohe Mitarbeiterzufriedenheit durch, ich weiß nicht was da drunter stand und ein halbes Jahr später gab's eine Bewertung. Es gab eine Bewertung ohne dass mir für mich erkennbar Mitarbeiter gefragt wurden ob Sie denn zufriedener geworden sind dadurch. Und wie ich mal gefragt habe wie gibt's denn das, dass jemand was postuliert und das Wort Mitarbeiter in den Mund nimmt und dann den Mitarbeiter für mich erkennbar und ich hab wirklich ein gutes Netzwerk auch in den Geschäftsbereichen und auch mengenmäßig groß ohne für mich erkennbar jemals gefragt zu haben: " Fühlen sie sich besser - ja - nein". Und das ist für mich so ein Punkt gewesen wo ich gesagt habe, das kann doch nicht sein oder, dass man so, so in seiner eigenen Welt lebt und sagt ok, also ich sag jetzt wir hatten einen Status 1 zum Zeitpunkt 0 hatten wir da, da waren wir schlecht und denk ich jetzt haben wir ein halbes Jahr mehr und wir Aktivitäten getrieben, die ich nicht gemessen hab, aber jetzt sind wir besser."	„There was an assesment, oh my god, how was it called, it was already back then about the employee satisfaction. Long before there were Employee surveys and Annual surveys, and there was a target in it with Bosch sentences of GS: High employee satisfaction, I don't know what was listed below that. But half a year later there was an assessment. There was an assessment without having asked, as far as I could see it, any employees, if they became more satisfied thereby. Und then I asked, how could this be, that someone postulates something and taking the word employees in the mouth without having to my knowledge asked any employees. And I really had a good network within the BU and also by numbers, without having asked someone: "Do you feel better? Yes - no." And this was the point for me, where I said, this can't happen, this can't be, that someone is living so much in his own world, and says ok, we have now status 1 at point zero and there we were doing badly and never bothered to measure, but now we are better. This was when I realized I had to leave."
14D	The renaming confusion	„noch so ne Anekdote als ich damals beim TS war hieß er noch K5 und es ist von einem Tag auf den andern ist da ne mail gekommen"" ach ja übrigens in 2 Wochen Heißen wir DS Diesel-Systems". Das wusste da keiner bis zum Gruppen-Abteilungsleiter wusste da keiner, dass man das da irgendwie vorhat, das hat riesen Auswirkungen auf alle IT und alles Mögliche gehabt und es mussten irgendwelche Visitenkarten neu gedruckt werden bis irgendwelche alles musste dann irgendwie verändert werden, aber das da	„Another anecdote, when I was at DS at Bosch, which used to be called K5 and from one day to the other an e-mail came "by the way, starting two weeks from now, will be called DS - Diesel Systems." No one knew, not even our group leaders or directors, knew that this was planned. And the repercussions were enormous regarding IT and everything imaginable. Business cards had to be printed

	<p>wusste keiner was davon das wurde halt ganz oben entschieden, wurde dann so kommuniziert und gleich sofort umgesetzt, also da war auch keine Frage ob man das gut findet oder nicht gut findet. Das war dann einfach so. Jetzt bei der Umbenennung Asset/Bosch-Engineering hat man zumindest ein bisschen Vorlauf gehabt und hat auch eine Diskussion gehabt in unserer Kultur. Warum muss man das tun, was bringt das, warum ist das wichtig, auch bisschen erklärt, die Leute ein bisschen da auch mitzunehmen weil's natürlich schon auch es war aus meiner Sicht eine härtere Änderung ist ob jetzt von K5 nach Diesel-systems mich benenne ok ein bisschen mehr englisch aber hat jetzt keinen großen Schritt wohingegen wenn ich als eigenständige Firma gestartet bin mit 'nem eigenständigen Namen mich dann in Bosch-Engineering wieder umbenenne, das ist ja ein viel größerer Schritt eigentlich.“</p>	<p>out, everything had to be changed. And nobody knew. It was decided at the very top and then communicated afterwards and effective immediately. There was no question if people liked it or not. It was just like that. And now at the renaming of ASSET to Bosch Engineering, there was at least a bit of a forerun and a discussion, in our culture: Why this has to be done, what we are getting out of it, why is it important, just explaining a little bit to to include the people, because it is a big change, bigger than renaming K5 into Diesel Systems, which had just more english words in it. But if I am an independent company that started with an own name and I then change my name back to bosch, this is a much bigger step actually.“</p>
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Appendix III – Interview Guide (Original)

1. EISBRECHER-FRAGEN

- Seit wann sind Sie hier bei BEG?
- Waren Sie davor schon bei Bosch bevor Sie zur BEG gekommen sind?
Was waren die Unterschiede von Bosch zu BEG?
- Wie war der erste Kontakt, wie waren die ersten Eindrücke?
- Wie würden Sie aktuell hier Ihre Position beschreiben im Unternehmen?

2. KULTUR/IDENTITÄT

- Welche zentralen Werte fallen Ihnen auf? Woher kommen Ihrer Meinung nach diese Werte?
- Können Sie ein Beispiel nennen? Sonst noch irgendwelche Werte? Wie wird hier miteinander umgegangen? Wie äußert sich das?
- Was wird getan um die Werte zu stärken?
- Welche Traditionen oder Rituale nehmen Sie war?
- Von außen betrachtet, woran würde man einen BEG Mitarbeiter erkennen? Wie ist ein typischer BEGler?
- Wie würden Sie die Führungskultur beschreiben? Wie erleben Sie den Geschäftsführer?
- Wie hat sich die Kultur Ihrer Meinung nach verändert?
- Wenn Sie etwas an der Kultur ändern könnten, was wäre das?

3. STORIES

- Was war ihr schönstes Erlebnis bei BEG? Was ist Ihre Lieblingsgeschichte aus der Zeit hier?
- Gibt es ein prägendes Erlebnis aus Ihrer ersten Zeit hier?
- Haben Sie eine besondere Geschichte, die sie gerne erzählen?
- Kennen Sie Geschichten oder Mythen über die Kultur?
- Gibt es eine Geschichte, die die Kultur von BEG zusammenfasst?
- Gibt es eine Geschichte, die bezeichnend für die BEG ist?
- Gibt es Beispiele für bestimmte Werte? Können Sie eine bestimmte Situation nennen?

4. MARKENBOTSCHAFTER

- Reden Sie in Ihrer Freizeit über die Arbeit? Mit wem Reden Sie über die Arbeit? Mit Freunden oder Bekannten?

- Warum haben Sie sich entschieden bei den Impulsgebern/Mentoren/im Personalmarketing mitzumachen? Was sind die Themen über die Sie reden?
- Erzählen Sie dort auch diese Geschichten?
- Würden Sie sich selbst als Markenbotschafter bezeichnen?
- Haben Sie schon einmal jemanden für eine Stelle empfohlen?

Appendix IV – Electronic Appendix

01_Category_Table_MAXQDA_Export

02_Interview_Transcripts

Appendix V – Original Quotes

¹ „Ich selber verstehe mich als Markenbotschafter für BEG, nämlich zu werben und zu sagen mensch wir haben ein tolles, attraktives Arbeitsumfeld in Albstadt, das hat sonst keiner im ganzen BOSCH Konzern“ (8D, §81).

² „Ich glaube, weil mir der Job hier Spaß macht würde ich generell sagen, dass bei der BEG, dass ich eigentlich, ja, so schon, wie sagst du, so eine Art Markenbotschafterin bin, weil ich äh wahrscheinlich positiv über meine Arbeit spreche, aber nicht jetzt, weil ich bei diesem Fotoshooting mitgemacht habe“ (10E, §146).

³ „Ja doch. Ich rede über das Unternehmen, auch im Privatem, sehr gut darüber. [...] Das war wir machen, finde ich gut. Die Arbeitsatmosphäre finde ich sehr gut. Alles was ich erzähle nach außen, ist ja nicht gelogen und das mache ich nicht um mehr Mitarbeiter zubekommen, sondern es ist einfach so, es ist die Wahrheit“ (11E, §80).

⁴ „Also das macht mir schon auch Spaß und das finde ich auch gut das wir da bei BOSCH die Möglichkeit geben können, auf Schulen, [...] damit zuzugehen und die einfach schon in der Frühphase für BOSCH zu gewinnen. [...] Verstehe mich als Markenbotschafterin für den Konzern“ (13E, §98).

⁵ „Dass man einen regen Austausch hat und das macht es auch interessant“ (10E, §62).

⁶ „Dann sag ich, nee bei uns ist es super. Was das angeht, hab ich dann keinen Grund irgendwie mich zu beschweren“ (15E, §90).

⁷ „Wenn ich von meinem Beruf erzähle, erzähle ich sehr positiv davon, [...], weil mir die Arbeit Spaß macht, weil sie mir auch nach elf Jahren noch Spaß macht (2G, §60).

⁸ „Ab und zu mit Freunden, wenn halt so ein bisschen die Fragen kommen ja was läuft denn grad so beruflich. Aber relativ selten weil über vieles was wir hier tun, was ich hier tue darf man auch gar nicht reden. Also so jetzt irgendwelche Details bei irgendwelchen Projekten“ (14D, §91).

⁹ „Also wenn ich feststell, die Leute passen und wir haben gerade eine passende Stelle, dann melde ich mich bei denen“ (33E, 225).

¹⁰ „Aber ähm empfohlen habe ich BEG als Arbeitgeber schon öfters und ich hab auch schon einige Leute die nachher hier gelandet sind“ (27G, §77).

¹¹ „Ja auch Freunde -XY hier - [...] ist jetzt vor drei vier Jahren dann zu uns gekommen (33E, § 229).

¹² „Wenn es jetzt jemand ist, wo sich für das Studium oder für sowas interessiert, dann würde ich ihm schon interessieren, was die BEG macht“ (30G).

¹³ „Und da redet man natürlich auch untereinander, wie sind die Arbeitsbedingungen, was machst du gerade, wie sind die Themen. Und ja auch da redet man darüber, was ja, wie es bei der BEG so ist, was wir so machen.“

¹⁴ „Ich hatte einen Mitstudenten, [...], der ist ja heute Abteilungsleiter bei uns, [...] und dann hat er sich einen Job gesucht. Und dann hab ich gesagt, hey, guck, das wäre doch vielleicht auch was und hab dann mit dem Herrn XY noch gesprochen, also die Bewerbungsmappe ganz nach oben gelegt“ (30G, §63.)

¹⁵ „Ja, einmal weil ich glaube, dass die Person selber gut zur BEG passt, ja, ähm, ganz einfach auch von seiner Persönlichkeit her von seiner Art zu arbeiten, dann weil ich von der Person sehr sehr überzeugt bin“ (3E, §86).

¹⁶ „Ja, also wenn ich mitkriege ok die sind gut, natürlich dann versuche ich halt die irgendwie zu überzeugen. [...] Hey mach was, wir können das auch so machen, dass du auch in zwei Jahren noch wieder hier anfangen kannst [...] Genau. Ein paar fangen dann wirklich hier an“ (22E, §80)

¹⁷ „Damit hat man natürlich auch automatisch einen gewissen Überlapp und auch ein gewisses Gesprächsthema an der Stelle. [...] Bosch-Kultur, Boschprodukte, Boschthema“ (20D, §67).

¹⁸ „Doch schon auch, also ich, hab letzte Woche mich ziemlich über einen Kunden aufgeregt, da hab ich dann daheim schon mit meiner Frau drüber geredet, [...] mehr auf, so als Ausgleich um Druck abzubauen“ (17G, §81).

¹⁹ „Und ansonsten sage ich meiner Frau immer, wenn Stellen frei sind, [...] war aber hier bei der BEG schon recht lange, [...] und würde gerne wieder zur BEG“ (26E, §140).

²⁰ „Bekannte, aber auch Familienmitglieder die eben auch in anderen, die teilweise auch in-
 roßunternehmen sind, wo man einfach mitbekommt, wie es da so läuft“ (15E, §92).

²¹ „Auch mit meinen Töchtern, [...] die eine ist in einem Autohaus, die andere ist auch in ei-
 nem Unternehmen das relativ international tätig ist, ähm grad um einfach mal spitz zu kriegen,
 wie läuft denn, wie laufen denn da die Regeln ab, wie laufen da die Prozeduren ab“ (12D,
 §148).

²² „Der Freund von meiner Cousine, dem hatte ich damals eine offene Stelle weitergelei-
 tet“ (32E, §94).

²³ „Das ist logisch dass man sich mit der Familie unterhält, ich meine es ist kein Zufall, dass
 mein Schwager mittlerweile hier ähm sein Praktikum macht, vom Studium her“ (27G, §71).

²⁴ „Naja, ich bin in der Firma und ich möchte auch das Beste für die Firma“ (26E, §46).

²⁵ „Weil man steht, also ich stehe hinter dem Unternehmen und ehrlich gesagt bei dem ersten
 war es total spontan, wollte es mir nur anschauen und dann war ich auch schon drin und war
 auf einmal dabei und beim zweiten Film wusste ich halt schon, was rauskommt und ich fand
 es sehr gut und wollte nochmal mitspielen“ (11E, §62).

²⁶ „Zum Beispiel fürs Marketing eigene Leute einzusetzen, also die eigenen Mitarbeiter tat-
 sächlich, nicht irgendwie Statisten zu nehmen fürs Marketing, das ist schon nicht überall so.
 Das finde ich eine tolle Sache. [...] Weil das einfach auch authentisch wirkt, und es zeigt ja
 auch dass man Vertrauen hat zu seiner Kultur, wenn man die eigenen Leute sprechen lassen
 kann“ (25E, §70).

²⁷ „Also ich hab dann schon auch den Ehrgeiz die BEG möglichst gut zu repräsentieren, wenn
 ich irgendwo repräsentiere“ (15E, §86).

²⁸ „Ich hoffe, dass ich einer bin. Das ist mein, das ist grundsätzlich eine Erwartungshaltung ei-
 nes Boschler nicht nur eines BEGlers. [...]dass er die Firma bestmöglich beim Kunden ver-
 tritt“ (9L, §144).

²⁹ „Bei der Weihnachtsfeier genauso, allein die Idee da unten eine Art Weihnachtsmarkt aufzu-
 bauen mit allem drum und dran. Das finde ich der Hammer und wie gesagt, ich geh auch sel-
 ber gerne hin und erzähle natürlich auch darüber im Sinne von ok, was hat das Unternehmen
 alles zu bieten“ (3E, §56).

³⁰ „Und ich finde auch es ist eine schöne Anerkennung, dass es so ein Weihnachtsgeschenk
 gibt bei der BEG“ (2G, §70).

³¹ „Zum 10 jährigen Jubiläum haben wir das Bild gemacht mit den Mitarbeitern im Hintergrund
 das auch im Eingangsbereich in Halle eins hängt. Und das fand ich eine tolle Idee. Jeden Mit-
 arbeiter so ein Bild im Rahmen zu geben, [...] aber ich fand das eine tolle Idee, weil da ist
 man halt Teil eines Ganzen und es gibt da dieses Bild, man kann hingehen und man kann sa-
 gen da bin ich dabei“ (2G, §70).

³² „Was ich ganz toll finde, die Fotowand, die für die neuen Mitarbeiter, die eingestiegen sind,
 die hängt ja unten im U1, eine ganze Fotowand. Jeder Mitarbeiter, die monatlich neu gekom-
 men sind wurden auf einem Bild verewigt“ ((21E, §52).

³³ „Ich meine, es ist auch eine kleine Geste, aber ich finde trotzdem mit großer Aussagekraft,
 das ist allein auf der Mitarbeiterinforunde, die Vorstellung von neuen Kollegen, auch da ir-
 gendwie so ne du gehst jetzt nicht irgendwie so als kleines Zahnradchen in dein Uhrwerk, son-
 dern irgendwie ja es ist zumindest ein kurzes Interesse da“ (23E, §46).

³⁴ „Ja ich denke schon, diese Wertschätzung, genau, an der Schnittstelle, wenn ich jetzt zum
 Beispiel in die Einbauhalle gehen möchte. Da ist in beiden Richtungen diese Wertschätzung
 auch da, also über Hierarchieebenen hinweg, oder über Arbeitsbereich hinweg, da nehm ich
 das schon sehr sehr stark wahr“ (23E, §23).

³⁵ „Der nächste Aspekt Wertschätzung ist wie wir unsere Mitarbeiter und für unsere Mitarbei-
 ter. Das muss ich sagen zieht sich allerdings auch wie ein roter Faden natürlich durch BOSCH
 durch [...] im Vergleich zu anderen Unternehmen, bei BOSCH der Mitarbeiter im Mittelpunkt
 steht und nicht nur eben Sinn für ein Ertragsziel ist [...] von den Werten, die wir innerhalb der
 BEG leben und innerhalb von BOSCH leben , eins der höchsten. Die Wertschätzung“ (8D,
 §20).

³⁶ „das Andere ist die Wertschätzung. Das ist bei BOSCH im allgemeinen ein hohes Gut aber
 bei der BEG erlebe ich ich das im Besonderen“ (2G, §24).

