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IMPROVING POSITIVE EMPLOYEE EXPERIENCE THROUGH ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: A SECTORAL ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT. The main objective of this study is to explore how perceived organizational culture (OC) influences employees' work experience, with a particular focus on how this relationship differs across the institutional logics of the private, public, and non-profit sectors. The primary research (n = 708) examines the relationship between EX and OC among employees, using Morgan's (2017) 17-item Employee Experience Scale (EXS) and the Competing Values Framework developed by Cameron and Quinn as the theoretical foundation of the study. The analysis was conducted using SPSS and R statistical software, primarily applying multivariate linear regression methods alongside additional related statistical tests. The results of the research demonstrate that the impact of different organizational cultures on the dimensions of employee experience varies across sectors. Consequently, organizations need to develop sector-specific strategies to improve employee experience and better align organizational culture with employee expectations and workplace needs.

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Introduction

In recent years, employee-centred management has become increasingly popular in organizational management, promoting the spread of the concept of positive employee experience (EX) (Itam & Ghosh, 2020). The essence of EX is that, rather than implementing isolated measures aimed at increasing motivation, commitment, or retention, organizations should adopt a holistic and comprehensive perspective, viewing workplace stimuli not as

discrete, one-off events but as a constellation of influences that together shape a complex subjective experience (Vereb et al., 2024). It is closely related to employee satisfaction and commitment (Sungailė et al., 2024; Yadav & Vihari 2023; Yildiz et al., 2020), and it has also been shown to positively influence performance (Contreras–Cruz et al., 2023; Itam & Ghosh 2020; Mishchuk et al., 2021). Work engagement has been shown to positively affect organisational engagement across generational groups, indicating that experience-related constructs generalise across employee segments while their drivers may still differ by organisational context (Šakytė-Statnickė et al., 2023). To enhance the EX, organizations often offer programmes that focus on different stages of the employee life cycle (Yadav & Vihari, 2023), and they also frequently employ dedicated platforms to monitor and manage it, through which management can gather systematic employee feedback. In addition, numerous artificial intelligence–driven human resource management (HRM) applications are available in the workplace, specifically designed to support EX (Lee–Song, 2024; Malik et al., 2023). Beyond these, EX can also be developed and enhanced through coaching processes; for instance, the SOUL team coaching framework has been designed to improve EX (Neill & de Klerk, 2023). Although various organizational tools are available to assess and improve EX, their long-term sustainability requires that these tools be grounded in appropriate professional standards and supported by an organizational culture aligned with employees’ needs (Yadav & Vihari, 2023; Szostek et al., 2024).

Organizational culture and EX are closely related (Morgan, 2017), and modifying organizational culture in the right direction can also improve EX (Yadav & Vihari, 2023; Lee & Kim, 2023; Hajduova et al., 2025). Evidence from the hospitality sector demonstrates that sustainable personnel management practices are associated with higher employee engagement, organisational commitment, and organisational performance, suggesting that culture-aligned HR systems translate into measurable experience-related outcomes (Vovk & Vovk, 2024). According to relevant research findings, a positively perceived organizational culture (Contreras-Cruz et al., 2023; Horváth & Kenesei, 2023) and cultural factors such as a positive organizational atmosphere, a sense of fairness, inclusiveness, and opportunities for development (Yadav & Vihari, 2023) are statistically positively related to EX. However, a search of the Web of Science and Scopus databases (Harzing & Alakangas, 2016; Macháček et al., 2022), which provide comprehensive bibliographic data and extensive journal article coverage, does not yield any studies that examine EX according to cultural typologies. The dominant culture, on the other hand, is decisive in terms of employee attitudes and behaviour. According to relevant research findings, the dominant culture has an impact on employees, influencing, for example, their commitment (Erdem, 2007; Wells & Lower, 2016; Hamel et al., 2023), satisfaction (Belias et al., 2015; Čuček & Kač, 2020), well-being (Alkhodary, 2023; Watanabe et al., 2024), motivation (Belás et al., 2024; Massaras et al., 2014), intention to leave (Ozturk et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2017), burnout (Sarigül & Ugurluoglu, 2023), and thus presumably also related to EX – defined as the experience of interactions between employees and the organization. Furthermore, international literature emphasises that cultural determinants cannot be treated as a uniform organizational framework, as different sectors – such as the private sector, the public sector, and the non-profit sector – follow significantly different institutional logics, operational objectives, financing structures, and internal norms (Anheier, 2014; Boyne, 2002). Regression-based evidence on toxic workplaces confirms that the type of corporate culture, together with leadership style and sectoral affiliation, systematically differentiates pathological from healthy work environments, reinforcing the need to analyse organizational culture jointly with sector-specific institutional logics (Michulek et al., 2024). For example, the market-oriented and profit-driven environment of the private sector generates a different type of organizational culture and employee priorities than the regulated nature of

the public sector or the mission-oriented nature of non-profit organizations. This shapes not only resource management and work organization, but also the cultural embeddedness of organizations (Perry & Rainey, 1988; Bozeman & Bretschneider, 1994). The main objective of this study is therefore to explore how perceived organizational culture influences employees' work experience, with a particular focus on how this relationship differs between the institutional logics of the private, public, and non-profit sectors.

