



ORGANIZATION CULTURE AS AN ANTECEDENT OF EMPLOYER BRANDING IN PHARMACEUTICAL SECTOR

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Abstract

Many organizations are competing in the talent economy knowing that people are a company's biggest asset and create the basis for competitive advantage. While it is important to source and attract candidates with specialized knowledge and skills, to retain outstanding individuals the trick is to align employees to your organization's culture. Many are well versed in the concept of Employer Branding being critical to attracting unique talent to a business by projecting an Employer Value Proposition (EVP) of what it's like to work there. In recent times, several gaps have become apparent with Employer Branding, which points to the challenge of 'being authentic. The "Holy Grail" of employer branding is the ability for leaders to transform the company's culture to align with the identity, image and perception that they want stakeholders to have about their organization as an employer of choice. Focusing on culture and how that brand is represented in the marketplace has a critical impact on attracting and retaining the talent that will drive business success. These create one of the major challenges for the Human resource manager, as now the employee has become an investigative journalist himself/herself. Employer branding is the process to communicate an organization's culture as a company in the marketplace. An employer brand is the sum of all the characteristics and distinguishable features that prospective candidates and current employees perceive about an organization's employment experience. The employment experience serves as the foundation of the employer brand and includes tangible features such as salary, rewards and benefits, but also extends to intangibles such as an organization's culture, values, management style and opportunities for employee learning, development and recognition (Newell & Dopson, 1996 Hendry & Jenkins, 1997). A successful employer branding strategy can have a far-reaching impact on increasing the number and quality of applicants.

The paper looks at organizational culture and its tendencies to contribute in employer branding in creating a highly efficient implementation of creative and productive human potential to improve the efficiency of the company.

I will be using the OCAI Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) instrument to understand the culture its impact on employee branding in the pharmaceutical sector. Pharmaceutical sectors knowledge-based workers who are mainly recruited based on their KSA. The employee branding can act as antecedent by the support of organization culture. I will be using correlations to look at culture as the antecedent for employer brand. Data will be collected from 200 employees from 4 pharmaceuticals firms in Gujarat using validated instruments on OCAI and Employee brand. Correlations will be able to point out whether adhocracy, clan, market-oriented culture is a better promoting culture for employer brand.

Introduction

For more than 80 years now, organizational culture has been a concept widely explored and studied in the field of organizational behavior.

A concern with 'cultural' phenomena in organisations can be found in early critical commentaries on classical organisation theory, as developed and promoted by individuals like the American mechanical engineer, Frederick Taylor, in his book *The Principles of Scientific Management*, published in 1911, and as applied by industrialists like Henry Ford in his development of the moving assembly line in 1913. Many of these studies highlighted a very limited and focussed concern of classical organisation theory with people-related issues in organisations compared to task-related issues. Since 1970s the concept of organisational culture has also been used for various purposes of identifying and promoting best practice in organisations. Its use in this regard is often seen as a consequence of attempts to explain the success of Japanese automotive and electronics manufacturers over their American rivals during the 1970s. The absence of differences between these two divergent firms in their technology and structural features led to massive speculation over the observed performance differential which may have resulted as a result of diversity in the national cultures of these two countries.

This led to a understanding that within the same geographical context, i.e. within the same country there could be cultural differences between organizations and these differences could be because of performance requirements, standards, values and ethos. The most common and famous usage of this term occurred after the publication of this term in 1982 where Peters and Waterman's book *In Search of Excellence*. The book attempts to identify key attributes that the highly successful organizational cultures adopt in the United States. The central theme of their work culture clearly was attributed to successful performance within the organization. However, the entire work (e.g., by Carroll, 1983) on creating a causal relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance (e.g., Hitt & Ireland, 1987) has received a lot of criticism.



Despite these criticisms, the culture continued to be a widely used term for describing differences between organizations, especially for explaining hindrances in implementing the major changes that organizations required back in 1970s due to technology and globalization.

Literature review

As the term organisational culture became more established in its use — whether for theoretical or practical purposes — a number of challenges associated with the conceptualization and measurement of the construct began to be revealed. Since the early use of the term ‘organisation culture’ by writers such as Jacques (1951) and Selznick (1957), there have been a number of further attempts to define organisational culture, both in non-technical terms that can be readily understood by a layperson and in more technical terms that seek to describe more precisely the scope and limits of the concept. An example of a more informal and more easily understood definition of organizational culture is that it is “the way we do things around here” (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Similarly, organisational culture has been equated to the personality of an organisation, such that: “Culture is as strong an attribute to the organisation, as personality is to the individual, thus emphasizing that culture is indeed a hidden, yet unifying theme that provides meaning, direction, and mobilisation” (Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1985, cited in Ott, 1989, p. 1). More technical definitions have attempted to specify key aspects of the concept, including the mechanism by which it develops. One of the most widely accepted and most comprehensive definitions has been provided by Edgar Schein who argues that organisational culture is:

...a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 2010, p. 18).