³⁷ „Motivation oder auch ein Verständnis dafür ist mein Einfluss oder mein Beitrag zum Ergeb-
 nis das Ergebnis. Und den Rückschluss dann auch zu bilden das man sieht, das was ich tue
 hat wirklich Einfluss auf das Ergebnis.“ (1P, §94).

³⁸ „Trotzdem könnt ich mir vorstellen, hier bei der Firma alt zu werden und irgendwann in Rente zu gehen“ (17G, §49).

³⁹ „Ich habe es in den elf Jahren noch nie bereut“ (2G, §18).

⁴⁰ „Aber was ich sehr cool finde, ist dass die Leute extrem lange hierbleiben“ (22E, §54).

⁴¹ „Also die bleiben bei der BEG, die suchen sich einen neuen Job bei der BEG“ (22E, §54).

⁴² „Einfach auch aus diesem Zugehörigkeitsgefühl, dass man sich halt unterstützen möchte und auch halt ein gemeinsames Ziel hat, die BEG weiter auf der Erfolgsspur zu halten“ (5E, §64).

⁴³ „Loyalität, aber in beide Richtungen, sowohl von uns zum Unternehmen als auch andersrum.“ (17G, §49).

⁴⁴ „Ich bin in der Firma und ich möchte auch das Beste für die Firma [...]. Und daher ist es eben da auch so, dass ich sage, ich bin halt BEGler und die anderen auch und dann hilft man sich“ (26E, §46).

⁴⁵ „So eine innere Ausrichtung, das wird der BEG helfen oder es wird der BEG nicht helfen unabhängig davon, was jetzt gerade konkrete Strategie ist, [...]. Dieser Unternehmer quasi, der innere Unternehmer, der ist schon bei vielen noch da. Das spüre ich schon“ (15E, §15).

⁴⁶ „Vielleicht hat man, haben die BEGler einfach mehr im Kopf sie müssen sich irgendwo so ein bisschen selbst vermarkten. Was ein Forschungsbereich ja so nicht hat, weil bei denen ruft kein BMW an“ (28E, §98).

⁴⁷ „Was mit Sicherheit ein Unterschied zum Geschäftsbereich ist. Was auch ein Asset der BEG ist, ist dass man spürt, dass die Leute mehr oder jeder Mitarbeiter irgendwo mehr sich mit dem wirtschaftlichen Erfolg auch des Unternehmens identifizieren wie vielleicht im Geschäftsbereich.“ (9L, §100)

⁴⁸ „Ich glaube ein weiterer Punkt ist auch die Ertragsorientierung. Wahrscheinlich haben wir das über die letzten 14 Jahre jetzt oder 15 Jahre so stark gelebt, dass wir es verinnerlicht haben, gelernt haben, wenn man es so will. Es heißt es wird sehr früh und sehr schnell gefragt, wie machen wir Ertrag draus“ (6L, §55).

⁴⁹ „Weil gefühlt jeder einzelne näher am Projekt ist [...], denkt dabei auch muss ich sagen, gefühlt auch mehr an Kosten und Geld“ (24E, §24).

⁵⁰ „Die Kunden sind hier einfach spezieller als bei BOSCH“ (21E, § 26).

⁵¹ „Aber so vom Mindset Also das was gleich geblieben ist, was ich von früher auch schon kannte und was mir bei der BEG sehr gut gefällt, was auch einer der Gründe war, warum ich zur BEG zurückgekommen bin, ist dieser Mindset, diese Kundenorientierung und das man unternehmerisch denkt und das man auch wirklich sein Projekt, seine Themen und so weiter und so fort, mit Umsatz und allem drum und dran verfolgt“ (20D, §11).

⁵² „Wir machen Sachen möglich, die eventuell gar nicht erwartet werden vom Kunden oder die halt die Erwartungen übertreffen“ (13E, §22).

⁵³ „Die Nähe zum Kunden auf jeden Fall. Ich glaube, dass das auch eine Stärke ist von der BEG, [...] wenn dann Freitag mittags um drei ein Kollege da war, kannst du mir geschwind einen Flug buchen ich muss am Montag um neun beim Kunden stehen“ (28E, §22).

⁵⁴ „Und das ist glaube ich auch was, das die BEG gegenüber anderen Firmen ausmacht. Das ist diese Nähe zum Kunden und zum Produkt, [...] es ist jeder so nahe dran am Kunden und kriegt über seine Arbeitsergebnisse direktes Feedback, dass da jeder die Motivation hat, das beste rauszuholen“ (17G, §53).

⁵⁵ „Wir leben hier wirklich den Spirit, dass der Kundenerfolg unser Erfolg ist, also schauen wir, dass wir alles tun, dass der Kunde erfolgreich ist. Wir stellen ihn nicht an die Wand, wir stellen ihm keine Ultimaten, sondern wir schauen immer eine Lösung für ihn zu schaffen, egal wie wir uns verbiegen müssen“ (8D, §18).

⁵⁶ „Ein Spruch“ (7D, §36).

⁵⁷ „Wer macht verkauft“ (7D, §36, 24E, §20, 6L, §6, §44, 20D, §18).

⁵⁸ „Und die Grundidee, die mir die Herren dann auseinander gesetzt haben, war, dass man die Trennung zwischen Verkauf und Entwicklung aufhebt. Das heißt, wenn man heute ein bisschen salopp sagt, ‚wer macht verkauft‘, dann trifft man das Prinzip, aber die Idee war damals eben, dass es diesen Bruch zwischen Vertragsgestaltung und Leistungsdefinition, etzteres machen nämlich in der Regel die Entwicklungsingenieure, das man den aufhebt und dass man beides in eine Hand tut“ (6L, §6).

⁵⁹ „Also dieses derjenige der beim Kunden steht und das Projekt vertritt und auch verkauft

weiß auch technisch inhaltlich was da zu tun ist, das ist denk ich schon ein sehr starker Kulturbestand halt der BEG immer gewesen“ (14D, §58).

⁶⁰ „Durch dieses Thema, dass die Projektleiter ihre Projekte und zukünftige Projekte selbst akquirieren und eng mit dem Kunden auch zusammenarbeiten und wissen okay, wenn ich das nicht gut mache und die Zusammenarbeit nicht gut läuft, dann wird es keine Folgeprojekte geben“ (20D, §13).

⁶¹ „Diese Art und Weise Geschäft zu machen Geschäfte zu machen ist die BEG groß geworden und das funktioniert auch hervorragend bei den ganzen klassischen Themen“ (9L, §72).

⁶² „Was jetzt auch passiert, „One-Face-to-the-Customer“. Das ist was, wo ich sagen muss, da bin ich mir nicht sicher, ob das der richtige Weg ist oder ob das eigentlich auf dem Markt schon wieder ein sinkendes Schiff ist“ (26E, §93).

⁶³ „Also ich bin immer noch mitverantwortlich auch für den Verkauf, nur bekomme ich Unterstützung aus der Gesamtorganisation des Verkauf und das erleichtert mir die Arbeit. [...] Also so habe ich Herrn Geschäftsführer verstanden“ (33E, §24).

⁶⁴ „Also ich bin jetzt kein Feind der Neuorganisation sondern im Gegenteil, glaube, dass wir das brauchen“ (14D, §60).

⁶⁵ „Das Ursprungsbild war natürlich absolutes Unternehmertum mit nichts zu starten und probieren alles zu erreichen, d.h. bei jeder Kundenanfrage die kam, hat man sich überlegt, wie kann diese Kundenanfrage gelöst werden, [...] und jetzt kommen wir wieder zu diesem nicht Silo-Denken, nämlich überlegt, wer hat denn die beste Kompetenz, wer hat das beste Wissen, die Lösung für den Kunden bereitzustellen?“ (8D, §48).

⁶⁶ „fokussiert“, „mensch jetzt geben wir mal ein bisschen mehr Geld“, „riskieren mal ein Stückchen mehr“ (8D, §48).

⁶⁷ „Und 80% richtige Entscheidung gleich getroffen und umgesetzt ist oft besser als 100% die ewig lang dauert bis man sie hat“ (1P, §50).

⁶⁸ „Geschwindigkeit als Wert einfach höher gesehen wird in Verbindung mit Effizienz“ (14D).

⁶⁹ „Also da gab es einen, der sich da so ein bisschen auskannte, der halt da vom DS kam oder so und gesagt, hat so und so müsste man das machen. Ja. Und ja, also das war auch der Vorteil gewesen, man halt weniger Prozesse gehabt, konnte dadurch auch schneller sein“ (31G, §20).

⁷⁰ „Du fängst halt einfach an zu rudern und zu schwimmen und fängst an, Verbindungen, Verknüpfungen zu erstellen und da das Laufen zu lernen und ich merke schon so, dass die Bereitschaft das Laufen zu lernen und der Reiz an dem neuen, doch recht ausgeprägt ist, [...]. Aber ich persönlich nehme sehr viele proaktive Menschen wahr. (15E, §27).

⁷¹ „Das war halt eher so ein gemeinsames Ziel und nicht so, gegeneinander“ (23E, §14).

⁷² „Ja, also man hat, häufig dann auch mehr reagiert als agiert“ (31G, §20).

⁷³ „Dass man immer das Gefühl hatte, ok, selbst wenn es vielleicht schwierig scheint und wenn man jetzt vielleicht noch nicht alles kann, man traut es sich erstmal zu und kriegt, eigentlich haben wir es immer auch gut hingekriegt. Also auch viele Projekte glaube ich erfolgreich in Serie gebracht, wo man vielleicht am Anfang gesagt hat, können wir das überhaupt. Gut, dann stellen wir halt noch einen Mitarbeiter ein“ (30G, §32).

⁷⁴ „Es gab drei größere Projekte. [...] also man wusste am Anfang vom Projekt nicht, wie das am Ende aussehen wird. [...] Man ist natürlich dann in viele Fallen getappt, das ist auch klar, aber es hat irgendwie funktioniert.“ (31G, §18).

⁷⁵ „Weswegen BEG gegründet wurde, schnell zu reagieren und zu agieren für kleine Kunden.“ (18E, §24).

⁷⁶ „ich glaube dass es vielen schon hier wichtig ist, so dieses, ich springe da mal kurz ein, [...] - auch wenn es vielleicht nicht so ganz meine Aufgabe ist, oder ich mache das jetzt schnell, so diese Flexibilität.“ (28E, §20).

⁷⁷ „Wo beim Bosch halt ne Lösung erst beim Kunden Präsentiert wird, wenn sie quasi perfekt ist, gehen wir auch mal mit halbfertigen Lösungen auf den Kunden zu, ja“ (3E, §44).

⁷⁸ „Es ist manches professioneller, also dieses, bei uns wird ja doch teilweise ein bisschen gewählt [...] im anderen Extrem erst mal von Grund auf analysiert und gemacht und getan und man leitet dann irgend was draus ab und ein halbes Jahr später fängt man dann an“ (14D, §76).

⁷⁹ „Das haben wir schon immer so gemacht und dieses, das haben wir schon so gemacht, höre ich bei BEG nahezu gar nicht, und das heißt, wir passen uns an viele Dinge einfach an“ (22E, §36).

⁸⁰ „Aber würde mir manchmal wünschen, manches wäre wieder wie früher, dass man halt unkompliziert sich wirklich am Auto mal über irgendwas unterhält, über alle Hierarchieebenen hinweg“ (15E, §50).

⁸¹ „Weil in der Größe ging es damals halt auch noch. Es hat dann auch angefangen mit Biertischen im Hof aufbauen so - also so eigentlich noch ganz einfach. Genauso Weihnachtsfeier war auch im Büro“ (30G, §24).

⁸² „Ich glaube früher war man einfach so ein bisschen hemdsärmeliger unterwegs, [...] ich glaube man hat halt mehr der Kunde kam, hat sich was überlegt, man hat relativ schnell mit dem dann ein Gespräch angefangen, und hat mit dem erörtert, wie könnte man es vielleicht umsetzen, man hat vielleicht auch offener im Dialog mit dem Kunden, was ich heute vielleicht auch ein bisschen gerne anders hätte“ (15E, §52).

⁸³ „Kreativität“ (12D, §109).

⁸⁴ „Und eigentlich würde es mir besser gefallen, man würde wieder dahin zurückkommen. Also man braucht trotzdem diese Leitplanken, diesen Prozess und diese Definition. Aber dass man sich trotzdem auch überlegt, macht das jetzt Sinn für meine Anwendung. [...] Das wäre toll, wenn wir da hinkommen würden wieder.“ (16G, §28).

⁸⁵ „Aber ich bin sehr zufrieden, ja ich identifiziere mich auch doch relativ stark mit dem Unternehmen.“ (5E, §62).

⁸⁶ „Also ich denke jeder hier kann sich mit der Marke identifizieren, kann sich mit Bosch identifizieren. Ich kenne keinen, der sich jetzt einen Black and Decker Tacker kaufen würde, sondern würde eher Richtung Bosch Tacker tendieren. Sondern einfach, man steht dahinter, man kann da mit gehen“ (17G, §49).

⁸⁷ „Wenn ich unsere Mitarbeiter reden höre, dann haben sie eine hohe Identifikation mit dem Kunden selber. Am ehesten mit den illustren Marken, die dahinterstehen aber umgekehrt auch kleiner Kunden. Schauen ein beispielsweise Hersteller von Kehrmaschinen ist, der ist jetzt nicht so populär wie Ferrari“ (8D, §61).

⁸⁸ „Wir wollen auch die, möglichst auch die Ingenieure, die Funktionen entwickeln auch den Bezug zum Fahrzeug, zum Kunden auch geben damit dort die Identifikation hoch ist (1P, §104).

⁸⁹ „Dieses Gefühl wir sind BEG oder so, der ist viel stärker da, als im CR. Im CR hab ich nie gedacht, hey ich bin die Forschung oder so. Aber hier fühl ich mich halt schon, ok, ich vertrete in gewisserweise die BEG, also“ (22E, §22).

⁹⁰ „ich bin ja auch viel im Geschäftsbereich unterwegs von meiner Arbeit her, ich merke das schon jedes Mal dass ich da schon ein Stück weit, einmal Repräsentant für die BEG bin, auf der anderen Seite aber auch halt Dinge abkriege, die die BEG in Summe vielleicht irgendwann mal verbockt hat.“ (3E, §78).

⁹¹ „Und das es auch prägt wenn man jeden Tag quasi immer dem Kunden gegenüber seine Dienste verkauft“ (2G, §40).

⁹² „Der Einsatz und der Wille für den Kunden ein erfolgreiches Projekt zu machen und sich dann auch dabei gut und stolz zu fühlen, ist immer noch etwas, was hier mehr ist, als ich bei Bosch sehe, wenn ich mit den Leuten spreche.“ (6L, §55).

⁹³ „Die dann mal eher ein Arbeitspaket oder zwei Arbeitspakete dann machen“ (31G, §46).

⁹⁴ „Also ich bin schon stolz bei der BEG zu sein, bin auch stolz bei Bosch zu sein.“ (27G, §69).

⁹⁵ „Es wird schon positiv nach außen kommuniziert, wie ich das wahrnehme, was auch beim BOSCH so ist, aber ein BOSCH'ler ist eher stolz darauf ein BOSCH'ler zu sein und ein BEG'ler ist eher stolz auf seine Arbeit und dass er bei BEG arbeitet.“ (19E, §43).

⁹⁶ „Dieses Thema mit dem Audi A 5 war ein schönes Beispiel. Ja, wo dann auch alle halt sehr stolz drauf waren danach, dass man es halt geschafft hat, in der wahnsinnig kurzen Zeit.“ (5E, §72).

⁹⁷ „Weil ich ein BA Studium gemacht habe, im Bachelor, also als Bachelorstudium und ich ähm, war dann halt auch im [Muttergesellschaft-Geschäftsbereich], bei [andere Tochtergesellschaft], bei [Muttergesellschaft-Geschäftsbereich] und hier halt bei BEG und das, im ganzen Vergleich war definitiv bei BEG, glaube ich so die Gruppendynamik die beste, [...] ich hab ja bei den BEG hatte ich ja das Gefühl, dass sie sehr stolz darauf sind bei BEG zu arbeiten.“ (29E, §14)

⁹⁸ „Also ASSET muss man immer erklären, was ist ASSET, wenn man jemandem im Bekanntenkreis erzählt hat, [...]. Danach hat man halt gesagt, man arbeitet bei Bosch oder bei Bosch

Engineering, das sagt jedem sofort. [...] das sieht man ja auch bei den Mitarbeiterbefragungen, jeder ist ja auch irgendwie stolz bei Bosch zu arbeiten“ (30G, §30).

⁹⁹ „Ich grenze die BEG gegen BOSCH ab. Klingt jetzt auch wieder hart, aber das ist ja sowieso schon. Also eine BEG arbeitet mit dem BOSCH zusammen, aber es ist jetzt nicht so, dass man sagt „Oh ja“. Also man sagt häufig „Ich bin BEGler“, seltener hört man hier „Ich bin BOSCHler“. Sondern die BOSCHler sind eher die, die im Geschäftsbereich sitzen. Wir sind eigentlich BEGler“ (26E, §50).