The literature review section of the article presents the concept, components, and significance of EX; the relationships between EX and organizational cultural characteristics; Cameron and Quinn's competing values model; and, finally the specific characteristics of the private, public, and non-profit sectors. The methodology chapter presents the details of the primary survey, including the sampling procedure, the measurement instrument, and the characteristics of the sample. The study reports the research results in separate subchapters for the private, public, and non-profit sectors, and concludes with a discussion supplemented by managerial recommendations.

1. Literature review

1.1. The concept and the components of employee experience

In the literature, the concept of EX is complex and difficult to grasp. The definitions of Plaskoff (2017) and Morgan (2017) are most often cited in relation to EX. According to Plaskoff (2017, p. 136), "EX is the employees' assessment of all points of contact (e.g., activities, behaviours, and procedures) they encounter within the organization". Morgan (2017, p. 8) similarly describes EX as "the sum total of all interactions between employees and the organization". Workplace-focused experience research identifies recurring categories of positive user experience – such as feeling valued, supported, and enabled – that can be systematically analysed and designed for, providing an experience-design complement to survey-based EX measurement (Zeiner et al., 2018). According to Neill & de Klerk (2023, p. 68.) "The employee experience is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that develops intra- and interpersonally, as well as in the systemic context of the employee group". The employee experience is therefore shaped and continuously formed by internal, subjective, and complex processes based on interactions between the organization and the individual. It is the individual's opinion of a given workplace, shaped by their experiences from the day they join the organization to the day they leave. These experiences are influenced by the individual's emotions, expectations and needs, as well as the compatibility of organizational conditions.

The literature distinguishes between several dimensions of EX. Itam and Ghosh (2020) identified eight key factors: employee expectations and desires, a holistic approach, radical participation, EX, trust and appreciation, accessibility to intangible experiences, the work environment, and leadership. All of this is closely related to Plaskoff's (2017) theory, which guides principles of understanding employee needs, a holistic approach, the availability of intangible experiences, participation, experimentation, and trust. According to a Deloitte survey (2017), the dimensions of EX are design thinking, HR (human resources) development, programme opportunities, diversity, the EX brand, alignment of individual and corporate goals, support for work-life balance, and the provision of community programmes. Morgan (2017) identified three main dimensions of EX: physical, cultural, and technological environment. Empirical studies (e.g., Lee and Kim, 2023; Harlianto and Rudi, 2023) typically employ measurement instruments based on the dimensions identified by Morgan (2017); the present study also examined EX within this framework. The theory links the following to the three dimensions:

- Physical dimension: the extent to which the physical space reflects corporate values (e.g., cooperation, openness, transparency) and the extent to which employees are proud of their working environment, which provides various work areas (e.g., open spaces, conference rooms, cafés) and flexible working options (e.g., mobility, working hours) for work.
- Cultural dimension: this includes, for example, the importance of employees feeling purposeful and valued in their workplace and being treated fairly. Empirical work on low-engagement workforces identifies two-way communication, leadership quality, regular feedback, fair and equal treatment, and work–life balance as decisive engagement drivers, closely mirroring the cultural dimension of employee experience operationalised in the EXS (Dendere et al., 2025). The extent to which managers can be seen as mentors and whether they pay sufficient attention to physical and mental health. The nature of the workplace atmosphere (how diverse and inclusive it is) and the perception of the employer brand also fall under this category. This dimension also includes development opportunities – how accessible they are to all employees and whether they provide opportunities for advancement.
- Technological dimension: the availability and nature of the system(s) used by the company (how user-friendly it is, how well it meets needs and assists in day-to-day work). Empirical evidence links excessive workplace email volume to elevated stress and reduced job satisfaction, showing that the technological dimension of the work environment can undermine experience quality when communication systems are poorly governed (Bouvier et al., 2024). Research on technostress further demonstrates that technology overload and invasion compromise work–life balance and perceived well-being at work, implying that technological experience should be treated as a managed component of EX rather than a neutral infrastructure layer (Bencsik & Juhasz, 2023).

1.2. Organizational culture: The competing values model

Organizational culture plays a central role in the processes of organizational learning, socialisation, and routine formation (Schein, 2010). It is of increasing interest to both researchers and practitioners (Alvesson, 2013). At the same time, there is still a lack of a unified theoretical framework and consensus on definitions in the literature, which stems from the complex, multidimensional nature of organizational culture (Martin, 2002). As a result, there are a number of different cultural typologies and measurement tools available, each emphasising different aspects (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Hofstede, 2011). Organizational culture is generally a deeply rooted system of collective assumptions, values, norms and beliefs that guides the behaviour of members and determines the day-to-day functioning of the organization (Schein, 2010; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Alvesson (2013) describes culture as patterns of organizational thinking, emotions and behaviour, while Deal and Kennedy (2000) argue that culture is the "glue" that holds the organization together, shaping its identity and performance. These definitions also indicate that organizational culture is a complex construct that is difficult to operationalise and challenging to examine empirically.