This definition draws one’s attention to a number of key characteristics of organisational culture that have been accepted by many, if not all, researchers in the field. These include: the notion that organisational culture develops over time; that it is based on practical experience in adapting to the environment; that it is shared by the members of an organisation and influences how they think and feel; and that it is maintained by a process of socialisation.

Schein’s concept of organisational culture was influenced by the work of anthropologists, and in particular, the work of Florence Kluckhohn and Fred Strodtbeck and their belief that a culture could be characterised by the orientation of its values to five fundamental aspects of human life: the nature of human nature; the relationship between man and nature; time orientation (past, present, future); the nature of human activity; and social relations (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). This anthropological view depicts organisational culture as a deeply embedded phenomenon, pervasive in its influence, and not easily changed.

Organizational Climate

Organizational culture studies have been preceded by abundant research in organizational climate for more than twenty years. While the major introduction of the climate concept into the organizational sciences was in the early 60’s, culture as a concept did not gain prominence until the early 80’s (Reicher & Schneider, 1990). One can easily find an affinity between these two concepts in literature. For example, as noted by Reichers and Schneider (1990), Argyris (1958) used the term climate interchangeably with the term informal culture in his study of the organizational climate of a bank. Katz and Kahn (1966) also used the terms Climate and culture interchangeably in their explication of the concept of organizational Climate as a major component of an organization’s social system. In fact, the conceptual treatment of organizational climate offered by these authors bears a number of striking similarities with conceptual treatments of the more recent organizational culture concept. For example, Katz and Kahn describe climate as being made up of norms and values; they suggest that organizations develop distinctive climates that differentiate them from one another; and they propose that an organization’s climate is shaped by the organization’s history. With respect to this last point, it is argued that, like societies, social organizations too can be seen to possess “distinctive patterns of collective feeling and beliefs [that are] passed along to new group members” (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p. 66).

It is surprising to find out that even though there are early indications of a link with between both organizational climate as well as culture, there is no overlap of one over the other in any literature that associates the two. Research into organizational culture has actually been developed separately from organizational climate. Thus, as noted by Schneider (1985), the most significant early writing on organizational Culture — for example, the Administrative Science Quarterly and Organizational Dynamics special issues on organizational culture published in 1983, and Organizational Symbolism, edited by Pondy, Frost, Morgan, and Dandridge and also published in 1983 — contains almost no reference to previous organizational climate research.



Schneider further points out that the two concepts appeared to be “in opposite patterns of descendance and ascendance” (p. 595), with interest in organizational climate being in decline at the time when organizational culture was coming into vogue. It is also worth mentioning that, despite a number of comprehensive attempts to explicate the relationship between the two, (e.g., Denison, 1990, 1996; Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Schneider, 1985, 2000; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011), research into organizational culture has continued to develop as a separate field way apart from any real connection with climate research and history (Reichers & Schneider, 1990, pp. 29–30). In certain other texts organizational culture, the concept of organizational climate has received only the brief acknowledgement. However, it is apparent to see that despite the presence of arguable sources, one might still expect readers to consult for some clarification of the climate-culture relationship. For example, in his book *The Organizational Culture Perspective*, Ott (1989) devoted two paragraphs only to a discussion of organizational climate. He concluded by suggesting that organizational climate can be thought of as “an amalgamation of feeling tones, or a transient organizational mood” (p. 47), and argued that, while the two are related, they are not an element of organizational culture. Climate is the relatively enduring quality of the total environment that (a) is experienced by the occupants, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the environment (Tagiuri, 1968, p. 25). Thus one can define climate as a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced as well as inferred from the way that the organization deals with its members and its environment.

For an employee in the organization, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectancies which elicit the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behavior-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970, p. 390). Climate perceptions are psychologically meaningful descriptions that people can agree and associate with as a set of practices and procedures. By its practices and procedures a system or an organization may create many climates. People perceive climates because the molar perceptions function as frames of reference for the attainment of some congruity between behavior and the system’s practices and procedures. However, if the climate is one which rewards and supports the display of individual differences, people in the system will not behave similarly (Schneider, 1975, p. 474). And that is why organizations now seek the right set of culture as well as climate to create an image that strengthens the systems, its practices as well the individual’s morale to work in the organization. The need for corporate branding has become more crucial for many U.S. companies in recent years. Gregory (1997) stated that corporate branding is “a more inclusive and more focused concept than either corporate identity or image” (p. 9). Branding is designed to establish a strong position in markets through various techniques. It identifies the position, image, values, fondness, and character of a product or company (Burnett & Moriarty, 1998). Although product branding is still important, corporate branding has risen as one of the major forces in corporate communication activities (Gregory, 1997). Gregory reasoned that it is “difficult for many consumers to separate corporate and product brands in their minds when making purchase decisions” (p. 12). By linking cooperate names with favorable attributes, cooperate branding can build a special relationship that would bring good effects to the companies and their products or services. Gregory (1997) stated that the heart of corporate branding is “a purposeful, market-oriented communications platform across all business units, product and service brands, media and audiences” (p. 10). The range of corporate branding consists of every corporate communication activity, including investor relations, public relations, brand advertising, sales and distribution communications, employee communications, corporate Identity, and corporate advertising. Organizational brands create meaning within the circuit of corporate culture, image culture, and identity culture. When the marketplace environment shifts, organizations may adapt to change by revisiting their brand stories as meaning-making devices that congeal corporate, image, and identity culture. Organizations seeking to sustain a competitive advantage may elect to revitalize their core identity and recast their brands into the marketplace. To successfully recast their brands, organizations must align brand values with those of employees by embarking on internal branding initiatives.