¹⁰⁰ „Auch obwohl wir jetzt so gewachsen sind wieder mehr mit der BEG zu identifizieren.[...] Identifikation, weil wir da sehen, dass es verloren geht und dass wir mehr Standard BOSCH werden, wenn wir das nicht wollen, müssen wir was dagegen tun“ (19E, §70).

¹⁰¹ „Und das es typischerweise so als etwas besonderes angesehen wird, im Bosch-Konzern bei der BEG zu arbeiten“ (3E, §32).

¹⁰² „Wenn jemand ein Problem hat, dann haben alle zusammengeholfen das zu lösen. Das war früher so und das ist jetzt auch noch so. Und das finde ich auch eine Sache, die für mich auch ein Riesenunterschied ausmacht, zu anderen Unternehmen. [...] Ich hab jetzt während meiner richtigen Berufslaufbahn nichts anderes kennengelernt und kenne da nur vom höherensagen und da muss ich sagen, ist das hier bei der BEG schon herausragend toll. (16G, §40).

¹⁰³ „Aber ich glaube, man sieht es daran, was für eine Vielzahl an Events überhaupt veranstaltet wird, oder ob es jetzt für jede Gruppe an Mitarbeitern, Studenten, was da angeboten wird. Ich glaube, das würde ich eher so als etwas besonderes bezeichnen“ (10E, §100).

¹⁰⁴ „Was ich glaube, weshalb die BEG ein ganz besonderer Ort ist, ist die Gestaltungsfreiheit die die BEG hat, also ich erlebe das ich als Gruppenleiter bei der BEG Freiheiten habe, die ich in Geschäftsbereich so sicher nicht hätte.“ (2G, §48).

¹⁰⁵ „Das ist schon eins von den Highlights, weil wir bei dem einen Kunden fertig waren und dann sind wir ein paar Straßen zu einem anderen Kunden und haben da das Projekt mehr oder weniger auch noch klargemacht und das war schon so eins von den Events, wo ich sage, das schafft man nur in der BEG eventuell, mit den kleinen Teams“ (13E, §56).

¹⁰⁶ „Sowas wie bei der BEG, dass man mal ne n Sportwagen fahren kann oder mal eine Skidoo bewegt, halt irgendwelche Projekte die nicht normal sind. [...] wenn man den Freunden oder den Bekannten erzählt, hier ich bin am Wochenende bei einer Erprobung auf dem Meer für ein Sportboot [...] Auch die Kunden formen dann auch quasi die BEG. Die Kunden sind hier einfach spezieller als bei BOSCH“ (21E, §22 and §26).

¹⁰⁷ „Ich weiß noch die Mrs XY, die war auch an so einem Ferrari. Das fand ich auch total cool irgendwie so eine Frau an so einem Auto“ (10E, §14).

¹⁰⁸ „Tolle Autos“ (23E, §60), „Sie haben die tollen Autos.“ (11E, §50).

¹⁰⁹ „Ja auch das man die fahren darf“ (11E, §50).

¹¹⁰ „Ich habe auf bitten und betteln meiner zweiten Tochter auch sie mit dem Ferrari mal morgens in der Schule abgesetzt. Können Sie vielleicht nachvollziehen“ (1P, §108).

¹¹¹ „Die Reputation, das Ansehen was die BEG ausstrahlt“ (9L, §111).

¹¹² „Also ich hatte zufälligerweise auch das erste Projekt mit dem Ferrari damals - und dann haben alle Kollegen angerufen, darf ich mal mit auf die Teststrecke - ja (lacht)“ (30G, §14).

¹¹³ „Ja, also ich war hier am Standort bei CC drüben und da war das immer so „die BEG“, das war so das Besondere da drüben und die haben die tollen Autos und eigentlich kam ich darüber dann drauf, dass es die BEG überhaupt gibt.“ (26E, §12).

¹¹⁴ „Das war eher was Negatives, so nach dem Motto „Die arbeiten halt irgendwie und das kann eigentlich gar nicht funktionieren“ und so, aber prinzipiell war drüben schon...das war irgendwie was Besonders“ (26E, §16).

¹¹⁵ „An sich unterm Strich schon kompetent [...]. Man kann halt die Projekte nicht so richtig einordnen, man sieht halt die dicken Autos rumfahren. Und wundert sich dann halt manchmal, aber andererseits sagt man sich halt auch, um so ein Ding richtig einzustellen, zu applizieren, muss man ja auch was drauf haben“ (23E, §40).

¹¹⁶ „Eigentlich ist so ein Serienauto auch angenehmer, um den ganzen Tag darin zu arbeiten, als irgendeine Laute Büchse.“ (23E, §42).

¹¹⁷ „Und wenn ich dann bei BEG lange dabei bin, habe ich ganz viele Projekte gesehen, das heißt ich habe ganz viele Leute kennengelernt, die Netzwerke sind viel größer“ (22E, §32).

¹¹⁸ „Aber die BEG muss mehr bringen, weil sie halt andere Normen erfüllen muss.“ (21E, §12).

¹¹⁹ „Das heißt, ich glaube, die BEG wird häufig so als Feuerwehr gesehen. ich brauche noch jemanden, die müssen mir jetzt helfen[...] Deshalb werden unsere Leute ja auch häufig in so

brennende Projekte reingeworfen und müssen dann die Welt retten. Manchmal funktioniert es, manchmal halt nicht“ (22E, §38).

¹²⁰ „Ich glaube dass viele Boschler sich bedroht fühlen von uns, weil da gibt es die, die haben immer noch tolle Projekte, [...]. Und auf der anderen Seite nutzt man das natürlich auch ganz gerne, das führt dann immer zu Situationen, dass der BEG irgendwelche Projekte zugeschustert werden mit Gewerken, die die BEG eigentlich gar nicht leisten kann. Das ist dann so, das ist aber die Interpretation so ein bisschen, komm das geben wir denen jetzt und dann sollen sie mal gucken wie sie es hinkriegen“ (27G, §33).

¹²¹ „Nee, keine Ahnung, ja es war tatsächlich so ein bisschen die junge Wilde Truppe irgendwie. Und wenn man dann mal den Perspektivwechsel selber sieht, und ähm, es sind halt die im Durchschnitt potenteren Autos und so weiter, mit anderen Anforderungen, die du so als Außenstehender mit großen Standardprojekten gar nicht kanntest“ (23E, §38).

¹²² „Also ich glaube, früher war schon immer das Thema, da ist die BEG der junge Haufen, hat keine Prozesse, hat Spaß an der Arbeit, fahren alle schnelle Autos. Die murksen irgendwie ihre Projekte hin, das war so der übliche Boschler, Experte, 20 Jahre schon dabei, guck mal die jungen Wilden, murksen irgendwelche Projekte hin, kriegen dann aber auch die tollen Projekte, kriegen es dann aber irgendwie hin. Das war so früher. Da waren wir technisch nicht auf einer Augenhöhe, und ich glaube das hat sich geändert“ (27G, §33).

¹²³ „Wie die junge wilde Rauditruppe“ (28E, §95).

¹²⁴ „Ja, der Arbeitsalltag ist ein bisschen turbulenter manchmal, also man sich das vorstellen kann“ (15E, §11).

¹²⁵ „Also es gab dann auch so einen kleinen Treffen noch von den ASSETler in Schwieberdingen und einige saßen auch in so einem extra Glaskasten. Da hat es immer geheißen das Ingenieurskinderzimmer (lacht). Ja. Das war schon eine coole Zeit auch.“ (30G, §12).

¹²⁶ „Manchmal denke ich, man muss widerspenstig sein muss...(lacht)...vielleicht ist das auch nur auf unserer Rolle bezogen, weil wir so eine Doppelrolle wahrnehmen, wir agieren im GE im Auftrag der GE, sind aber BEG-Mitarbeiter. Wir sind sehr stark auch in dieser GE-Kultur und kommen da häufig auch mit so einer frecheren Art dann her.“ (13E, §36).

¹²⁷ „Aber ich denke diese Grenze, die kann man schon abhängig von der Situation verschieben, also wir sind da nicht so stur und sagen, ne, es gibt hier eine Guideline da steht drin, 17 einhalb Versuche und drunter machen wir nichts. Das fand ich gut. Und der Kunde war sehr zufrieden.“ (17G, §59).

¹²⁸ „Wir machen auch mal was an einem Prozess vorbei, das kann man heute halt nicht mehr machen, wenn man die Größe hat und zur Schillerhöhe berichten muss“ (31G, §38).

¹²⁹ „wenn du merkst wie erfahrene Kollegen agieren oder auch Vorgesetzte agieren und das dann dir so vorleben, dann wirst du vielleicht mit der Zeit auch mutiger [...] und traut sich von vorneherein irgendwie Lösungen zu finden, abseits der bekannten Pfade und abseits von irgendwelchen Richtlinien Prozessen wie auch immer, das muss man, da muss man vielleicht ein bisschen dazu ermutigt werden in der Breite.“ (15E, §19).

¹³⁰ „Boote sind Dinge, das KTM Crossbow Projekt, war so ein U-Boot. Dass eigentlich der Herr Lehmann gesagt hat, wir machen keine Getriebe-Software und dann der [XY Abteilungsleiter] mit einem Gruppenleiter und ein paar Leuten zusammen gesagt hat, wir nehmen Geld aus irgendeinem Topf, was der [XY Bereichsleiter] nicht weiß macht ihn nicht heiß und dann taucht man halt mal irgendwann auf, wenn der richtige Zeitpunkt ist, [...] da kann man entweder als Held draus hervorgehen oder man kriegt einen Satz warme Ohren“ (27G, §91).

¹³¹ „Ja war quasi immer wichtig, dass das Ergebnis stimmt - so rundherum. So die einzelnen Details, da hat der [XY Abteilungsleiter] dann auch oft gesagt, so äh, gucken wir mal. Ähm. Ich spiel ich das jetzt so und so und ja, das erzählen wir aber nicht weiter, das machen wir jetzt“ (28E, §64).

¹³² „Man kann auch mal ein U-Boot starten und mal irgendein Leitentwicklungsprojekt loslegen oder so. Also kann man schon viel machen.“ (30G, §32).

¹³³ „Bei BEG ist es so, dass vieles und viele das sagen, vieles funktioniert nur als U-Boot und erst wenn es gereift ist, dann kann es an die Oberfläche und du kannst es kommunizieren“ (19E, §56).

¹³⁴ „Das passiert einfach, wo jemand wirklich die Chance hat aus der intrinsischen Motivation etwas zu tun, was für die Firma gut ist. Und dann auch Freiheiten dafür kriegt“ (27G, §41).

¹³⁵ „Wenn du dich wirklich um ein Thema kümmern möchtest und ein bisschen Energie rein-

setzt, dann kannst du dich egal ob als Mitbieter oder als Vorgesetzter glaube ich schon stärker einbringen als es ein Geschäftsbereichsmitarbeiter kann“ (27, §39).

¹³⁶ „Es ist aber dann tatsächlich auch den Mut zu machen, den Leuten halt den Rückhalt zu gebne, dass wenn Sie da Veränderungen einbringen wollen, dass das Willkommen ist und dass das der Kultur in der BEG wieder hilft“ (12D, §27).

¹³⁷ „Für mich ist es eigentlich das zum einen das Freiheit geben, aber man muss ja auch die Richtung lenken und natürlich kann man das erreichen, indem man Mitarbeiter begeistert und auch mitnimmt zu einem Thema. Zum einen indem man selbst die Dinge vorlebt und auch die positiven Beispiele zeigt Mitarbeiter auch aufzeigt und Perspektive aufmacht [...], dann aber auch die Freiheit geben, um die guten Idee, die es dazu gibt zu nutzen.“ (2G, §54).

¹³⁸ „legere“ (10E, §68, 19E, §45, 28E, §45).

¹³⁹ „Und er hätte wahrscheinlich ein Karohemd an oder so (lacht). Und Jeans und ja. Also eher legere“ (10E, §68).

¹⁴⁰ „Freizeitkleidung“ (19E, §45)

¹⁴¹ „Das heißt auch für mich, teilweise in der Kleidung, wenn wir bei einem Kundentermin sind, man kann das auch BEG-typisch nenne, ich wie es nicht, aber ich hatte schon 1- oder 2-mal erlebt, alle anderen kommen im Anzug und wir dann in der Jeans und Hemd. [...] Es gibt auch eine BEG-Richtlinie, was man zum Kunden anziehen soll, aber man sagt oft, dass mache ich jetzt nicht, weil ich BEG bin“ (13E, §38).

¹⁴² „Also ich kenne viele Bosch Gruppenleiter deren tägliches Business Outfit ne Bundfaltenhose Hemd und eine Krawatte ist. Da würde bei der BEG, beiden Gruppenleitern so gut wie keiner überhaupt die Idee kommen. Also es geht schon ein bisschen legerer zu bei uns (27G, §35).

¹⁴³ „Es fängt an von der BEG Jacke über BEG Shirt. Das sind so ganz simple Sachen. Finde ich aber auch immer ganz toll und ich finde es eigentlich zum Beispiel schade, dass man die Dinger nicht einfach frei kaufen kann“ (3E, §32).

¹⁴⁴ „Sehr, sehr viele tragen so die Klamotten, die wir ausgeben, die BEG gebranded sind, auch in der Freizeit. Das ist meiner Frau aufgefallen, dass wir beim Einkaufen relativ häufig jemand treffen, der uns grüßt und oft dann auch Bosch Engineering auf der Jacke oder auf dem T-Shirt oder so draufhat. As ist ganz erstaunlich. Kanne ich von früher in der Form nicht.“ (1P, §52).

¹⁴⁵ „Aber die Jacke ieh ich eigentlihc fast standardmäßig an. Es hat jetzt aber vielleicht auch ein bisschen Werbung, aber es ist jetzt weniger das Gefühl „ja stolz ich bin da“, sondern bisher war die eigentlich immer oder ist die eigentlich ganz gut“ (24E, §76).

¹⁴⁶ „Eine Hauptsorge der Gründungsmannschaft war ja, dass es schief geht und dass wir auf der Straße sitzen. Wie es war eine Neugründung – wir sind raus aus Bosch. Wir haben ja unsere Bosch-Verträge alle abgegeben“ (6L, §24).

¹⁴⁷ „Sachen sprechen mich an, wenn ich sie nicht überblicke und ein gewisses Risiko drinnen ist, das finde ich, macht mir Spaß“ (1P, §32).

¹⁴⁸ „Aber, also ich nehme ihn jetzt auch schon so wahr, dass er halt eher sagt, wir probieren es, als dass er sagt, hm, zu riskant, lassen wir es mal lieber“ (5E, §54).

¹⁴⁹ „Ja, also für mich ist es schon auch noch so ein bisschen der Spirit, dass man bei BEG auch Herausforderungen bewusst annimmt, also das ist schon sowas. Also da wo andere vielleicht zucken und zurückschrecken würden, da sehe ich dass BEG dann teilweise halt einfach sagt, wir machen es, wir riskieren das jetzt“ (5E, §42).

¹⁵⁰ „Bei der BEG versuchen wir von vorneherein zu vermeiden, dass immer so strenge Vorgaben macht, sondern durchaus ein bisschen eine Freiheit lassen, damit da neue Aspekte reinkommen. Damit auch neue Blickwinkel reinkommen. Dass sich die Kultur auch weiterentwickelt und nicht statisch bleibt“ (1P, §42).

¹⁵¹ „Ich glaube schon, dass man so rangehen könnte, wenn man jetzt für anspruchsvolle Aufgaben sucht, oder für, wo eben genau diese Qualitäten proaktives Handeln, keine Angst vor wildem Wasser, oder fremde Gewässern oder Untiefen, wenn so jemanden sucht, dann würde man vielleicht schon da neigen, eher nach einem BEGler Ausschau zu halten“ (15E, §44).

¹⁵² „Machenkultur“ (14D, §25).

¹⁵³ „Also das waren dann auch so diese Storys, die für uns also auch kulturbildend waren also so wie: wir haben zwar keine Ahnung aber wir schaffen uns das drauf. Wir lernen das während des Projekt machen das Projekt mit Leuten die wir erst mal im Projekt einstellen und anlernen werden und werden es trotzdem schaffen“ (14D, §40).

¹⁵⁴ „Die haben Sachen zum Laufen gebracht wo ich gesagt hätte, in der Vergangenheit gesagt

hätte, des geht gar nie. Also ich hätte mich GES-Mannschaft nicht an solche Projekte getraut wo ich mich mit der jungen BEG-Mannschaft herangetraut hätte.“ (12D, §19).

¹⁵⁵ „Wir nehmen bewusst ein höheres Risiko in Kauf, weil wir der Meinung sind für die Umgebungsbedingungen angepasst, ist das ausreichend, was wir machen“ (17G, §57).

¹⁵⁶ „Also unflexibler, vorsichtiger“ (17G, §44).