The purpose of cultural typologies is to help structure and categorise different organizational cultures according to their characteristics. One of the best known of these is the Competing Values Framework developed by Robert E. Quinn and John Rohrbaugh (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The model examines the values that organizations pursue in order to increase their long-term effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The model categorises organizations along two axes: one is the flexibility-dynamism and stability-predictability axis, and the other is the internal focus and integration versus external orientation and differentiation axis (Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). Four basic types can be distinguished along the four endpoints:

1. Clan culture: An internally focused and flexible organization characterised by a family atmosphere, strong loyalty, participatory leadership, leaders who act as mentors, teamwork, communication and cooperation. The main values include cooperation, openness, humour and equality. Organisational culture has also been shown to moderate the effects of leadership on organisational health, with supportive culture strengthening the link between empowering leadership and employee outcomes – evidence consistent with the clan-type mechanisms hypothesised to support positive EX (Arokiasamy, 2017).

2. Adhocracy culture: An externally focused, flexible organization characterised by an innovative spirit, entrepreneurial drive and risk-taking. Leaders are seen as innovators and pioneers, and the driving force behind the organization is the desire for creation and growth. Important values: creativity, autonomy, experimentation, rapid adaptation.

3. Hierarchy culture: Characterised by internal focus and stability. Structure, regulation and formal operation are the dominant elements. Leaders are coordinators, and the organization's operation is determined by rules and procedures. Key values: reliability, efficiency, cost control, logical thinking.

4. Market culture: External focus, but in a controlled environment. The goal is to maximise results, increase competition and market share, and encourage individual performance. Managers are competitive, and the organization is motivated by success. Important values: assertiveness, initiative, performance orientation (Quinn, 1988; Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Burchell & Saele, 2007).

1.3. Relationships between employee experience and organizational cultural characteristics

The authors did not find any research that specifically examined EX according to cultural typologies, but surveys have been conducted that linked EX to the characteristics of organizational culture.

In their questionnaire survey conducted in Korea, Yadav and Vihari (2023) focused on physical, technological, and cultural experiences by examining the relationship between employee experiences and mental resilience. According to the results of the research, organizational cultural factors (e.g. positive organizational climate, fairness, inclusiveness, and development) and the promotion of psychological well-being through various human resource management tools can increase positive EX. Based on the results of Lee & Kim's (2023) empirical research, cultural factors and the physical environment have a significant impact on EX, while technological factors do not. Based on interview studies conducted on an American sample, Contreras – Cruz et al. (2023) found that positive organizational culture is among the most important (to be developed) factors in terms of EX, alongside other factors such as trust, fair treatment, communication and the workplace environment. Their research findings are partly supported by the research of Yildiz et al. (2020), who developed a two-phase model that focuses on identifying the criteria that influence positive work experience and facilitating its corporate (self-)assessment. Based on the results, leadership, followed by human resource development, organizational culture and communication can be considered the most significant factors in terms of EX. The study by Horváth and Kenesei (2023) summarises the results of a so-called Employee Experience Journey Mapping project, which shows that EX is most influenced by leadership, security and stability, and a supportive culture. Survey evidence from Central European family businesses shows that perceptions of open communication, innovation support, and responses to workplace mistakes are broadly shared across generational cohorts, suggesting that cultural alignment with employee expectations may matter more than demographic segmentation when designing experience-enhancing practices (Hajduova et al., 2025).

The relevant studies therefore clearly establish that organizational culture is a significant factor in terms of EX, but a deeper understanding of the relationship between the two and the exploration of possible correlations with the characteristics of dominant culture types has not yet been achieved.

1.4. Characteristics of the private sector, the public sector and the non-profit sector

The goal of companies in the private sector is to maximise profits, which requires continuous monitoring of market processes and adaptation to them. The public sector is much more rigid and bureaucratic, with its principles and operations determined more by internal rules and procedures and less by external influences. In addition, market-based enterprises tend to be more team-oriented and foster good workplace relationships, while public sector workplaces are held together by formalities and protocol (Schraeder et al., 2005). Sector-specific evidence from transport workers shows that workload, job content, organisational culture and function, interpersonal relations, and work–life interface jointly shape psychosocial risk and job satisfaction, confirming that experience-related outcomes are conditioned by sectoral occupational contexts (Mościcka-Teske et al., 2023). The private sector mostly seeks employees who are leaders in terms of their individuality and creative thinking, while public sector employees are characterised by conflict avoidance and predictable behaviour (Parker & Bradley, 2000). Although the results of Olejarski et al.'s (2019) longitudinal study show that state-run organizations are increasingly looking for innovative solutions, they still lag far behind private sector companies in this respect.

Based on the above, differences can be expected in several respects between the organizations of the three spheres. The literature provides numerous empirical pieces of evidence for this. Comparative studies between the spheres examine the experiences of employees and job seekers from several perspectives: job quality (Andersen et al., 2024), number of working hours and perceived job insecurity (Yeh et al., 2018), attractiveness of job opportunities (Cordes & Vogel, 2023) – they typically show the public sector in a more favourable light. The findings of Aeschbacher and Addor (2018) are only partially consistent with the above, as they concluded, based on data from more than 11,000 individuals across six different types of institutions in Switzerland, that although public sector employees were more satisfied with their pay and career advancement opportunities than those in the private sector, they were also more prone to stress and aggression. Meanwhile, those working in non-profit institutions experienced the highest levels of autonomy, flexibility, participation, recognition and commitment.

A study of organizational culture in Greece by Boufounou and Argyrou (2022) showed that hierarchy prevailed in the public sector (similar to the findings of Massaras et al., 2014 and Boufounou et al., 2024), while market culture prevailed in the private sector. However, the target culture in both sectors was found to be clan culture. With regard to technology, according to Hofmann and Ogonek (2018), IT skills are considered important in both the public and private sectors, but they lag behind soft skills such as time and self-management in terms of importance. Based on their findings, there is a significant difference between the spheres in terms of how the necessary digital competences are acquired (private sphere: e-learning, virtual reality; public sphere: traditional learning). The findings of Jong and Ganzaroli (2023) confirm that there is a greater willingness to use methods related to digital technologies (lean, agile) in the private sector than in the public and non-profit sectors.

The three sectors therefore differ in several respects, so it is likely that they also differ in terms of EX. To the authors' knowledge, there is no available piece of evidence on the relationships between the different sectors and EX, but Itam & Ghosh (2020) note that

organizations focused on high performance – i.e., companies typically operating in the private sphere – focus on understanding employee expectations and motivations, which helps to create a workplace with a positive EX (Itam & Ghosh, 2020).

2. Methodology

Data were collected from a total of 708 employees using an online questionnaire (LimeSurvey) between April and June 2025. Employees were recruited using a snowball sampling method, with a minimum of three months of active employment as the selection criterion. The data were cleaned in Excel and analyzed using SPSS and R. The parallel use of these software packages also served to cross-check the results. The gender distribution of the employees participating in the research was almost equal, with a total of 357 women (50.42%) and 349 men (49.29%) participating (2 people, 0.28%, did not wish to answer). In terms of age distribution, 33 people (4.66%) were baby boomers, 353 people (49.85%) belong to Generation Y, slightly more than a quarter, 185 people (26.12%) to Generation X, while 137 people (19.35%) belong to Generation Z. Further important distributional characteristics of the sample are shown in Appendix 1.

As valid responses were required for subsequent analyses in relation to the corporate sector, some observations were omitted, so that further analyses were based on 673 observations.

2.1. Measurement instruments

To assess organizational culture, the authors adapted Meyer et al. (2010)'s 28-item questionnaire, which examines the culture perceived by employees in relation to four different culture types. To assess EX, the authors used the 17-item Employee Experience Scale (Morgan, 2017), which is the most widely accepted measure in the literature and explores employee experience along three dimensions. The authors translated the English-language EX Scale into Hungarian in two rounds and incorporated it into the questionnaire. The questionnaire contained 4 items related to the physical dimension, 10 items related to the cultural dimension, and 3 items related to the technological dimension.

For both scales, employees could mark their answers on a 7-point Likert scale, which was available to respondents in both textual form (e.g. strongly disagree, strongly agree) and numerical form (1-7). Based on Harpe's (2015) 3rd recommendation, the authors consider the resulting data to be of interval scale level.

2.2. Applied statistical and mathematical methods

The authors examined the relationship between organizational culture types and EX in the study using multivariate linear regression, which allowed the impact of cultural factors to be quantified. Given that several questionnaire items measure certain types/dimensions of organizational culture and EX that are strongly correlated including them simultaneously could have caused strong multicollinearity in a multivariate linear regression model. Therefore, the authors formed principal components from the responses to questionnaire items designed to measure the same type/dimension, created as linear combinations of the original variables (Shirali et al., 2016). This approach differs from that of Meyer et al. (2010) in that it considers weighted averages instead of unweighted ones, and the weights consider the correlations of the original variables and are positive. During the extraction of the principal components, one component with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained for each dimension, capturing most

of the variance of the underlying variables (questionnaire items) (Abdi & Williams, 2010). As the applied scales measure altogether 7 dimensions, 7 principal components were created.

The resulting Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) values (the smallest value being 0.734, which is acceptable according to Shrestha, 2021) and the significance values associated with the Bartlett test for sphericity all supported the appropriateness of the approach, while internal consistency was checked using Cronbach's alpha, which exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.7 for all 7 dimensions (Kárász et al., 2022; Krenyácz & Devecsery, 2023). Furthermore, there were no items whose omission would have significantly improved the Cronbach's alpha value. Thus, the scores of the principal components formed from the variables measuring the four dimensions of organizational culture became explanatory variables, while the scores of the principal components formed from the variables measuring the three dimensions of EX became outcome variables. Hereinafter, these variables are referred to by the names of the corresponding dimensions, e.g. Clan denotes the scores of the first principal component extracted from the items measuring clan culture.

Thus, answering the research question concerning the effect of perceived organizational culture on EX is equivalent to testing the significance of the variables belonging to organizational culture types. In order to examine whether these effects differ between sectors, the authors created sector dummy variables indicating employment in the non-profit and public sectors respectively (Appendix 2).

By establishing the interactions of the sector dummy variables and the variables measuring certain dimensions of organizational culture, the authors sought to test the existence of interactions between cultural factors and the sector of employment, i.e. whether the perceived level of clan culture has a different impact on EX in the non-profit and public sectors than in the private sector, which serves as the reference group (the group with the highest frequency). The following models are therefore estimated from the available sample (Appendix 3).

3. Empirical results and discussion

The authors present the sample estimates of the coefficients of equations (3)–(5) and other statistics indicating the adequacy of the models in Appendix 4. For all models, the homoscedasticity of the residuals was checked using the Breusch–Pagan test, and where the null hypothesis was rejected at the 5% level of significance, robust standard errors were estimated. The variance inflation factors (VIFs), known as measures of multicollinearity, remained below the critical threshold of 10 (Alin, 2010), the models were significant based on F-tests, and based on graphical inspection of the residuals, no trends were found and their distribution was approximately normal (Appendix 4).