¹⁵⁷ „Wenn wir früher, sag ich mal, drei Kundenprojekte haben und wir haben einen Fehler gemacht, dann haben wir das halt in diesen drei Projekten hatl behoben. Heute haben wir 300 Kundenprojekte und wenn wir da einen Fehler machen, dann haben wir echt ein Riesenproblem an der Backe.“ (17G, §44).

¹⁵⁸ „Das funktioniert bei 30 Leuten ganz gut, aber mit 2000 kann man das nicht mehr machen. Deren finanzielle Sicherheit davon abhängig machen, was ich gerade mal ausprobieren.“ (7D, §28).

¹⁵⁹ „Für mich persönlich und Ausscheiden aus dem Bosch Konzern - hat es einen ganz anderen emotionalen Wert gehabt. Ich hatte zwar wie die Startmannschaft so eine Rückkehrgarantie, [...]. Aber die andere Seite ist, so eine Rückkehrgarantie ist zeitlich befristet. Die ist also 3, 4 Jahre, länger ist das nicht. [...] im fünften Jahr pleitegeht, bin ich dem Arbeitsmarkt zugeführt. Das ist ein ganz anderes Risiko als [...] mit dieser tiefen Einbettung in die Bosch-Organisation vermittelt“ (6L, §34).

¹⁶⁰ „Risikoakzeptanz ist glaube ich bei BEG grundsätzlich etwas höher. Sich was trauen, mal was probieren. So das so macht man das nicht oder das macht man eigentlich nicht findet man bei uns weniger als bei Bosch“ (1P, §54).

¹⁶¹ „Also so ein Bosch mit 100000 Entwickler, der kann es sich halt auch nicht leisten. Happy Engineering zu machen. Also die Risikobereitschaft bei Bosch ist in meinen Augen, wenn ich das jetzt mit meinem Geschäftsbereich vergleiche, CC-PS also passive safety, sehr sehr gering, uns gegenüber. Und bei uns ist sie tendenziell ein bisschen abnehmen.“ (17G, §45).

¹⁶² „Ach ich bin so gerne bei der BEG und so begeistert ich glaube mir fällt es leicht - ich glaube so viele positive Sachen, die ich erzählen kann, [...], wenn man einfach zufrieden ist mit einer Firma, dann fällt es einem leicht, viele viele positive Sachen auch zu erzählen.“ (30G, §61).

¹⁶³ „ich glaube, weil mir der Job hier Spaß macht würde ich generell sagen, dass bei der BEG, dass ich eigentlich, ja, so schon, wie sagst du, so eine Art Markenbotschafterin bin, weil ich äh wahrscheinlich positiv über meine Arbeit spreche, aber nicht jetzt, weil ich bei diesem Fotoshooting mitgemacht habe.“ (10E, §146).

¹⁶⁴ „Ich habe ihr empfohlen, also die BEG, als jungen dynamischen Arbeitgeber, der eigentlich auch alle Bedürfnisse der Mitarbeiter erfüllt auch wenn es bei dem kostenlosen Kaffee anfängt bis zu dem Miteinander das man hat bis zu den Projekten bis zu den Möglichkeiten die es bei der BEG gibt, [...] dass auch BOSCH dahinter steht, dass wenn je ihr das nicht zusagen würde, dass sie auch die Möglichkeit hat zu BOSCH zu wechseln, ist ja nicht jedem sein Ding hier vielleicht.“ (21E, §44.)

¹⁶⁵ „Ja, aber wenn ich halt gefragt werde, also ich glaube da geht es halt auch so ein bisschen um das Bild, was man halt nach außen transportiert, dann sage ich schon, dass ich halt sehr zufrieden bin hier, in der Firma ja und dass ich auch denke, dass ein relativ gutes Arbeitsumfeld ist, ja Chancen bietet, ja und denke, dass BEG schon ein sehr guter Arbeitgeber ist.“ (5E, §101).

¹⁶⁶ „Aber so grundsätzlich ähm finde ich Bosch und BEG einen grandiosen Arbeitgeber, also wenn ich das auch vergleiche, mit Freunden und Freundinnen, die in anderen Unternehmen arbeiten, also, die sagen schon, was ihr habt ne Kantine.“ (28E, §104).

¹⁶⁷ „Erzähle ich sehr positiv davon, vor allem von dem Arbeitgeber, weil ich wirklich froh bin hier zu arbeiten, weil ich gerne zur Arbeit komme, weil mir die Arbeit Spaß macht, weil sie mir auch nach elf Jahren noch Spaß macht ohne langweilig zu werden“ (2G, §60).

¹⁶⁸ „Wir BOSCH'ler sind extrem stark hinter dem, was Robert Bosch gesagt hat, man kennt die Werte, die er hatte, mit seiner 40 Stunden Woche“ (11E, §88).

¹⁶⁹ „Jetzt anfängt mit Home Office, oder Teilzeit, oder früher, oder und ähm, oder dieses Langzeitkonto, also da gibt es 1000 Beispiele, wo ich sage, ich fühle mich wohl hier.“ (17G, §49).

¹⁷⁰ „propagieren“ (8D, §63).

¹⁷¹ „Man trifft sich immer wieder hier. Vereinbarkeit Familie und Beruf, also die Arbeitszeiten, wenn ich nachts meine kleinen hatte, dann schlafe ich eine Stunde länger und gehe abends mal später oder mal früher oder wie auch immer, da ist man sehr flexibel.“ (21E, §94)

- ¹⁷² „Hab ich weniger Probleme das mit meiner Familie zu händeln als andere Unternehmen und das schätze ich sehr und das trage ich auch nach außen.“ (27G, §69).
- ¹⁷³ „In der alten Firma konnte ich zwar Überstunden machen, aber du musstest jeden Tag min. 4 Stunden auf Arbeit sein, also kannst dir keinen ganzen Tag frei nehmen oder ausbezahlen lassen, das war ein absolutes Unding.“ (19E, §11).
- ¹⁷⁴ „Aber wenn man um 6, 7 rausgeht, dann ist hier fast schon Feierabend. Da ist nicht mehr viel los. Das ist bei ETAS schon anders gewesen.“ (25E, §16)
- ¹⁷⁵ „Und das tolle für mich damals war so die Kombination - ASSET kleine Firma, aber irgendwie die Mutter im Rücken, aber viele Sachen doch wie bei einer großen Firma waren, also man hat die Überstunden bezahlt bekommen, was ich vorher nicht kannte oder ganz viele Dinge waren halt irgendwie geregelt.“ (30G, §10)
- ¹⁷⁶ „Weil die Rahmenbedingungen sehr sehr gut sind, um auch mutig zu sein.“ (15E, §62).
- ¹⁷⁷ „Es ist mir eher wichtiger, dass das Arbeitsumfeld also für die tägliche Arbeit geschaffen wird, wo mir nicht viele Steine in den Weg gelegt werden und wo mir das an die Hand gegeben wird, was ich brauche um zu arbeiten. Also das ist mir wichtiger, als dass ich einmal im Jahr eine Weihnachtsfeier habe.“ (4E, §110).
- ¹⁷⁸ „Den Ruheraum, wenn man sich zwingt dahin zu gehen auch mal 30 min., ist das ganz nett. Die Obstkörbe finde ich auch super.“ (18E, §44)
- ¹⁷⁹ „Ich glaube das macht es so attraktiv.“ (5E, §113).
- ¹⁸⁰ „Sehr schöner, angenehmer Standort“ (9L, §106).
- ¹⁸¹ „Hat sich alle diese Fahrzeuge und Projekte angeschaut. Und da wollte ich dann mitmachen obwohl es völlig fachfremd war.“ (2G, §16).
- ¹⁸² „Ich bin sehr fahrzeugaffin.“ (3E, §109).
- ¹⁸³ „Das war extremst interessant, hat mir sehr sehr viel Spaß gemacht.“ (3E, §36).
- ¹⁸⁴ „Das ist halt auch sowas und dass man das, dass es jetzt vielleicht nicht gerade irgendwelche alltäglichen Projekte sind, wie ein VW Polo oder sowas sondern dass es halt auch irgendwelche Sondergeschichten sind.“ (31G, §59).
- ¹⁸⁵ „Und vertreten über 20 Produktfelder. Das wir echt schon im Verhältnis arbeiten zwischen sag ich mal 5 und 15 Mitarbeitern an einem Themengebiet“ (17G, §22).
- ¹⁸⁶ „ir hatten eine Software gebaut, die sowohl in Marineanwendungen, also auf Boden, als auch in irgendwelchen Industrieanwendungen, als auch in Automotive Anwendungen, wie in dem Londontaxi zum Einsatz kam, da dann die verschiedenen Systeme dann testen, also ich war mal auf einem Boot gewesen oder auf mehreren, ich war an der Kehrmaschine und wir hatten das Londontaxi, hatten wir hier gehabt. Und das sind halt so, so Projekte, die dann einfach Spaß machen“ (31G, §59).
- ¹⁸⁷ „Selbstverwirklichung oder eigene Themen mit voranbringen.“ (24E, §54).
- ¹⁸⁸ „Entfalten“ (3E, §10)
- ¹⁸⁹ „Routine“ (10E, §68).
- ¹⁹⁰ „Hängt es natürlich klar am Unternehmen und am Umfeld und da natürlich ganz viel auch an den Menschen mit denen man zusammenarbeitet.“ (3E, §58).
- ¹⁹¹ „Also nicht wirklich so das direkte Profil und ja die Gespräche waren einfach so nett, es hat so gut gepasst, dass ich gedacht hab, ja warum nicht. [...] Und dann habe ich mich quasi für das Thema, aber auch wegen der Menschen dann hauptsächlich dafür entschieden. (10E, §14,16).
- ¹⁹² „mutig“ (15E, §62).
- ¹⁹³ „Ellenbogenkultur“ (4E, §30; 11E, §68; 19E, §19).
- ¹⁹⁴ „Lockerheit“ (16G, §16; 30G, §51).
- ¹⁹⁵ „Die BEG-Mentalität hier, und ähm, was ich damals sehr empfunden hab, war dass die Leute alle so jung war (29E, §12).
- ¹⁹⁶ „Mir ist aufgefallen, dass die Leute alle sehr jung waren, vor allem als Studentin fand ich das halt ähm sehr, sehr ansprechend, weil man ja selbst sehr jung ist und wenn dann halt die Kollegen älter sind und da was man, dass man abends was machen kann und keine Ahnung, ja solche Sachen, das fand ich halt richtig gut. Und diese Gruppendynamik, halt, dass man viel zusammen gemacht hat.“ (29E, §14).
- ¹⁹⁷ „In dem Umgang auch miteinander, vor allem im Do auch im Umgang in der Arbeit man ist halt lockerer drauf, es ist alles viel entspannter und weil es gibt viel mehr gleiche Interessen, also bei BOSCH, wenn man da mit 25 Jahren einsteigt in eine Abteilung, in der der Altersdurchschnitt 40+ ist, ist das ein großer Unterschied.“ (21E, §8).
- ¹⁹⁸ „Freundschaften draus entstehen“ (10E, §34).

¹⁹⁹ „Die auch in einer ähnlichen Lebenssituation, ähnlichen Lebensabschnitt sind, viele junge Mitarbeit, auch immer noch. Es ändert sich langsam, aber so klassisch hat man viele Absoluten eingestellt und da hat man einfach gemeinsame Themen und Interessen zum Teil. Es fällt auch leichter in der Gruppe, mal eine gemeinsame Aktivität zu finden oder in der Freizeit so macht, das schweißt so zusammen (2G, §24).

²⁰⁰ „Hier sind alle noch jung, vielleicht schon verheiratet aber noch keine Kinder, dann ist es natürlich ein bisschen anders. Es kommt immer auf die Kollegen an, mit deren Lebensphasen. (11E, §12).

²⁰¹ „Dadurch, dass alle sehr jung waren, war es zwischenmenschlich auch sehr unkompliziert. Größtenteils ist man entweder vor zwei Jahren oder gerade jetzt von der Hochschule gekommen. War also verhältnismäßig jung, ähnliche Interessen gehabt, privat waren alle etwa gleich unterwegs, hatten entweder nen Partner oder eben nicht. Aber es war fast keiner verheiratet oder hatte Kinder oder so.“ (16G, §18).

²⁰² „Man ist halt zu Anfang mit Menschen zusammengekommen, die in einer sehr sehr ähnlichen Lebenssituation sind, wie man selber, [...] Weil man auch viel einfacher mit den Leuten Kontakt bekommen konnte, die haben eine ähnliche Historie, auch vom Alter her, das fängt dann bei Fernsehserien an, geht über Computerspiele bis zu ähnlichen Fahrzeugen, die man in der Jugend gefahren ist. Ja. Ähm, was das Ganze halt wirklich angenehmer macht.“ (3E, §14).

²⁰³ „Man hat viele Freizeitsaktivitäten gemacht. Also sich im privaten Umfeld dann auch getroffen, [...] das hat auch zusammengeschweißt. (16G, §14).

²⁰⁴ „Es wird viel mehr gemacht, so neben der Arbeit. Es wird mehr mit Kollegen unternommen.“ (19E, §11).

²⁰⁵ „Hier ist es einfach viel lockerer, die Leute kommen von sich aus, die Leute wollen irgendwie, was machen. Und das finde ich halt, das finde ich einen sehr coolen Spirit“ (22E, §44).

²⁰⁶ „Wo ich halt merke, dass halt auch sehr viel an Freundschaften unter den Kollegen entstanden ist, weil halt viele hier anfangen quasi, erster Job, vielleicht viele auch nicht unbedingt hier aus der Gegend kommen oder stammen, halt so aus dem Kollegenkreis auch wirklich Freundschaften entstehen.“ (23E, §32).

²⁰⁷ „Diese Kontakte, die halten auch jetzt noch - also diese - ich sag jetzt mal - Freundschaften, die halten nach wie vor - obwohl man jetzt beruflich nichts mehr zu tun hat. [...] Und ich stelle fest, also mit denen ist es noch genau gleich. Also da albert man rum, man eher einen lockeren Umgang, man hat ein Verständnis, wie jetzt der andere was meint, wenn er was sagt, es gibt eine gewisse Verbindlichkeit. Und so das, das erlebe ich mit denen genauso. [...] Aber ich kann nicht sagen, dass also ich darf auch nicht vergessen, meine Rolle ist da jetzt auch anders. (16G, §32).

²⁰⁸ „Es gibt ganz viele Leute, die finden das ganz toll, ich gehe tagsüber arbeiten und dann gehe ich nach Hause und dann ist Arbeit vorbei und dann habe ich Privatleben und morgens gebe ich Privatleben ab und gehe arbeiten. Ich persönlich, ich mag das viel mehr dieses „Meine Kumpels sind eigentlich meine Kollegen“, die ich hier habe, und mit denen habe ich eh am meisten zu tun. Und warum dann nicht mal mit denen abends mal noch bowlen gehen oder irgendwas tun.“ (26E, §42).

²⁰⁹ „War das natürlich alles viel kleiner, viel familiärer und so weiter und so fort. (20D, §7).

²¹⁰ „Ich glaube im Kern macht das Arbeiten bei der BEG aus, dass es ein gutes Miteinander ist, dass da viele Menschen zusammenarbeiten, die sehr offen sind, die sich gerne helfen“, (2G, §24).

²¹¹ „die sehr partnerschaftlich arbeiten“ (28E, §40), „da ist es sehr partnerschaftlich“ (16G, §50), „partnerschaftlicher Umgang“ (5E, §30).

²¹² „Aber das Wir-Gefühl, wir sind die BEG“ (21E, §54).

²¹³ „Dieses Gefühl wir sind BEG“ (22E, §22).

²¹⁴ „Verschworene Gemeinschaft“ (9L, §121).

²¹⁵ „Typisch BEG ist glaube ich dieses, ich habe dich zwar noch nie gesehen, aber ich helfe dir trotzdem, wenn du an meinem Platz stehst“ (3E, §18).

²¹⁶ „Also wenn ich jetzt ein Problem hab, geh ich zum Kollegen, frag ihn und der hilft mir.“ (4E, §50).

²¹⁷ „Ja, wo halt versucht wird auch diesen Teamspirit und wir halten zusammen und wir helfen uns gegenseitig“ (3E, §40).

²¹⁸ „Ich habe die immer gespürt, als ich angefangen habe hier, wurde mir immer geholfen, um

erstmal reinzukommen und die Strukturen und Prozesse der BEG, im BOSCH allgemein.“ (18E, §34).

²¹⁹ „Wenn man irgendwie Hilfe brauchte um sich einzuarbeiten, dann ist es auch so, dass man irgendwie jeden fragen“ (10E, §34).

²²⁰ „Aber hier ist es eigentlich, egal zu wem ich gegangen bin, ja natürlich hab ich für dich Zeit, komm lass uns doch mal das machen“ (22E, §20).