The models have an explanatory power (R^2) of 36.9% for the physical experience dimension, 45.6% for the technological dimension, and 65.9% for the cultural dimension.

Among the elements of Quinn's organizational culture typology, clan and adhocracy have a significant positive effect on all EX dimensions, while an increase in the perceived level of hierarchical culture has a significant effect only on the technological EX dimension, and market culture has a significant effect only on the cultural EX dimension. Due to the presence of interaction effects, these results are only applicable to the private sector. In order to determine the cultural influences in the public and non-profit sectors and examine their significance, it was necessary to quantify the effect of the perceived value of each culture type on all levels of the variables exerting a moderating effect in this case, and to assess their significance in the non-profit and public sectors (Brambor et al., 2006).

In order to obtain the impact of each organizational culture type on EX for each investigated sector, it is necessary to sum the coefficients for each EX dimension, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Terms expressing the marginal effect of each culture type in the sectors examined, expressed using the notation of equations (3)-(5)

	Private sector	Non-profit sector	Public sector
Clan	β_1	$\beta_1 + \beta_7$	$\beta_1 + \beta_8$
Adhocracy	β_2	$\beta_2 + \beta_9$	$\beta_2 + \beta_{10}$
Hierarchy	β_3	$\beta_3 + \beta_{11}$	$\beta_3 + \beta_{12}$
Market	β_4	$\beta_4 + \beta_{13}$	$\beta_4 + \beta_{14}$

Source: own compilation, 2026

To test the significance of these effects, the standard errors (SE) of the relevant linear combinations (Table 1) must be calculated. For example, for the impact of clan culture in the non-profit sector, the standard error can be obtained as follows:

$$SE(\beta_1 + \beta_7) = \sqrt{Var(\beta_1 + \beta_7)} = \sqrt{Var(\beta_1) + Var(\beta_7) + 2 * Cov(\beta_1; \beta_7)} \quad (6)$$

This can be calculated analogously to equation (6) for all other combinations of culture types and sectors.

The significance of the sector dummy variables for the public and non-profit sectors shows that if the value of all principal component scores is zero (i.e. the perceived value of the organizational culture types is average), then

- there is no difference in the level of the physical EX dimension between the three sectors examined – this is not in line with the findings of Aeschbacher and Addor (2018), who reported much higher flexibility in the non-profit sector in terms of working hours,
- in the case of the technological EX dimension, a significantly lower value can be expected in the public sector (in line with the findings of Jong and Ganzaroli (2023)), while in the non-profit sector there is no difference compared to the private sector,
- however, the perceived value of the cultural EX dimension is significantly lower in the non-profit sector than in the private sector, while the public sector does not differ from the private sector in this respect. The latter is not necessarily consistent with the findings of Aeschbacher and Addor (2018) regarding the advancement opportunities associated with the cultural EX dimension.

Based on the above, differences between sectors remain in the technological and cultural EX dimensions even when the perceived organizational culture profile is held constant at the average level, that is, when all principal component scores are equal to 0.

Tables 2-4 below show the marginal effects of organizational culture on each EX dimension in each investigated sector.

Table 2. Marginal effects of each culture type on the physical EX dimension in the investigated sectors (p-values are shown in brackets)

Physical	Private sector	Public sector	Non-profit sector
Clan	0.297 (<0.001)	0.038 (0.848)	-0.019 (0.953)
Adhocracy	0.329 (<0.001)	0.392 (0.032)	0.476 (0.204)
Hierarchy	-0.063 (0.266)	-0.028 (0.83)	-0.129 (0.625)
Market	0.089 (0.167)	0.042 (0.749)	0.266 (0.509)

Source: own compilation based on calculations performed in R and SPSS, 2026

It can be observed that the significant effect of clan culture in the private sector shown in Table 2 does not apply in the other two sectors, and that the positive effect of adhocracy culture is only present in the public sector and does not prevail in the non-profit sector. The impact of hierarchy and market culture on the physical EX dimension is not significant in the public and non-profit sectors either.

Table 3. Marginal effects of each culture type on the technological EX dimension in the investigated sectors (p-values are shown in brackets)

Technological	Private sector	Public sector	Non-profit sector
Clan	0.352 (<0.001)	0.585 (0.002)	-0.283 (0.342)
Adhocracy	0.216 (0.006)	0.163 (0.336)	0.157 (0.651)
Hierarchy	0.131 (0.013)	-0.218 (0.072)	0.446 (0.068)
Market	-0.023 (0.702)	0.144 (0.234)	0.608 (0.105)

Source: own compilation based on calculations performed in R and SPSS, 2026

Based on Table 3, the positive effect of clan, adhocracy and hierarchy cultures in the private sector on the technological EX dimension is typically not present in the other two sectors due to their moderating effects; only the effect of clan culture can be considered significant at the 5% level of significance in the public sector. The originally insignificant impact of market culture has strengthened somewhat but is still insignificant in the other two sectors, which is due to the fact that these effects were estimated with large standard errors due to the small sample size (especially in the non-profit sector). It is noteworthy that the positive effect of hierarchical culture in the private sector becomes negative in the public sector at the 10% level of significance, i.e. the effect is reversed.

Table 4. Marginal effects of each culture type on the cultural EX dimension in the investigated sectors (p-values are shown in brackets)

Cultural	Private sector	Public sector	Non-profit sector
Clan	0.582 (<0.001)	0.594 (<0.001)	0.687 (0.003)
Adhocracy	0.137 (0.039)	0.286 (0.029)	0.331 (0.226)
Hierarchy	0.01 (0.82)	0.012 (0.899)	0.196 (0.311)
Market	0.131 (0.015)	-0.095 (0.283)	0.259 (0.378)

Source: own compilation based on calculations performed in R and SPSS, 2026

Based on Table 4, in the case of the cultural EX dimension, the significant positive effect of clan culture is evident in all three sectors, while hierarchical culture has no significant effect on the cultural EX dimension in any sector. The positive effect of the perceived value of adhocracy culture is present in the public and private sectors, but is not significant in the non-profit sector. The significant positive effect of market culture can only be observed in the private sector, but not in the other two sectors.

Based on the findings of Tables 2, 3, and 4, the perceived adhocracy culture has the most positive impact on the physical EX dimension in both the private and public sectors, while none of the culture types are significant in the non-profit sector. In the private sector, clan culture also has a significant positive impact on all dimensions of EX. In the case of the technological EX dimension, the strongest positive impact is exerted by the perceived clan culture value in both the private and public sectors. In the private sector, the perceived value of adhocracy and hierarchical cultures also proved to be significant, with their impact decreasing in that order. In the public sector, the impact of hierarchical culture can be considered significant at a less stringent 10% level of significance, and its impact is negative, indicating

that hierarchical culture plays a fundamentally different role in shaping EX in the private and public sectors. In the non-profit sector, only the perceived value of hierarchical culture has a significant impact on the technological EX dimension, which, as in the private sector, is positive. In the case of the cultural EX dimension, clan culture has the strongest impact in all three sectors, which is positive everywhere. The second strongest influence is exerted by the perceived adhocracy culture, which is statistically significant in the private and public sectors, but not in the non-profit sector. Hierarchical culture has no significant influence in any sector, while market culture is significant only in the private sector.

Based on the results of the research, it can be concluded that the perceived types of organizational culture influence the individual dimensions of EX differently across sectors and to varying degrees (Figure 1).

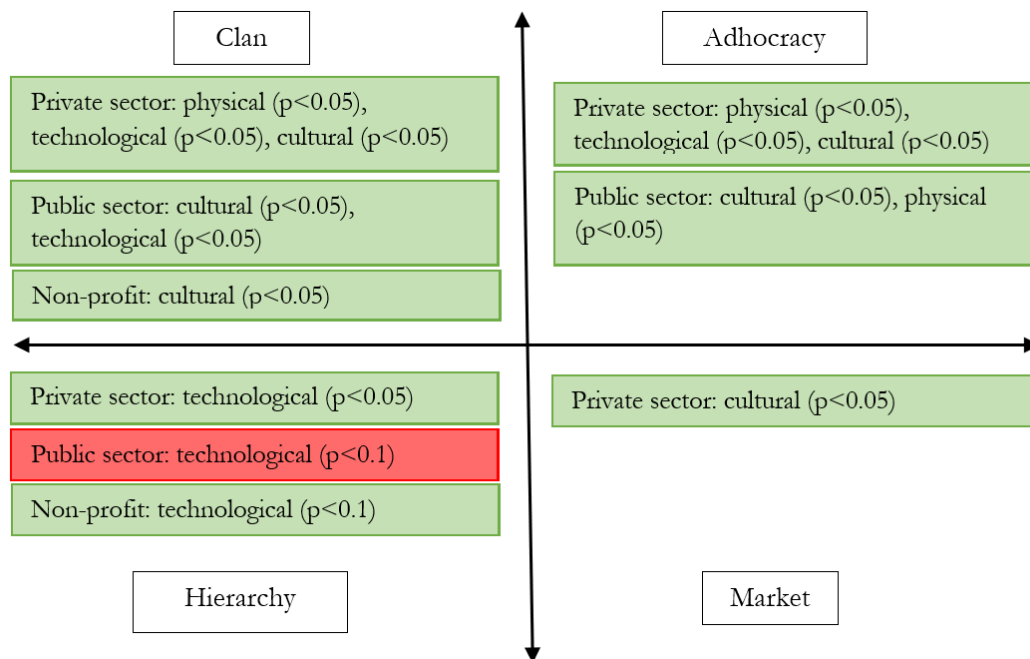


Figure 1. The impact of perceived organizational culture on the dimensions of employee experience in private, public, and non-profit sector enterprises

Note: Only significant relationships are shown in the figure; the direction of the relationships is indicated by colour, with green representing positive relationships and red representing negative relationships.