²²¹ „Ich glaube so, das untereinander, das kollegiale, ist glaube ich schon was, was uns auch, ich glaube von allen Mitarbeitern oder Praktikanten, egal wer bei uns kommt, der ist immer total positiv überrascht, dass wenn man zu jemandem hingeht, der nimmt sich Zeit und gibt einem irgendwie Tipps und hilft einem weiter also man erlebt es eigentlich nie, dass jemand sagt, nee, mach dich vom Acker, ich hab keinen Bock auf dich oder. (30G, §36).

²²² „Ja, dass eigentlich alle Kollegen hier hilfsbereit sind und wenn man irgendwo hier Informationen braucht, ob es jetzt wirklich Informationen von anderen Bereichen anderen Abteilungen sind, dann bekommt da immer Auskunft und wird nicht irgendwie zurückgestellt.“ (10E, §34).

²²³ „Wenn man das Gefühl hat, jemand anders steckt gerade in der Klemme oder könnte Unterstützung von mir brauchen, dann diese auch bereitstellen. Unabhängig davon ob ich zu viel zutun habe und heute um vier gehen wollte. Sondern da selber auch eine Einschränkung in Kauf nehmen und jemand anders helfen, der in der Patsche steckt. Informationen da zu liefern, und ich glaube das Wesentliche ist, nicht Hilfe praktisch anbieten, wenn man gerade eh nichts zu tun hat, sondern das schwierige ist ja das zu machen wenn man auch selber unter Druck steht. (16G, §118).

²²⁴ „Wenn man irgendwie Hilfe brauchte um sich einzuarbeiten, dann ist es auch so, dass man irgendwie jeden fragen“ (22E, §20).

²²⁵ „Zum einen mal natürlich, helfe ich dem gerne, weil ich natürlich auch weiß, wenn ich dem jetzt helfe, dann hilft der mir auch mal, auch wenn er vielleicht gerade eigentlich keine Zeit hat.“ (26E, §44).

²²⁶ „Die Leute haben vielleicht nicht immer Zeit, aber es war immer nett und freundlich und offen.“ (10E, §34).

²²⁷ „Also wenn man, weiß nicht, eine Hilfe braucht bei einem Tool, ich denke, da habe ich es bisher fast nie erlebt, dass dann der Mitarbeiter jetzt sehr bewusst abgesagt hat, sondern, ich denke, es gab dann so Sachen wie „Ich habe jetzt keine Zeit, komm mal später auf mich zu“. Aber ich denke die Hilfsbereitschaft war auf jeden Fall da oder ist noch da. Das könnte ich als BEG-Spirit sehen.“ (24E, §30).

²²⁸ „Es kann, natürlich kann es mal sein, dass jemand sagt, gerade geht es schlecht, komm später noch mal, aber ich glaube schon, bei uns nehmen die Leute noch den Hörer ab und geben einem Antwort und helfen einem.“ (30G, §36).

²²⁹ „Und das habe ich so auch noch nicht überall erlebt.“ (3E, §20).

²³⁰ „Wenn jemand ein Problem hat, dann haben alle zusammengeholfen das zu lösen. Das war früher so und das ist jetzt auch noch so. Und das finde ich auch eine Sache, die für mich auch ein Riesenunterschied ausmacht, zu anderen Unternehmen.“ (16G, §40).

²³¹ „Ich glaube schon, bei uns nehmen die Leute noch den Hörer ab und geben einem Antwort und helfen einem. Und das hört man ganz oft beim Bosch, dass die Leute so unter Wasser sind oder dass die dann halt nichts anderes mehr machen“ (30G, §36).

²³² „Und ich glaube die Zeit hat die BEG-Kultur auch so ein bisschen geprägt auch diese Hilfsbereitschaft kommt wahrscheinlich auch daher, dass man am Anfang sehr viel abdecken musste.“ (2G, §26).

²³³ „Jeder einzelne hat vielleicht weniger gewusst als ein Experte beim Bosch - aber auf der anderen Seite um die Projekte machen zu können, hat man halt sehr stark miteinander arbeiten müssen. Und das hat glaube ich schon sehr viel ausgemacht und ist auch was was ich wahrnehme, was sich so mit der Größe bei der BEG geändert hat.“ (27G, §18).

²³⁴ „ass man nicht mehr auf alle Informationen zugreifen konnte also heute hat ja jeder Internet. Das war am Anfang war das nicht so, also da war es wirklich sehr restriktiv. Also da gab es nur Intranet und die Suchfunktion, die war schlecht und man hat eigentlich relativ wenig gefunden und man musste wirklich auf Kollegen zugehen und man musste sich die Information, dann von anderen Leuten holen. Und das hat aber auch sehr gut funktioniert.“ (31G, §12).

²³⁵ „Das Zusammenarbeiten also war, ja wie gesagt, dadurch dass wir alle relativ neu waren in dem Gebiet, konnte wirklich jeder mit jedem, also jeder jeden fragen und ähm die Projekte auch untereinander haben sich geholfen“ (31G, §24).

²³⁶ „Ehrlichkeit“ (12D, §111).

²³⁷ „Offen, freundlich.“ (26E, §26).

²³⁸ „Jeder erzählt auch einfach, da ist ganz klar, wenn man in der Kaffeeecke am Montagmorgen steht, dass jeder erzählt, wie war sein Wochenende, was hat man gemacht und man weiß ganz genau, der hat so und so viel Kinder, die Kinder sind so und so alt, die gehen da und da in die Schule, die haben die und die Noten in der Schule. Also so komplett offen einfach. Das ist auch was, was ich sage, was hier was Besonderes ist“ (26E, §36).

²³⁹ „Aber hier ist es halt so, man kommt halt morgens hierher, geht erst mal Kaffee trinken und also das ist halt einfach, wie soll man das sagen, drum herum viel sozialer, oder viel harmonischer“ (4E, §26).

²⁴⁰ „Klar, Kaffeeküchengespräch, das auch, ist hier auch mehr als ich das woanders kannte, würde ich sagen, dass man auch mal in der Kaffeeküche einfach mal zusammen steht und ein bisschen rede“ (3E, §22).

²⁴¹ „Ich erleb es bei der BEG auch Kulturgut, dass es zulässig ist, dass man sich in die Kaffeeküche setzt und da miteinander diskutiert ohne von anderen blöd beäugt zu werden“ (12D, §132).

²⁴² „Ja die Erfahrung, die ich hier halt gemacht habe, dass ich hier angekommen bin und eigentlich mit offenen Armen empfangen wurde“ (21E, §46).

²⁴³ „Also das hatte mir schon sehr positiven Eindruck vermittelt, dass man sich da wirklich auch bemüht um die Leute auch viele Informationen gibt, also auch die, dass was die Firma ausmacht und alles auch offenlegt“ (14D, §10).

²⁴⁴ „Die Werte wie Offenheit und dass man Wissen austauscht die sind da, die werden auch gelebt“ (11E, §16).

²⁴⁵ „Ich kann mich noch gut erinnern so an den ersten Tag, ähm Einführungsveranstaltung, das hat damals der [Mr. 6L] für den [Mr. Founder] übernommen, dass man einfach willkommen geheißen worden ist, sofort einer da war, der sich um einen gekümmert hat. (27G, §8).

²⁴⁶ „Ja, weil einfach die Offenheit von den Leuten, die mich interviewt haben, [...] ich habe genau gesagt, was ich wollte und er hat gemeint oh super, das passt genau und hat mir dann gleich gesagt, ich bekommen dann ein Interviewmeeting (32E, §12).

²⁴⁷ „Und das bei Bosch war eine ganz andere Offenheit. Also ich habe zum Beispiel im Vorstellungsgespräch gesagt ich würde ganz gerne mal mit jemandem reden der hier schon ein paar Jahre arbeitet. Habe dann einen zugeteilt bekommen, bin mit dem dann rausgegangen, spazieren gegangen im Hof. Habe den gefragt jetzt sag mir mal was hier alles nicht läuft. Dann hat mich angeschaut und mir das gesagt“ (1P, §30).

²⁴⁸ „Aber mich hat beeindruckt wie frei und locker der das erzählt hat. Der hatte offensichtlich keine Angst, dass ihm da was passiert. Der war sehr offen“ (1P, §30).

²⁴⁹ „Also eine Offenheit nimmt man schon wahr, also wenn man eine Information braucht, kommt man relativ einfach dran und ähm, es ist auch zumindest nehme ich es so wahr, vom Management durchausgewollt, viel zu kommunizieren, oder alles zu sagen, was denn den Mitarbeiter interessieren würde“ (25E, §38).

²⁵⁰ „Man setzt sich Ziele, die herausfordernd sind, man setzt die Mitarbeiter sehr gut ins Bilde, gerade ok wo stehen wir, wie sieht es gerade aus mit der Fieberkurve, was auch gut ist.“ (13E, §82).

²⁵¹ „Ich bin überzeugt, wenn jemand noch detailliertere Zahlen haben wollen würde, was ja bei uns ging, der beim Herr President reinläuft, dann würde er die auch kriegen, also gesagt kriegen zumindest“ (25E, §42).

²⁵² „Das man auch mal offen Fragen stellen kann, an die Abteilungsleiter, im Rahmen der Bereichsversammlung, bspw. Bei uns, das ist schon sehr offen und auch konstruktiv“ (13E, §82).

²⁵³ „Und deswegen kriegen die ungefilterte Informationen von mir“ (6L, §75).

²⁵⁴ „Ich bin ja nur 4 Jahre hier, kann aber auch schon sehen, dass es früher besser war, wie man manchmal sagt, die BEG ist halt sehr gewachsen. Meiner Meinung nach viel zu schnell, es gibt ein gesundes Wachstum und die BEG ist halt massiv gewachsen“ (18E, §12).

²⁵⁵ „Ich glaube allein durch die größe und neue Prozesse, die hinzukommen, wird es schon anders, oder ist es anders als vorher, vorher gingen manche Dinge wahrscheinlich einfacher“ (10E, §110).

²⁵⁶ „Und da gab's auch dann ein paar Erfolgsgeschichten wo das wirklich dann auch gelungen ist, die dann halt auch dazu geführt haben, dass der Bereich und oder auch die Firma gewachsen ist“ (14D, §40).

²⁵⁷ „BEG war stark im Wachstum und ich habe das einfach als tollen Ort für mich als Absolventen empfunden“ (2G, §18).

²⁵⁸ „Ich weiß, sie haben halt händeringend jemanden gesucht und haben wahrscheinlich jeden genommen, den sie kriegen konnten“ (4E, §10).

²⁵⁹ „Zu der haben auch pro Monat viele neue Mitarbeiter angefangen bei der BEG. Und diese neuen haben dann auch verschiedene Anfangsseminare und Veranstaltungen zusammen besucht, das hat auch zusammengeschweißt“ (16G, §14).

²⁶⁰ „Ja und ähm ich meine was auch noch dahinreinspasst mit dem Thema, Mitarbeiterentwicklung war halt, dass schon sicherlich auch geschuldet durch die wachsende Struktur, war schon auch immer das Gefühl da, dass zum Beispiel schon auch immer Förderkreisaufnahmen, wenn hier Standortübergreifend anguckt, die BEG für ihre Größe schon auch immer viele Kandidaten dorthin geschickt hat und ja wie gesagt, da einfach Interesse auch Leute voranzubringen“ (23E, §46).

²⁶¹ „Gut, dann stellen wir halt noch einen Mitarbeiter ein. Also wir haben das irgendwie ja von Anfang an, gab es immer relativ schnell neue Mitarbeiter einstellen“ (30G, §32).

²⁶² „Bei mir war es noch ganz gut. Ich habe vor diesem großen Boom angefangen. [...] ich hatte quasi noch einen Paten, der mich auch super betreut hat und mir auch alle Fragen beantwortet hat, also für mich war es richtig gut. Also ich glaube, die Leute, die nach mir kamen, für die war es schwieriger, weil die dann keine Paten mehr hatten und nicht mehr so viel Zeit sich genommen wurde für die Einarbeitung“ (10E, §24).

²⁶³ „Ja, wir sind stark gewachsen, ich habe es noch miterlebt als wir den 1000 Mitarbeiter hatten, da war ich noch Studentin. Es wurde anonym“ (11E, §54).

²⁶⁴ „Wenn die so erzählt, wie es früher so war, als die Firma noch kleiner war, da bekommt man manchmal schon so ein bisschen Wehmut“ (15E, §50).

²⁶⁵ „Das ist aber nun mal so, wenn man wachsen will. Es ist halt das Management, das entscheidet wo es hingehet mit der Firma. Ich bin der Meinung, BEG ist zu groß im Gesamten“ (18E, §24).

²⁶⁶ „Deswegen hatte ich auch mit meinem damaligen Chef, [...], ob denn, weil ich halt diese Kultur so ein bisschen gefährdet sehe - ob es denn irgendwie Bestrebungen gibt, irgendwann mal eine Grenze zu ziehen und zu sagen, [...], dafür behalten wir uns halt diese Agilität bei oder tun wir die nächsten 10, 15, 20 Jahre weiter auf Teufel komm raus wachsen. (17G, §20).

²⁶⁷ „Das ist so das was ich gehört habe. Und das vielleicht weniger Prozesse da waren und weniger Bürokratie, ich sag mal wir haben ja schon eine gewissen Bürokratie“ (4E, §126).

²⁶⁸ „Weil ich das Gefühl habe, dass durch das, dass die BEG immer größer wird, gibt es natürlich auch immer mehr Prozesse, die irgendwo eingehalten werden müssen und es gibt immer mehr Mitarbeiter, die irgendwie sagen - pcccccchhh - und jetzt müssen wir das und das und das und die Reisekostenabrechnung hier und da und da müssen wir was ausfüllen und da müssen wir draufklicken und das muss der Vorgesetzte noch genehmigen. Und es ärgern sich total viele Mitarbeiter darüber“ (28E, §82).

²⁶⁹ „Formaler geworden aufgrund der Größe. Bestimmte Sachen kann man nicht mehr auf Zuruf“ (1P, §86).

²⁷⁰ „Auf dem kurzen Dienstweg“ (4E, §12)

²⁷¹ „Wahrscheinlich so Kleinigkeiten, irgendwelche Excel-Sachen, in meinem jetzigen, da hab ich ja nicht mehr so, da arbeite ich nicht mehr in so einer Gruppe, aber in der Applikation, da musste man dann irgendwie für alles irgendwelche Excel-Listen ausfüllen“ (10E, §112).

²⁷² „Also wir haben sehr hemdsärmelig gearbeitet am Anfang. Vielleicht nicht immer ganz legal, einfach auch nicht, nicht böswillig sondern weil wir es auch nicht besser wussten. Wir haben dann eine Prozesslandschaft etabliert in der viele die später dazu gekommen sind dann sehr stark oder sehr gut erkennen konnten wo ist mein Bereich, was habe ich für Aufgaben“ (12D, §23)

²⁷³ „So etwas geht bei einem Powertrain nicht, die haben 200 Projektleiter, wenn dann in einem Projekt was vergessen wird oder man macht irgendwie einen Fehler, dann gibt es keine Möglichkeit das über Flurfunk, sag ich mal, in die Masse zu bringen, dann ist in meinen Augen der einzige Weg, das halt in einen Prozess einzukippen oder ne neue Checkliste einzuführen. Von daher - ich habe voll und ganz Verständnis dafür“ (17G, §18).

²⁷⁴ „Dann versucht man über, Tools und Prozesse, drei mal, fünf mal, Problem-Solving, wo sieht man es auch, wenn es einen Vertreter dafür gibt, in der Abteilung. Es gibt defined Problem-Solvers“ (17G, §30).

²⁷⁵ „mittlerweile Nutzervertreter für IWC, für hundertausend Sachen gibt es irgendwie ähm, gibt es eine Koordinationsrolle, einen Vertreter, wo wir vielleicht früher gesagt haben, nee, das brauchen wir nicht, das macht für die BEG keinen Sinn.“ (17G, §16).

²⁷⁶ „Das Umfeld in der Firma ist viel geregelter. Das bedeutet, es gibt jetzt ganz viele Stabstellen für ganz viele Tagesthemen. Es gibt ein IT Team, was die Computerprobleme löst, es gibt eine HRL, die Einstellungsthemen macht. In den Anfangszeiten war das nicht so, ich hab selber, Verträge, ich habe Arbeitsrecht gelernt, um Vertragsgestaltung zu mache. Mein Kollege, der Abteilungsleiter XY, hat mir in der IT Welt geholfen.“ (6L, §46).

²⁷⁷ „Und mit denen hab ich Mitarbeitergespräche gemacht, ich hatte auch Vorstellungsgespräche mit neuen Mitarbeitern und hab die für mein Projekt dann eingestellt und solche Dinge“ (31G, §46).

²⁷⁸ „Und es liegt einfach auch da dran, das man, ich sag mal durch Effizientsteuerung sich natürlich viel mehr auf die Hauptarbeit konzentriert, versucht Nebenarbeiten wegzulassen, und wenn ich optimal effizient zu minimumpreis applizieren muss, kann ich mich nicht um die Kaffeebestellung kümmern“ (6L, §48).