In private sector companies, the perceived adhocracy and clan culture affects all three dimensions of EX at the 5% level of significance. The perceived market culture has a less strong but still significant ($p < 0.05$) impact on the cultural dimension, while the perceived hierarchy culture has a significant impact on the technological dimension. In public sector enterprises, the perceived clan and adhocracy cultures are also decisive in terms of EX: the former affects the cultural and technological dimensions, while the latter affects the cultural and physical dimensions ($p < 0.05$). At a 10% level of significance, hierarchical organizational culture has a negative impact on the technological dimension of EX. In non-profit sector enterprises, only the perceived clan culture has a positive effect on EX, strengthening the cultural EX dimension. The characteristics of hierarchical culture strengthen the technological dimension of EX ($p < 0.1$).

The results of the research demonstrate that the impact of different organizational cultures on the dimensions of employee experience varies across sectors, and that the role of hierarchical culture in influencing the technological experience dimension differs significantly between sectors. Organizations therefore need to develop sector-specific strategies to improve

EX. Effective internal communication and systematic employee feedback are central to aligning managerial practice with workforce expectations, supporting the recommendation that sector-specific EX strategies should institutionalise feedback loops rather than rely on one-off interventions (Nwabueze & Mileski, 2018). Factor analyses of organisational effectiveness likewise place human resource management among the core dimensions driving performance, supporting the managerial conclusion that EX improvement should be embedded in the organisation's broader effectiveness agenda rather than treated as a standalone programme (Alghaffari et al., 2018). Comparative evidence on leadership styles indicates that vision-setting and employee empowerment foster trust and long-term commitment, whereas purely transactional reward systems may inhibit creativity and engagement – a distinction especially pertinent for public-sector institutions constrained by procedural norms (Maama, 2024).

Companies in the private sector have considerable scope for improving the employee experience:

- introducing innovation programmes (adhocracy culture): supporting the development and experimentation of new ideas through internal innovation competitions, hackathons or idea contests;
- community-building initiatives (clan culture): team-building events, mentoring programmes and internal community platforms;
- developing a flexible set of technological tools (support instead of hierarchical control)
 - reducing rigid technological requirements and ensuring a customisable working environment;
- market-oriented feedback systems (market culture): customer- and performance-oriented feedback that can indirectly strengthen culture;
- physical workspace innovation (adhocracy and technology): creating a flexible and inspiring work environment (e.g. creative spaces, community zones equipped with digital tools) that promotes collaboration.

It is most appropriate for public sector enterprises to strengthen the characteristics of clan and adhocracy cultures and to weaken the negative effects of hierarchy:

- encouraging internal knowledge sharing (clan culture): creating internal professional communities where colleagues can share their experiences and best practices (enhancing technological and cultural experience);
- project-based work organization (strengthening adhocracy): forming temporary, interdisciplinary teams for specific tasks, thereby also enhancing physical and cultural experience;
- digital skills development (mitigating the negative effects of hierarchy): organising training courses that reduce the technological barriers of hierarchical systems and improve employees' digital competences;
- improving the working environment (strengthening adhocracy): flexible working hours, the option to work from home, creating a modern physical environment.

Based on the results, there is little room for manoeuvre in the non-profit sector to influence cultural factors, so in their case it is worth striving to strengthen clan culture:

- personal relationships and community building (clan culture): strengthening the cultural experience through team spirit, emphasising shared values and regular informal events;
- value-based internal communication: continuous internal communication that reinforces the organization's mission and increases employee commitment (cultural experience).

Conclusion

In this study, the authors sought to identify the relationship between perceived organizational culture and dimensions of EX in the private, public, and non-profit sectors. To examine this, principal components were created from the responses to questionnaire items on organizational culture types and dimensions of EX, which were then included in the linear regression model as outcome variables (for EX dimensions) and explanatory variables (for organizational culture types). These analyses demonstrate that there is a significant relationship between the dimensions of EX and the perceived organizational culture types in companies in each sector, which is consistent with the findings of Yadav & Vihari (2023), Lee & Kim (2023), and Yildiz et al. (2020). Given that the authors used standardized variables in their analysis, the effect sizes obtained are directly comparable between the individual cultural factors and the sectors examined.

Based on the results, it can be said that organizations need to be aware that cultural factors influence EX differently across sectors and dimensions. Employee satisfaction and experience can be enhanced by targeting the development of specific cultural elements and adjusting organizational strategies accordingly. Strengthening clan and adhocracy cultures plays a particularly important role in the private and public sectors, while other motivational factors may come to the fore in the non-profit sector. In addition, the results showed that, given a particular organizational culture profile, the value of the technological experience dimension is significantly lower in the public sector compared to the private sector, while in the non-profit sector, the same applies to the cultural experience dimension compared to the private sector.

However, when interpreting the results and determining their practical implications, it is important to note that the measurement instrument used captures perceived organizational culture rather than actual organizational culture. Furthermore, the units of analysis were not companies but employees, who may represent different organizations within the sample and whose assessments are subjective in relation to their current situation. In addition, the relative simplicity of the approaches used and the small sample size in the non-profit subsample should be considered.

Nevertheless, knowledge of the relationship between organizational culture and EX can be valuable for organizations seeking to change their organizational culture, as the results can be used to estimate the potential impact of strengthening or weakening specific cultural traits on EX.