²⁷⁹ „Also da gab es meiner Meinung nach auch einen Überschwinger, dass man dann sich halt sehr, sehr stark spezialisiert hat an einigen Stellen, oder zu stark meiner Meinung nach und die Projekte, die bedienen sich dann jetzt aus diesen Matrixabteilungen und sagen wir brauchen die und die Kompetenz in unserem Projekt und dann bekommen sie eben einen Mitarbeiter für - jetzt überspitzt - für zwei Wochen [...] und ein anderer kommt fürs nächste Arbeitspaket rein“ (31G, §46).

²⁸⁰ „Jeder einzelne hat vielleicht weniger gewusst als ein Experte beim [Mutterkonzern] (27G, §18).

²⁸¹ „Joa, man guckt, dass das Projekt erfolgreich in Serie geht und da gehört halt auch manchmal auch dazu, schau nach rechts, schau nach links. Mach mal was über deinen Verantwortungsbereich hinaus und nicht nur das was per Definition, du tun musst“ (30G, §32).

²⁸² „Alle arbeiten so überall ein bisschen mit“ (22E, §6).

²⁸³ „Aber so ähm, ich glaube dass es vielen schon hier wichtig ist, so dieses, ich springe da mal kurz ein, oder ich helfe mal da, oder ich helfe mal dort“ (28E, §20)

²⁸⁴ „Das Ursprungsbild war natürlich absolutes Unternehmertum mit nichts zu starten und probieren alles zu erreichen, d.h. bei jeder Kundenanfrage die kam, hat man sich überlegt, wie kann diese Kundenanfrage gelöst werden, [...] wer hat denn die beste Kompetenz“ (8D, §48).

²⁸⁵ „Und auch innerhalb des Unternehmens hat man die Chance gehabt relativ schnell sich für solche Themenfelder dann auch einen Namen zu machen und dann zu sagen ok, wenn es darum geht, dann gehst du zu dem, obwohl man vielleicht gerade mal ein halbes Jahr da war.“ (16G, §22).

²⁸⁶ „also auch wenn man dann ein paar Monate dabei war, hat man irgend ein Thema bekommen, wo vorher noch kein anderer dran und das war einfach etwas, da wurde man quasi innerhalb von wenigen Monaten zu einem Experten auf einem Thema“ (31G, §14).

²⁸⁷ „Ob das jetzt verschiedene Hierarchielevel sind, früher gab es drei oder vier Level und dann war man beim Chef - also beim [Herrn Gründer] oder beim q[President]. Klar ist das auch der Größe geschuldet, dass es mehr wird und ich muss auch ganz ehrlich sagen, ich mag den Prozess nicht“ (17G, §20).

²⁸⁸ „Wo von der täglichen Kommunikation und sei es nur das Hallo sagen oder das vorbei Laufen hinzu ich seh den Herr Bihr heute noch wenn ich Glück habe 3, 4 mal im Jahr wo ich auch wirklich sagen kann da haben wir auch mal einen Satz gewechselt miteinander. Das ist einfach von der Frequenz her eine ganz andere Menge.“ (12D, §59).

²⁸⁹ „Also das gab es damals noch nicht, dass man gesagt, da gibt es irgendwelche, ähm, also so Hierarchien oder so. Das war ja alles noch viel zu klein, sag ich jetzt mal. Also da gab's dann einen Namen und ein Thema, aber deswegen war er auch noch nicht gleich Fachexperte oder sowas. Auch das war lockerer. [...] Man hat diese zusätzliche Auszeichnung über Schulterklappen nicht gebraucht damals“ (16G, §24).

²⁹⁰ „Die Trägheit, man hört es und merkt es auch, dass vieles komplexer wird (11E, §54).

²⁹¹ „Das ist eine Firma die gibt es schon ein paar Jahre und ist gewachsen und um einiges mehr Mitarbeiter und mehr Größe und je Größer es ist desto träger wird es halt“ (21E, §30).

²⁹² „Also gefühlt werden wir langsamer - wir werden träger. (17G, §16).

²⁹³ „Weswegen BEG gegründet wurde, schnell zu reagieren und zu agieren für kleine Kunden, das machen wir jetzt nicht mehr. Schon recht umsatzgetrieben jetzt, also was halt immer mehr wird.“ (18E, §24).

²⁹⁴ „Weil wir bringen ja geile Zahlen, also es ist ja nicht so dass wir irgendwann keinen, dass der Markt nicht da, oder dass wir keine Chancen haben zu wachsen aber in meinen Augen ist

das so ein bisschen kontraproduktiv zu dem Ziel, diese kleine schnelle Spezialeinheit zu sein. Das Image verlieren wir so ein bisschen in meinen Augen und das finde ich schade.“ (17G, §20).

²⁹⁵ „Wenn ich dort jetzt jedes Jahr 20% neue Mitarbeiter stelle, dann verdünne ich das was da ist. Die neuen Mitarbeiter bringen was Neues mit und das ist dann, dann verändert sich das auch eher als sich eine Kultur“ (1P, §44).

²⁹⁶ „Ja, ich glaube die Kultur, die da ist, ist noch ein Überbleibsel dessen, als die BEG sehr sehr klein war, hat sich aber sehr gut gehalten, ich glaube es wird auch an neuen Mitarbeitern sehr gut weitergegeben, [...] Klar wird es durch die Größe des Unternehmens zunehmend verwässert.“ (3E, §40).

²⁹⁷ „Aber ist ja auch normal, je größer ich als Firma werde desto anonym werden die einzelnen Bereiche“ (18E, §32).

²⁹⁸ „Iso als ich 2003 anfang war es üblich alle Kollegen zum Einstand einzuladen. Und das waren 300 als ich damals anfang und das hat natürlich niemand individuell gemacht, sondern damals fingen jeden Monat zehn oder auch zwanzig Leute an und die haben sich dann zusammengetan und dann gab es ein Fest in der Einbauhalle, [...] und man kannte auch alle.“ (2G, §26)

²⁹⁹ „Ja es war halt einfach kleiner, man hat auch innerhalb der BEG eigentlich fast jeden gekannt. Und dann natürlich, wenn dann die Familien dabei waren auch die Familien gekannt und das war halt einfach auch was ganz anderes als das heute ist. Heute kann es vorkommen, dass man auf ein Sommerfest und hier eine Stunde sich aufhält und niemanden trifft den man kennt“ (16G, §60).

³⁰⁰ „Dass man wirklich jeden kennt, dann hat das verschiedenen Effekte also zum einen ist eine sehr große Offenheit da einen anzusprechen, dass man sehr genau Bescheid weiß wer sich um was kümmert“ (2G, §26).

³⁰¹ „Früher kannte ich auch noch alle Leute bei uns der Applikation und dem Projektmanagement, hatte mit jedem mehr oder weniger direkt zu tun und jetzt ist der ganze Flügel voll und ich kenne die Leute gar nicht mehr“ (13E, §58).

³⁰² „Denke ich immer, ja lieber mal vielleicht ein Ziel nicht zu hundertprozent übertreffen oder erreichen und lieber daraufachten, dass die Zusammenarbeit wertschätzend bleibt. Und auch immer gemeinsam irgendwie mit einem guten Gefühl ins Ziel kommt und das ist halt, je größer man wird immer schwieriger, weil es anonym wird“ (30G, §81).

³⁰³ „Wenn es mehr Leute sind desto mehr Grüppchen bilden sich auch“ (4E, §84).

³⁰⁴ „Also was ich schon mehr erlebe, ist dass die Bereiche sehr stark für sich fokussiert sind und ich glaube, dass so als BEG in Summe zu denken, das haben wir glaube ich weniger wie früher Ähm, wobei jetzt grad mit VS oder so, da gibt es glaube ich viele Überschneidungen und Berührungspunkte, [...] wo man jetzt auch Doppelentwicklungen macht, wo man, um Projekte kämpft, auch schön blöd“ (30G, §75).

³⁰⁵ „Und dadurch ist dieses Ziel gemeinsam Projekte erfolgreich bearbeiten nicht mehr ganz so wichtig, wie es früher war. Wenn man wie damals bei uns 10 Softwareentwickler ist, dann muss man es miteinander machen, weil sonst hat man ein Problem. Und heute sind wir halt 300 Softwareentwickler jetzt im Powertrain, und dann spielt halt glaube ich schon ne Rolle, ist es mein Arbeitsgebiet, wie korreliert dieses Ziel mit meiner Abteilungsleitung“ (27G, §22).

³⁰⁶ „Genau und wenn dann irgendwo am Ende, sag ich mal, Murks bei rauskommt oder ein Fehler passiert ist, dann versucht man - nachzuweisen, dass man in seinem Teil nichts hätte besser machen können. Also in Summe, alle haben das richtige gemacht, trotzdem kommt hinten Scheiß raus. Und diese Mentalität, die gab es früher nicht“ (17G, §26).

³⁰⁷ „Früher - jeder kannte jeden, man kannte sich, es war kleiner und familiär. Das kann man nimmer, das geht nimmer, wenn man tausend Leute hat, das ist klar. Aber gefühlt verstecken sich Leute mehr hinter Prozessen, hinter Vorschriften, hinter starren Strukturen und es geht ein bisschen weg von dem Thema Eigenverantwortung.“ (17G, §12)

³⁰⁸ „Als ich angefangen haben, waren es glaube ich knapp 1000 Leute, und da kannt ich natürlich auch nicht jeden, aber vom Gefühl her, waren es trotzdem noch weniger Leute als jetzt, (10E, §118).

³⁰⁹ „Ja, wir sind stark gewachsen, ich habe es noch miterlebt als wir den 1000 Mitarbeiter hatten, da war ich noch Studentin. Es wurde anonym [...] und dann geht man in die andere Abteilung und ein halbes Jahr später dort wieder hin, dann sieht man viele neue Gesichter“ (11E, §54).

³¹⁰ „Also gerade diese, die Größe, die wir erreicht haben, mit der Mitarbeiter-Anzahl, mit auch

verschiedenen Regionalgesellschaften, führt einfach dazu, dass man weniger Leute kennt, also man kennt immer noch genauso viele Leute, aber dass man prozentual weniger Leute kennt (31G, §32).

³¹¹ „Kreativität“ (12D, §109).

³¹² „Ja es ist ja schon alles definiert. Ich muss ja nichts mehr machen [...]. Also ich höre oft, dass man sich über manche Sachen gar keine Gedanken mehr macht, weil man glaubt da hat sich bestimmt schon jemand Gedanken darüber gemacht und das ist eben genau nicht der Fall. (12D, §38).

³¹³ „Also die Verantwortung nicht dem Niedergeschriebenen geben, sondern die wieder selbst in die Hand nehmen und sich überlegen, was macht Sinn und was nicht“ (16G, §30).

³¹⁴ „Ja ansonsten denke ich schon, dass also, dass dieses Mitgestalten abgenommen hat [...]. Ich hab Kollegen die halt von so 2004/ 2005 in dem Führungskreis waren als Abteilungsleiter und die halt das jetzt so wahrnehmen, dass sie damals halt mit gestaltet mit entschieden haben. (14D, §52).

³¹⁵ „Genau der BEG-Herbstfortschritt ist eine Informationsveranstaltung gewesen, der war früher eine Diskussionsrunde. Nicht gut und sehr kontrovers auch oft aber es hat auch das Salz in die Suppe gegeben. Ich merk, dass der Herr Bihr heute versucht manchmal auch solche kontroversen Punkte dann auch mal wirklich bewusst zu initiieren und nicht merk einfach das ist ein Rohrkrepierer. [...] dann ja also das ist schon auch die Bereitschaft nicht da in so einem großen Plenum tatsächlich sowas zu diskutieren. (12D, §61).

³¹⁶ „Ich bin 2009 als Gruppenleiter zum [Bereich XY] gegangen. [...] [Bereich XY] war immer ein Debattierclub. Also in Abteilungsleiterrunden oder in Runden wo die Gruppenleiter und Abteilungsleiter zusammen waren, wurde sehr oft über die gleichen Themen diskutiert und man hat die Themen immer ausdiskutiert. Der Herr Paetz, der Bereichsleiter, war jemand der sich immer Meinungen von außen angehört hat, sich viele Aspekte der Meinungen angehört hat.. Und dann hat irgendwann so ein Gremium eine Meinung gefasst und die hat man dann schon meistens weiterverfolgt aber manchmal hat man auch immer wieder zu dieser Diskussion zurückgefunden. Also es war sehr partizipativ. (27G, §83)

³¹⁷ „Dass der Herr [Bereichsleiter] vieles in seinem Büro entscheidet“ (27G, §87).

³¹⁸ „Ja, Eskapaden sind, das ist so mein Gefühl, dass wir da heute auch besonders vorsichtig geworden sind“ (31G, §40).

³¹⁹ „Also unflexibler, vorsichtiger, es ist ganz einfach so, wenn wir früher, sag ich mal, drei Kundenprojekte haben und wir haben einen Fehler gemacht, dann haben wir das halt in diesen drei Projekten hatl behoben. Heute haben wir 300 Kundenprojekte und wenn wir da einen Fehler machen, dann haben wir echt ein Riesenproblem an der Backe. Gefühlt werden wir vorsichtiger, zurückhaltender“ (17G, §44).

³²⁰ „hatte man früher gefühlt viel mehr Freiheiten und man hat viel mehr, also die Leine war viel lockerer“ (16G, § 44).

³²¹ „Das funktioniert bei 30 Leuten ganz gut, aber mit 2000 kann man das nicht mehr machen. Deren finanzielle Sicherheit davon abhängig machen, was ich gerade mal ausprobieren“ (7D, §28).

³²² „Aber wie gesagt gefühlt wird es immer weniger, oder gefühlt tun wir immer mehr uns dem großen Bosch angleichen“ (17G, § 20).

³²³ „Und so gesehen hat sich die Mitarbeiterzahl nochmal verdreifacht. Wir wurden mehr Bosch, also das merkt man denke ich eindeutig, dass wir uns den Bosch-Geschäftsbereichen noch mal stärker angenähert haben, und verlangt wahrscheinlich auch so eine Größe, wenn man immer mehr wird, dann braucht man entsprechende Organisationsstrukturen“ (33E, §14).

³²⁴ „Insofern empfinde ich BEG schon in Richtung Geschäftsbereich gehend. Da brauche ich ja auch gewisse Strukturen, da ist jetzt gefühlt so ein Scheidepunkt, bin ich noch eine kleine Einheit, was halte ich aus der Vergangenheit und was brauche ich aber jetzt tatsächlich an Strukturen“ (7D, §26).

³²⁵ „Und das hat sich halt fortgesetzt mit wir müssen da prozesskompatibel sein und es gibt diese oder jede Anforderung aus der Zentrale, die wir dann erfüllen und bedienen müssen [...] Das hätt's jetzt halt vor 15 Jahren nicht gegeben, wir waren halt zu klein, das hat keiner wahrgenommen wir waren noch nicht mal Strichstärke auf einer Statistik von irgend einer Schillerhöheabteilung und von daher sind wir da unter der Radarschwelle durchgekommen und das sind wir hat mit der heutigen Größe nicht mehr“ (14D, §52).

³²⁶ „Experiment“ (6L, §20, 24).

³²⁷ „Also es war ein ziemlicher Sprung als das dann in Bosch Engineering umbenannt wurde“ (14D, §52).

³²⁸ „Plötzlich hieß man nicht mehr ASSET irgendwann, sondern hieß dann Bosch Engineering. Das war vielleicht schon mal was, wo man sich gefühlt Richtung größer, und aber jetzt, dass sich die Kultur, ändert sich wegen dem Namen ja nicht. Aber so gefühlt.“ (30G, §28).

³²⁹ „Ja, ich glaube es war am Anfang war s schon. Also bei mir war es gemischt, also ASSET muss man immer erklären, was ist ASSET, wenn man jemandem im Bekanntenkreis erzählt hat [...] Danach hat man halt gesagt, man arbeitet bei Bosch oder bei Bosch Engineering, das sagt jedem sofort. Also das ist die eine Seite, das sieht man ja auch bei den Mitarbeiterbefragungen, jeder ist ja auch irgendwie stolz bei Bosch zu arbeiten“ (30G, §30).

³³⁰ „Und früher war es mehr so, wir sind schon anders, also grad wo noch der Name ASSETT war. Wir haben auch einen anderen Namen, wir sind wo anders, mit Tamm, ähm. Heute sind wir hier in Abstatt, wo ja auch der [Geschäftsberiech] dann äh ist. Und von daher ist so mein Gefühl, damals war das schon noch mal, ähm in, mehr so dieses, wir sind nicht Bosch, wir haben Vorteile vom Bosch, also dass wir zum Bosch-Konzern gehören. Aber wir sind eher eine eigenständige Einheit. Und das, mein Gefühl ist, dass es heute nicht mehr ganz so ist.“ (31G, §30).

³³¹ „Es gab einen Kollegen, der ist heute noch da, der hat gesagt, aha, das Experiment ist zuende,“ (6L, §24).