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Appendix 1

Key characteristics of the sample

Employee side	Employer side
Distribution by educational attainment	Distribution by sector of business
476 persons have higher education qualifications (67.23%)	518 private sector (73.16%)
228 persons have secondary education (32.20%)	127 public sector (17.93%)
	28 non-profit (3.95%)
Distribution by work experience	Distribution by company size
322 persons with more than 15 years (45.8%)	346 large enterprises (48.87%)
247 persons 6-15 years (34.88%)	270 medium-sized enterprises (38.14%)
91 employees 3-6 years (12.85%)	69 micro-enterprises (9.74%)
48 people 0-3 years (6.77%)	
Distribution by current position	Distribution by main activity
378 white-collar workers (53.38%)	351 businesses in industry (49.57%)
104 middle managers (14.68%)	316 service companies (44.63%)
78 manual workers (11.01%)	19 agricultural companies (2.68%)
76 lower managers (10.73%)	
45 senior managers (6.35%)	
19 owners (2.68%)	
Distribution by type of employment	Distribution by degree of home office (HO)
651 persons employed full-time (91.94%)	486 businesses have no HO (68.64%)
42 part-time employees (5.93%)	179 enterprises have partial HO (25.28%)
11 persons employed on a contract basis (1.55%)	40 enterprises have full HO (5.64%)

Source: Authors' results

Note: in certain cells, the values do not add up to 708 or 100%, which is due to the 'I do not wish to answer' options

Appendix 2

$$\text{Non – profit} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the respondent works in the non – profit sector} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Public} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the respondent works in the public sector} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Appendix 3

Physical environment

$$\begin{aligned} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Clan} + \beta_2 \text{Adhocracy} + \beta_3 \text{Hierarchy} + \beta_4 \text{Market} \\ &+ \beta_5 \text{Non-profit} + \beta_6 \text{Public} + \beta_7 (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Clan}) \\ &+ \beta_8 (\text{Public} * \text{Clan}) + \beta_9 (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Adhocracy}) \\ &+ \beta_{10} (\text{Public} * \text{Adhocracy}) + \beta_{11} (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Hierarchy}) \\ &+ \beta_{12} (\text{Public} * \text{Hierarchy}) + \beta_{13} (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Market}) \\ &+ \beta_{14} (\text{Public} * \text{Market}) + \varepsilon \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Technological environment

$$\begin{aligned} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Clan} + \beta_2 \text{Adhocracy} + \beta_3 \text{Hierarchy} + \beta_4 \text{Market} \\ &+ \beta_5 \text{Non-profit} + \beta_6 \text{Public} + \beta_7 (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Clan}) \\ &+ \beta_8 (\text{Public} * \text{Clan}) + \beta_9 (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Adhocracy}) \\ &+ \beta_{10} (\text{Public} * \text{Adhocracy}) + \beta_{11} (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Hierarchy}) \\ &+ \beta_{12} (\text{Public} * \text{Hierarchy}) + \beta_{13} (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Market}) \\ &+ \beta_{14} (\text{Public} * \text{Market}) + \varepsilon \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Cultural environment

$$\begin{aligned} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Clan} + \beta_2 \text{Adhocracy} + \beta_3 \text{Hierarchy} + \beta_4 \text{Market} \\ &+ \beta_5 \text{Non-profit} + \beta_6 \text{Public} + \beta_7 (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Clan}) \\ &+ \beta_8 (\text{Public} * \text{Clan}) + \beta_9 (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Adhocracy}) \\ &+ \beta_{10} (\text{Public} * \text{Adhocracy}) + \beta_{11} (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Hierarchy}) \\ &+ \beta_{12} (\text{Public} * \text{Hierarchy}) + \beta_{13} (\text{Non-profit} * \text{Market}) \\ &+ \beta_{14} (\text{Public} * \text{Market}) + \varepsilon \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Appendix 4

OLS estimates of the coefficients of equations (3)-(5) and the results of the related goodness-of-fit and model diagnostic tests

Outcome variables Explanatory variables	Physical		Technological		Cultural	
	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value	Coefficient	p-value
Intercept	0.040	0.274	0.076	0.024	0.013	0.639
Clan	0.297	<0.001	0.352	<0.001	0.582	<0.001
Adhocracy	0.329	<0.001	0.216	0.006	0.137	0.039
Hierarchy	-0.063	0.266	0.131	0.013	0.010	0.820
Market	0.089	0.167	-0.023	0.702	0.131	0.015
Public sector	-0.161	0.100	-0.231	0.011	-0.089	0.197
Non-profit	-0.228	0.251	-0.116	0.530	-0.322	0.013
Clan*Public	-0.259	0.221	0.233	0.235	0.012	0.936
Clan*Non-profit	-0.316	0.336	-0.635	0.038	0.105	0.647
Adhocracy*Public	0.063	0.754	-0.053	0.778	0.149	0.259
Adhocracy*Non-profit	0.147	0.702	-0.059	0.869	0.194	0.439
Hierarchy*Public	0.035	0.806	-0.349	0.008	0.002	0.983
Hierarchy*Non-profit	-0.066	0.806	0.315	0.209	0.186	0.326
Market*Public	-0.047	0.748	0.167	0.218	-0.226	0.031
Market*Non-profit	0.177	0.665	0.631	0.097	-0.326	0.128
R-squared	0.369		0.456		0.659	
Significance of F-test	<0.001		<0.001		<0.001	
Maximum VIF	9.25		9.25		9.25	
Significance of Breusch-Pagan test	0.809		0.074		0.004	

Source: own compilation based on calculations performed in R and SPSS, 2026