³³² „Hat man ganz am Anfang der Firmenzeit versucht die Tochterfirma von Bosch möglichst optisch weit weg von Bosch zu schieben. Eigener Name, es war mal ein anderes Farbkonzept da, ASSET war mal blau, keine Bosch-Marke im Namen, und so weiter. Und möglichst eigenständigen Marktauftritt [...]. Wir sind sehr stark gewachsen, sehr profitabel auch. Und dann kam, was bei Bosch oft kommt, dann wird es, ich sag mal, ein bisschen salopp gesagt, nachdem das Experiment vorbei ist, dann wird es in den Konzern reingeholt. Was für uns zwar, für die Gründer, die ein eigenständige Firma aufbauen sollten und diese zum Erfolg führen sollten, insofern etwas frustrierend war, weil wir schon gesehen haben, jetzt werden wir wieder an die kürzere Leine genommen.“ (6L, §20).

³³³ „atürlich für die, die gestartet sind, um eine eigenständige Lösung zu zeigen und ja auch eine Lösung, die anders arbeitet und marktgerechter arbeitet, (6L, §20).

³³⁴ „letztlich Eigenständigkeit ohne Erfolg bringt nichts - Erfolg ohne Eigenständigkeit bringt immer noch was.“ (6L, §22).

³³⁵ „Also schauen, wie macht es der Bosch, so machen wir es auch“ (31G, §30).

³³⁶ „Und dass man so dieses Gefühl hat, dass auch die Steuerung heute von ähm, ja, vom Bosch aus, von der Schillerhöhe aus, dass die halt stärker zugenommen hat.“ (31G, §32).

³³⁷ „Wobei ich schon sehe, dass wir halt von der Organisationsgröße jetzt mit 1.800 Mitarbeitern hier in Albstadt hier eine Größe haben, wo man nicht sagen würden, das ist eine Garagenfirma, wo jeder jeden kennt und jeder von jedem weiß was er macht. Da sind wir weit drüber hinaus. Da sind wir schon im Geschäftsbereichsmaßstab“ (8D, §44).

³³⁸ „Also man hat damals noch Zeitung gelesen und Annoncen und da war eine Annonce der damaligen Asset und hat mich angesprochen, dass das so eine Art Startup war in einem Mantel eines Großkonzerns, also so quasi, dass mal ein Stück weit. So hat's gewirkt und das hat sich auch bewahrheitet. Zum einen die Sicherheit eines Großkonzerns im Hintergrund hatte, zum Andern auch die Chance was Startup mäßiges zu gestalten“ (14D, §8).

³³⁹ „Wir sind eine kleine Firma und machen jetzt irgendwelche Sonderdinge, die sonst kein anderer macht, wir machen auch mla was an einem Prozess vorbei, das kann man heute halt nicht mehr machen, wenn man die Größe hat und zur Schillerhöhe berichten muss“ (31G, §38).

³⁴⁰ „Klar ist die Frage, wir „BOSCHIG“ sind unsere Regeln. Wenn ich alles von GE übernehme, dann bin ich nicht mehr BEG oder dann ist BEG nur noch anders gekleidet, anderes Alter und andere Namen“ (7D, §58).

³⁴¹ „Ja ich mein man redet ja jetzt viel drüber, hat sich die Kultur der BEG verändert über die Jahre und ah und jetzt sozusagen Nostalgie Asset-Nostalgie, die da jetzt durchbricht oder ist es einfach zwangsläufig, dass ne Firma wenn sie wächst sich da auch son bisschen anders entwickelt“ (14D, §10).

³⁴² „Es war schon einfach auch so die Aufbruchstimmung war schon toll damals - also es war von Anfang an eigentlich so irgendwie anders glaube ich“ (30G, §10).

- ³⁴³ „Genau es war ne ziemliche eingeschworene Truppe sag ich jetzt mal. Ja. Ich sag mal Anfangszeit war auch geprägt von ja so ein bisschen Pioniergeist“ (16G, §16).
- ³⁴⁴ „also dass man zum einen den großen BOSCH im Rücken hat und zum anderen aber auch quasi so als Pionier in vielen Aspekten unterwegs war“ (2G, §22).
- ³⁴⁵ „Was man schon so ab und zu hört, wenn man so zu alten Haudegen spricht, [...] wenn die so erzählt, wie es früher so war, als die Firma noch kleiner war, da bekommt man manchmal schon so ein bisschen Wehmut“ (15E, §50).
- ³⁴⁶ „Also ich hab vor allem eher so ein bisschen Geschichten, über die älteren Kollegen, die auch teilweise auch jetzt gar nicht mehr dabei sind gehört, also dass man halt, ja, keine Ahnung, einfach mal eine Runde mit dem Auto gefahren ist, und dann halt sich unterhalten hat, [...] ass man halt sehr sehr direkten Kontakt hatte miteinander.“ (15E, §56).
- ³⁴⁷ „Ich ch bin ja nur 4 Jahre hier, kann aber auch schon sehen, dass es früher besser war“ (18E, §12).
- ³⁴⁸ „Und ja da waren es halt so ein bisschen die jungen wilden, hat es sich, so hat man es vielleicht auch von den erfahreneren Kollegen dann schon in der Einarbeitung mitbekommen. Nee, keine Ahnung, ja es war tatsächlich so ein bisschen die junge Wilde Truppe irgendwie“ (23E, §38).
- ³⁴⁹ „Da gibt es ein paar Männer der ersten Stunde, die immer mal wieder die Flagge hochhalten“ (7D, §58).
- ³⁵⁰ „Ich denke es hat auch sicherlich, was mit den ganzen, wie soll man sagen, Erwachsenen werden oder BOSCH-Strukturen“ (24E, §20).
- ³⁵¹ „Was ich hier sehe, wir sind weit weg davon von dieser Sturm und Drang Phase die es mal gibt, ich mein jetzt im CD Bereich sind wie eine Organisation mit 250 Mitarbeitern, da haben Prozesse, die sind gut ausformuliert und das ist hier, ich würde mal sagen ist ein starrer Mechanismus.“ (8D, §46).
- ³⁵² „Auf der anderen Seite haben wir intern das Thema, dass wir wachsen, also wir als BEG, was uns auch wieder ein bisschen zu schaffen macht. Von daher ist das glaube ich ganz normal, dass wir diese, ich muss sagen, das ist ein erwachsen werden vielleicht würde ich bezeichnen.“ (17G, §34).
- ³⁵³ „Also der Herr Abteilungsleiter hat da [...] ob du den Vortrag von ihm gehört hast, so diese verschiedenen Stufen von Kind, Jugend oder Pubertät und Erwachsensein. Und ich glaube er hatte uns als erwachsen bezeichnet, ich würde das noch nicht so sehen. Ich würde sagen, wir sind noch ein bisschen vorne dran, ich würde sagen, wir sind noch in der Entwicklung und machen deswegen Fehler und ändern uns deswegen.“ (17G, §34).
- ³⁵⁴ „Also wir haben, es ist schon eine eigene Kultur, würde ich schon sagen. Es gibt Dinge die es beim Bosch so nicht gibt“ (1P, §42).
- ³⁵⁵ „Die haben Sachen zum Laufen gebracht wo ich gesagt hätte, in der Vergangenheit gesagt hätte, des geht gar nie. Also ich hätte mich GES-Mannschaft nicht an solche Projekte getraut wo ich mich mit der jungen BEG-Mannschaft herangetraut hätte.“ (12D, §19).
- ³⁵⁶ „Aber auch teilweise zu sagen, ok wir machen dieses Projekt, auch wenn es vielleicht der GE auch gerne machen möchte aber wir sagen, wir können nur bündeln mit dem anderen Projekt, da kann das der GE nicht, deswegen machen wir beide Projekte. Also Selbstbewusst.“ (13E, §40).
- ³⁵⁷ „Und letztlich wenn man in der Situation ist, lernt man dass es wichtiger ist, Dinge zu monetarisieren, damit die Familien bezahlt werden können, die Gehälter laufen, weil das ist der ultimative Zweck, und dass es weniger wichtig ist, trotz allem ich sag mal, tolle Lösungen, mit tollen Lösungen wen auch immer zu beeindrucken. Und dieser, ich sag mal, das war für mich, ein gewisser Lerneffekt, ich hatte natürlich in meiner Funktion als Abteilungsleiter bei DS“ (6L, §8).
- ³⁵⁸ „wo jeder Mitarbeiter spürt, Mensch wo mache ich denn einen Beitrag zum Unternehmensgewinn, also zum BEG Erfolg? Wo liefere ich da meinen eigenen Beitrag? Und das war eine Sache, die ich so in keinem Geschäftsbereich bisher erlebt hatte und gesehen hatte“ (8D, §20).
- ³⁵⁹ „ja die BEG, das ist der Bosch in saugut und schweineteuer“ (3E, §34).
- ³⁶⁰ „Wir wollen ja kein Billigheimer sein, wir wollen hochwertige Sachen machen, die auch einen entsprechenden Wert am Markt haben“ (9L, §22).
- ³⁶¹ „da war es halt sehr langlaufende Projekte, Projekte die halt auch sich groß über irgendwelche Komponentenverkäufe und so refinanzieren. Und war gefühlt, du wusstest nicht was

so etwas kostet, es dauert halt ewig lang“ (23E, §24).

³⁶² „Ich habe den Eindruck, dass das hier sehr viel selbstverständlicher ist. Dass man weiß, ich möchte diesen Umsatz und diesen Profit erzielen und dann muss ich das eben auch mit einer bestimmten Mannschaft umsetzen.“ (20D, §12).

³⁶³ „Ich höre inzwischen, für mich übrigens eine absolute Groteske, ich höre inzwischen, dass selbst, Vertreter der G-Ebene, also der Geschäftsführerebene, der BEG vorwerfen, sie denke nur ans Geld - für mich eine Groteske“ (6L, §55).

³⁶⁴ „Das Thema Kundenorientierung und das Thema unternehmerisches Denken ist meiner Erfahrung nach, im Vergleich zu anderen Geschäftsbereichen bei der BEG, am stärksten ausgeprägt“ (20D, §19).

³⁶⁵ „Die Zusammenarbeit mit dem Kunden ist in vielen Fällen bei der BEG enger als beim Geschäftsbereich. [...] und wissen okay, wenn ich das nicht gut mache und die Zusammenarbeit nicht gut läuft, dann wird es keine Folgeprojekte geben (20D, §13).

³⁶⁶ „Wo teilweise der Abstand zum Kunden so groß ist, dass die Leute die Kundenzufriedenheit nicht mehr direkt spüren“ (20D, §13).

³⁶⁷ „Da habe ich den Eindruck, dass sich da BEG, Projektleiter und auch Mitarbeiter von der BEG insgesamt leichter tun, weil sie einfach mehr Erfahrung in der Hinsicht haben. Okay, wie kann ich einem Kunden, dass rüberbringen“ (20D, §13).

³⁶⁸ „Genau, was ich sagen will die Kontakte die ich mit der BEG hatte und dem Kunden hatte, ist mir immer aufgefallen, dass es die BEG dass es den BEGlern viel leichter gefallen ist bei den Kunden ihre Angebote zu plausibilisieren“ (9L, §12).

³⁶⁹ „Ich glaube die Zusammenarbeit im Team, also wenn das, also in Feuerbach hätte ich nicht länger arbeiten wollen, als ich da gearbeitet hab, weil es einfach so anonym war, so ein Stück weit.“ (4E, §44).

³⁷⁰ „Und ich erlebe bei der BEG auch eine deutlich größere Hilfsbereitschaft zwischen Mitarbeitern als das in den Geschäftsbereichen ist“ (2G, §24).

³⁷¹ „Und ich glaube geblieben ist die Offenheit bei der BEG, bei den Mitarbeitern, das ist auch etwas Schönes wie ich finde. Also wenn ich im Geschäftsbereich bei BOSCH [...] wenn ich da auf jemanden zugehe, den ich nicht kenne und eine Fachfrage zu seinem Thema habe, dann ist es nicht normal, dass der sich mit mir beschäftigt und sich die Zeit dafür nimmt. Und das wird bei der BEG sehr oft passieren“ (2G, §38).

³⁷² „Und ich glaube auch, was ich oft mal bei Geschäftsbereich mitkriege, dass man oft nicht so sehr nur an seines denkt [...] Bei uns war es immer eher so, [...] man guckt, dass das Projekt erfolgreich in Serie geht und da gehört halt auch manchmal auch dazu, schau nach rechts, schau nach links.“ (30G, §32).

³⁷³ „Wir packen alle an einem Strang, um das Ziel zu erreichen an, das war irgendwie so, jeder so kocht so ein bisschen gefühlt, sein Süppchen. Und das ist hier bei der BEG schon, anders“ (23E, §24).

³⁷⁴ „Risikoakzeptanz ist glaube ich bei BEG grundsätzlich etwas höher. Sich was trauen, mal was probieren. So das so macht man das nicht oder das macht man eigentlich nicht findet man bei uns weniger als bei Bosch“ (1P, §54).

³⁷⁵ „Also so ein Bosch mit 100000 Entwickler, der kann es sich halt auch nicht leisten. Happy Engineering zu machen. Also die Risikobereitschaft bei Bosch ist in meinen Augen, wenn ich das jetzt mit meinem Geschäftsbereich vergleiche“ (17G, §45).

³⁷⁶ „Ihr könnt doch nicht auf Basis von vier Fahrzeugversuchen, einen Datensatz freigeben. Und dann muss ich sagen: Doch kann ich.“ (17G, §57).

³⁷⁷ „Bei der BEG versuchen wir von vornherein zu vermeiden, dass immer so strenge Vorgaben macht, sondern durchaus ein bisschen eine Freiheit lassen, damit da neue Aspekte reinkommen [...], also bei Bosch darf ein Ingenieur am Fahrzeug nichts machen, bei uns ermutigen wir die, dass die auch mal selber an dem Fahrzeug was machen“ (1P, §42, 104).

³⁷⁸ „Also wenn du im Geschäftsbereich bist, dann ist da dein Wirkungskreis immer sehr viel eingeschränkter. Also ich glaube schon, dass du bei der BEG mehr Freiheiten hast, und wenn du dich wirklich um ein Thema kümmern möchtest und ein bisschen Energie reinsetzt“ (27G, §39).

³⁷⁹ „Und was ich schön finde bei der BEG, wenn man da Erfolg darstellt, dann kann man auch was erreichen und etwas Neues schaffen. Wir haben einige neue Ideen und Produkte und Tätigkeitsfelder entstanden dadurch, dass sich Mitarbeiter engagiert haben, weil sie an was geglaubt haben, dass sie die Möglichkeit bekommen das dann auch zu verfolgen. Das finde ich toll. Da ist halt unter anderen Orten bei BOSCH mehr Restriktion.“ (2G, §48).

³⁸⁰ „Ja, also ich war hier am Standort bei CC drüben und da war das immer so „die BEG“, das war so das Besondere da drüben und die haben die tollen Autos und eigentlich kam ich darüber dann drauf, dass es die BEG überhaupt gibt. Und dann im Endeffekt darüber, dass ich halt dann in der Stellenbörse aber wirklich geguckt habe“ (26E, §12).

³⁸¹ „Und wenn man dann mal den Perspektivwechsel selber sieht, und ähm, es sind halt die im Durchschnitt potenteren Autos und so weiter, mit anderen Anforderungen“ (23E, §38).

³⁸² „Was die BEG auszeichnet, ich denk etwas was die Mitarbeiter auch anzieht, weiter fasziniert, sind die Themen an denen wir arbeiten. Mein wir sind nun mal sehr automobillastig und äh die Masse an nicht 08/15 Fahrzeugen bräuchten die wir zu machen haben, im Vergleich zum Geschäftsbereich, ist halt deutlich größer“ (9L, §109).

³⁸³ „Ja die Kunden sind auch andere auch häufig kleine Unternehmen oder machen kleine Serien und müssen halt auch wahnsinnig anpassungsfähig und schnell sein, [...] und dass der Dienstleister genauso schnell mitentwickelt, das funktioniert auch durch die Größe bei der BEG, weil es noch kürzere Wege sind weil die BEG noch kleiner ist als BOSCH. Das macht das ganze spannend“ (21E, §30).

³⁸⁴ „die BEG auch auszeichnen, dass die Projektlänge deutlich kürzer ist, als in anderen Firmen, [...] dann beschäftige ich mich mit einem bestimmten Thema und da bleibe ich dann dran, [...] und mach dann letztlich immer das Gleiche und das Gleiche im gleichen Produkt [...]. Bei BEG hab ich schon abgeschlossene Projekte in der Regel, die dauern vielleicht 2,3 vielleicht auch mal 5 Jahre, aber dann kommt was Neues, (25E, §74).

³⁸⁵ „Ja, also ich meine was ich halt gehört hatte, und mir so selber mein Bild gemacht hab, war eben auch das, ja, abwechslungsreiche, dass man eben mehrere kleine Projekte macht und nicht irgendwie drei Riesenthemen stemmt und die dann irgendwie vier Jahre lang und da in seiner Rolle verhaftet ist, sondern dass man eben flexibler auch Aufgaben wechseln kann, sich weiterentwickeln kann“ (23E, §52).

³⁸⁶ „Weil man halt vorgestoßen ist auf Themenbereiche, Kleinserie mit innovativen neuen Techniken und Technologien, die so eine BOSCH in der Breite nicht abdeckt und dass da auch immer viel Innovation und Neues dabei ist“ (2G, §22).

³⁸⁷ „Und wenn ich dann bei BEG lange dabei bin, habe ich ganz viele Projekte gesehen, das heißt ich habe ganz viele Leute kennengelernt, die Netzwerke sind viel größer, das merkt man auch wenn man mit den Kollegen unterwegs ist“ (22E, §32).

³⁸⁸ „Ich denke, es ist immer noch ein bisschen weniger behördenmäßig“ (24E, §68).

³⁸⁹ „Klar, in einem Punkt sind wir es wahrscheinlich tatsächlich, also die informellen Hürden sind sehr gering. Es ist die gefühlte Hierarchie ist extrem flach. Das sehe ich auch heute, wenn ich so im Geschäftsbereich unterwegs bin an anderen Standorten“ (6L, §38).

³⁹⁰ „Also weil, bei der BEG, da sitzt hier der Herr Geschäftsführer, und dann ist ja Feierabend nach oben so und da beim Diesel, da sitzt du halt ja, da hast du vielleicht noch einen GP, so im Produktbereich ja und das ist aber auch ganz normal, du sitzt ja dann quasi irgendwie so nebeneinander, so war es zumindest in meinem Fall. Und dann hast du ja aber immer noch immer nochmal den Bereichsvorstand oben drüber, so und die sitzen aber wieder in einem anderen Gebäude und es ist halt alles größer und nicht so“ (28E, §16).

³⁹¹ „Wenn man vom Herr Geschäftsführer was braucht, man geht ins Büro und man hat, der Bihr unterhält sich auch mit jemandem einfach mal so aus dem Stand heraus, stellte eine Frage oder so. Das hab ich beim Bosch so nicht erlebt in den Management-Ebenen über. Selbst teilweise beim Abteilungsleiter schon nicht mehr. Und das finde ich ist schon ein sehr deutlicher Unterschied, also dieses ähm nahbare für Mitarbeiter aller Ebenen.“ (27G, §14)

³⁹² „Aber ich glaube dem Herrn Bihr gelingt es glaube ich auch immer noch gut, nahbar zu sein. Also wenn man den beim Mittagessen trifft, der würde auch sich zu einem hinsetzen, würde auch mit einem reden. Und ich glaube, das ist nicht so selbstverständlich glaube ich für den großen Bosch. Ich weiß es nicht, da erlebt man das immer so irgendwie eher als Eminenz, so eine Führungskraft, wie jetzt so nahbar. Auch so menschlich. Und ich glaube jetzt auch wenn auf so Führungs-, also so BEG-Inforunde, der ist immer irgendwie lustig und normal und nicht irgendwie so abgehoben“ (30G, §49).

³⁹³ „Des Hierarchie-Dünkel Sie meinen ich hab den Status A [...] oder Gruppenleiter erreicht und jetzt ist mir das wichtig, das auch nach außen zu repräsentieren. Ich denk nicht, dass wir das haben also nicht in dem Maße wie ich das von Geschäftsbereichen kenne.“ (12D, §97).

³⁹⁴ „ch glaube, dass auch BEG Mitarbeiter auf einer Bosch Plattform freier und lockerer Auftre-

ten als Boschler. Was nicht immer gut ist, also es gibt so stark modifizierte Bereiche wie Schillerhöhe, wo das man tut es so oder man trägt das oder man macht nicht das. Da fallen BEG'ler schon mal unangenehm auf. Wenn sie völlig locker auf Jemand zugehen und hinterher, ja weißt du nicht, das ist doch der so und so, den kannst du doch nicht einfach so ansprechen. Die Machtdistanz die da beansprucht wird, die bringt ein BEG Mitarbeiter im Schnitt eher weniger mit.“ (1P, §52).

³⁹⁵ „Also das war - beim Bosch sind sie vielleicht ein bisschen, wie soll ich das sagen... da haben sie vielleicht eher so einen gewissen Respekt vor einer Hierarchie. Da ist so - vielleicht so ein SA oder so, das ist dann vielleicht so, vielleicht schon eher ein bisschen weiter weg, wie jetzt bei der BEG, wo man beim Herrn Bihr einfach, man klopft an die Bürotür an“ (28E, §10).

³⁹⁶ „Also Bosch ist halt schon also einmal ich denk mal Obrigkeitsgläubiger, also so dieses, ich würde mal tippen, dass jetzt ein Abteilungsleiter bei Bosch sich jetzt net so kritisch über seine Firma äußern würde wie ich jetzt grade in dem Gespräch.“ (14D, §72).

³⁹⁷ „Vom Prinzip her ist es in einem Geschäftsbereich wahrscheinlich genauso schwer oder einfach aber im Geschäftsbereich kommt sowas mehr von oben wird gesagt es gibt eine Begründung warum wird das jetzt so gemacht und dann akzeptiert man's. Man passt sich an und die Sache oft dann auch. Dann sind wir wieder bei der BEG meint aber jeder er dürfte dazu auch was sagen müsste mitreden.“ (9L, §89).

³⁹⁸ „Dass hier die Autonomie größer ist und immer noch die Entscheidungswege kürzer und manche Dinge einfach schneller umsetzbar sind, also nach wie vor auch wenn man jetzt ein bisschen größer als vor 10 Jahren waren“. (14D, §70).

³⁹⁹ „ir ist aufgefallen, es ist alles sehr spontan, kurzfristig, wird wenig geplant, damit wenig Struktur. Weil ich kam von der Zentrale, da plant man viel, da ist viel Struktur, insofern ist es vielleicht auch ein krasser Unterschied gewesen.“ (7D, §18).

⁴⁰⁰ „Natürlich spielt Macht oder die Position auch eine Rolle, aber ich habe es im Geschäftsbereich tatsächlich gesehen, dass manche Leute trotz Umsatzrückgang oder trotz anderer Rahmenbedingungen einfach aus der Umwelt, sich nicht an diese Situation anpassen konnten“ (20D, §11).

⁴⁰¹ „Ich habe zwei Jahre im Abteilungsleiterbüro beim CC gesessen und der Abteilungsleiter hat glaube ich in den ganzen zwei Jahren nie ein Wort mit mir geredet.“ (27G, §43).

⁴⁰² „Bei Bosch ist man trotz aller Arroganz und Hochnäsigkeit doch sehr stark auf seine Kunden fixiert und versucht deren technische Lösungen umzusetzen, weiß aber andererseits nichts von der Vertragsgestaltung“ (6L, §6).

⁴⁰³ „Zum Beispiel wenn da einer auf der Fahrdynamikfläche rumdriftet hast du halt gedacht, ach guck mal die BEGler wieder, jetzt haben sie wieder Spaß und schaffen nichts“ (23E, §38).

⁴⁰⁴ „Da waren wir technisch nicht auf einer Augenhöhe“ (27G, §33).

⁴⁰⁵ „Es ist schon was anderes. Und auch die Körperhaltung bei manchen Standorten ist dann auch so, dass man sieht, aha da ist mehr, Förmlichkeit, vielleicht auch mehr Hierarchiebewusstsein, aber es ist nicht überall so.“ (6L, §38).

⁴⁰⁶ „aber es ist ein bisschen förmlicher und das ist, ja ich habe gerade von jungen Praktikanten das Feedback bekommen, dass sie schon eher dazu tendieren in einem Unternehmen zu arbeiten, wo es ein bisschen lockerer zu geht und zum Beispiel wo es eben auch selbstverständlich ist, dass sich die Leute duzen“ (20D, §9).

⁴⁰⁷ „Und ähm es ist einfach, wenn ich das jetzt z.B. mit dem CC direkt vergleiche, da war der Altersdurchschnitt halt wesentlich höher, da hat man halt weniger außerhalb der Arbeit miteinander noch zutun gehabt als bei der BEG.“ (29E, §14).

⁴⁰⁸ „Wo alle schon 10 Jahre auf ihrem Sessel gesessen haben und da seit 20 Jahren die Technik beherrschen und natürlich jedes Bit linksrum rechtsrum und vorwärts und rückwärts kennen und das war bei uns halt gar nicht so“ (14D, §40).

⁴⁰⁹ „Aber ähm, dass man eben quasi sein Expertentum oder sein Expertenwissen auch in andere Projekte trägt, das finde ich halt positiv, weil dadurch finde ich auch das einzelne Produkt reifer, wenn Erfahrung aus anderen Projekten miteinfließt, als wenn einer nur den gleichen Kunden seit 20 Jahren kennt, ja, das glaube ich tut allen nicht so gut.“ (23E, §56).

⁴¹⁰ „ber es war von Anfang an nicht klar, ob das gut gehen würde, weil eben Fahrzeughersteller gewohnt sind den Service ja bisher kostenlos von Bosch zu erhalten.“ (6L, §20).

⁴¹¹ „Und wenn die vier Jahre überlebt und im fünften Jahr pleitegeht, bin ich dem Arbeitsmarkt zugeführt. Das ist ein ganz anderes Risiko als das, was heute Bosch Engineering mit dieser tiefen Einbettung in die Bosch-Organisation vermittelt.“ (6L, §34).

⁴¹² „Es wollte keiner von Bosch eingemeindet werden auch logisch, aber jetzt nicht so eine

existenziell bedrohende Situation und von daher war man da vielleicht relativ unbekümmert.“ (14D, §40).

⁴¹³ „Also ohne den Bosch wären wir gar nichts“ (33E, §64).

⁴¹⁴ „dann im Geschäftsbereich nicht dem kann halt keiner was, der macht halt was sein Auftrag ist und zieht da sein Ding durch das ist ne ganz andere Denkweise also BEG fühlt sich immer latent bedroht durch Wettbewerb von außen und innen“ (14D, §79).

⁴¹⁵ „Also BEG ist immer so im Schatten des Elefantenfußes unterwegs, also ich esse da mein Gras als Maus und wenn der Schatten auftaucht mit dem PS im Fuß dann muss ich halt schnell wegspringen“ (14D, §79).

⁴¹⁶ „us der jetzigen Perspektive sehe ich es natürlich genau so, dass der Geschäftsbereich es toleriert an Nischen, wo er merkt, mensch da kommt er sowie so nicht zu Rande aber an anderen Stellen sagt er ne das ist eigentlich sein Geschäft [...] und zu sagen ok man toleriert BEG. (8D, §16).

⁴¹⁷ „Feuerwehr“ (22E, §38).

⁴¹⁸ „ch brauche noch jemanden, die müssen mir jetzt helfen, weil ich komme nicht klar. Deshalb werden unsere Leute ja auch häufig in so brennende Projekte reingeworfen und müssen dann die Welt retten“ (22E, §38).

⁴¹⁹ „dass es die BEG dass es den BEG-lern viel leichter gefallen ist bei den Kunden ihre Angebote zu plausibilisieren“ (9L, §12).

⁴²⁰ „Interpretiere ich es, ist es eher der Neidfaktor, weil man bekommt ja immer vorgeworfen, mensch, ihr seid viel zu teuer als BEG, auf der anderen Seite kommt unterschwellig natürlich, mensch, ihr wisst was ist es Wert“ (8D, §14).

⁴²¹ „Ah da kommen jetzt wieder die BEGler, die meinen die sind was besonderes, weil sie die tollen Sportwagen bearbeiten“ (16G, §52).

⁴²² „Ja und das hängt vielleicht auch ein bisschen Neid auch damit zusammen, weil das natürlich, man hat ja da zu Anfängen auch Projekte weggenommen in Führungszeichen, die früher ein Boschler bearbeitet hat und natürlich gefällt das dem überhaupt nicht, wenn er früher den Fiat und Ferrari bearbeitet hat“ (16G, §56).

⁴²³ „komm das geben wir denen jetzt und dann sollen sie mal gucken wie sie es hinkriegen“ (27G, §33).

⁴²⁴ „Von daher habe ich da gar keinen so großen Unterschied festgestellt und wie gesagt, was mir bei Bosch insgesamt sehr, sehr gut gefällt ist die offene und kollegiale Zusammenarbeit.“ (20D, §23).

⁴²⁵ „Das ist eine Hilfsbereitschaft, ist auch ein Wert in Bosch. Zumindest hab ich es so kennengelernt. (6L, §48).

⁴²⁶ „Ähm, ja was bei vielen schon so ist, es sind auch so die Klassiker, die Bosch mäßig auch vorgelebt werden“ (3E, §26).

⁴²⁷ „Der nächste Aspekt Wertschätzung ist wie wir unsere Mitarbeiter und für unsere Mitarbeiter. Das muss ich sagen zieht sich allerdings auch wie ein roter Faden natürlich durch BOSCH durch“ (8D, §18).

⁴²⁸ „Die Werte sind ja ähnlich, weil es BOSCH ist, aber durch das die BEG Dienstleister ist, sind die Schwerpunkte halt anders gewichtet. Qualitätsanspruch haben sie beide aber die BEG muss mehr bringen [...] n den Werten würde ich es nicht so klar definieren können oder unterscheiden können.“ (21E, §12).

⁴²⁹ „Ich denke grundsätzlich ist es sehr ähnlich. Ich denke wenn dann sind es hier in Führungszeichen noch jugendlichere Werte“ (25E, §50).

⁴³⁰ „Iso das macht mir schon auch Spaß und das finde ich auch gut das wir da bei BOSCH die Möglichkeit geben können, auf Schulen, auf Schulklassen, auf Mädchen damit zuzugehen und die einfach schon in der Frühphase für BOSCH zu gewinnen. Und dann ist es unabhängig, ob es nachher die BEG oder der BOSCH ist. Verstehe mich als Markenbotschafterin für den Konzern.“ (13E, §98).

⁴³¹ „also so vom Kollegialität und Zusammenarbeit, kann ich weder über Bosch noch über BEG irgendwas Schlechtes sagen.“ (28E, §10).

⁴³² „Die BOSCH Werte sind extrem wichtig, würde ich noch sagen. Das merkt man auch im Vergleich mit anderen Unternehmen, bspw. bei OEM. Da gibt es ja auch den Gründungsvater und auch hier in BW, aber die sagen nie: „Der Gründer hat das und das gesagt“, wir BOSCH'ler sind extrem stark hinter dem, was Robert Bosch gesagt hat“ (11E, §88).

⁴³³ „ass eigentlich im Vergleich zu anderen Unternehmen, bei BOSCH der Mitarbeiter im Mittelpunkt steht und nicht nur eben Sinn für ein Ertragsziel ist.“ (8D, §18).

⁴³⁴ „Also bevor ich zu Bosch kam, war ich beim Daimler als Werkstudent. Und da hatte ich auch so das Gefühl, dass das eher mal so eine Ellenbogengesellschaft ist da, ja jeder ist so der beste und so“ (4E, §30).

⁴³⁵ „Back to the roots, dass man versucht BEG wieder zu vereinheitlichen“ (29E, §61).

⁴³⁶ „Innovationsgeist“ (29E, §61).

⁴³⁷ „der domänenübergreifende Effekt“ (24E, §20).

⁴³⁸ „Und da würde ich gerne ein bisschen mehr investieren, quasi eine mutigere und wieder ein bisschen offenere Kultur zu schaffen. [...] Aber vielleicht lohnt es da halt mehr darüber nachzudenken. [...] AUnd da versuche ich im Impulsgeber-Netzwerk ein bisschen einen Beitrag zu leisten, ein bisschen zu schauen welche Maßnahmen wären jetzt vielleicht dazu geeignet, um so eine Kultur zu schaffen oder zu befördern. Also ich habe da keinen ausgearbeiteten Masterplan. [...] Da bin ich halt motiviert und dabei das aufzubrechen“ (15E, §62).

⁴³⁹ „Wenn man so zu den alten Haudegen spricht, [...] wenn die so erzählen wie es früher so war, [...] da bekommt man manchmal schon so ein bisschen Wehmut“ (15E, §50).

⁴⁴⁰ „Auf der anderen Seite haben wir intern das Thema, dass wir wachsen, also wir als BEG, was uns auch wieder ein bisschen zu schaffen macht. Von daher ist das glaube ich ganz normal, dass wir diese, ich muss sagen, das ist ein erwachsen werden vielleicht würde ich bezeichnen.“ (17G, §34).

⁴⁴¹ „dass ich halt sehr zufrieden bin hier, in der Firma ja und dass ich auch denke, dass ein relativ gutes Arbeitsumfeld ist, ja Chancen bietet, ja und denke, dass BEG schon ein sehr guter Arbeitgeber ist.“ (5E, §101).

⁴⁴² „Aber so grundsätzlich ähm finde ich Bosch und BEG einen grandiosen Arbeitgeber, also wenn ich das auch vergleiche, mit Freunden und Freundinnen, die in anderen Unternehmen arbeiten, also, die sagen schon, was ihr habt ne Kantine.“ (28E, §104)