While internal branding is imperative for organizations seeking to align their organizational identity with its projected image, a strategy built from organizational narrative rather than behavioral or contextual factors will ground the internal branding efforts into a values and purpose-specific outline. According to Patrick Harris, internal branding is most effective when focused on situational contexts rather than organizational content (104). Contextual internal branding emphasizes the importance of employee behavior during customer interaction and therefore suggests that content-related considerations – brand essence, identity, and story – are secondary to promoting a brand. In contextual branding, although organizational identity is a helpful tool for brand managers, it is not as useful for organizational employees who interact with customers on a daily basis (Harris; Henkel, Tomczack, Heitmann, and Herrmann). Harris rationalizes that because a workforce is a collection of people, the organizational identity “does not adequately speak to each as an individual” (104).

Internal branding and organizational culture concerns for the individual during internal branding are legitimated by the everchanging environments of the organization. As described in Chapter Two, individuals often fear and resist shifts in structure, personnel, and protocol that affect their day-to-day activities. Repeated loss of a trusted leader can result in the loss



of a brand identity, as leadership is essential to the internal branding process. Managers who are appointed from outside of the organization or the department may attempt to establish new internal branding directives. According to Patrick Harris, employees take organizational shifts personally and when a new CEO arrives with a new focus, they are asked to buy-in once again to the new brand ideas. From the behaviorist perspective, “buy-in” is a flawed concept that “suggests 100 percent effectiveness in the communication of an idea, 100 percent belief in the listener and 100 percent effectiveness enacting it” (Harris 105). Contextual branding scholars therefore encourage building momentum among employees to receive, interpret, and display the brand message. According to Patrick Harris, momentum invites participation and encourages employees to interact with their position. Employee buy-in is not an imposed directive from the top of the hierarchy. Once organizational members receive the brand message, they are free to apply it to their personal situations and demonstrate the brand’s characteristics in their work. This result models the cognitive approach to identification described in earlier sections by Jane E. Dutton, Janet M. Dukerich, and Celia V. Harquil as “the degree to which a member defines himself by the same attributes that he believes define the organization” (240). Facilitating brand momentum may achieve desired organizational employee behavior through several guiding principles. Flexible in nature, these guiding principles do not serve as rules but are “a small collection of memorable expressions of behavior that must be present in order to fulfill strategic and brand aims” (Harris 105). Guiding principles remain stable in times of environmental changes and nurture a desired culture.

An example of a guiding principle is “Everything in moderation, nothing in excess” (Harris 105). While this phrase may be interpreted differently by various organizational departments, its over-arching ethos is internalized by organizational members and demonstrated through their work. Communicated in a straightforward manner, guiding principles pronounce a desired universal behavior that can be understood in a variety of ways depending on the employee’s role. Reflecting on the guiding principles, employees garner a sense of the brand’s aim and their behaviors are channeled to promote the brand through their daily work. Employer Branding over the past few years, the concept of employment branding has entered into the lexicon of HR specialists and particularly consultants, with firms such as Versant in the US, People in Business and Interbrand in the UK offering specialist employer branding advice on how to engage employee loyalty and build organizational commitment. Perhaps the most complete study to-date of employer branding is the US Conference Board’s work (Dell and Ainspan, 2001), which surveyed and undertook follow-up interviews with executives in 137 major US companies. This study found that employees were becoming a much more important target for corporate image makers, although they did not necessarily use the term ‘employment branding’. 40% of respondents reported using the methods of corporate branding in their attempts to attract, retain and motivate employees. Other evidence has reported a fast growing interest among European companies, such as Philips and Deutschebank, in the idea of employer branding (Anon, 2001). Such an interest is closely associated with the concept of brand risk, which results from investors perceiving a threat to their brand. It has been strongly contended that it is poor employee performance that can be most damaging to a brand image and reputation (McEwan and Buckingham, 2001). It is due to this requirement for a consistent internal message that IHRM in particular has begun to redefine its role in an increasingly globalized market setting.

A prerequisite for corporate success on a global scale is the ability to create an identity that cuts through national boundaries and resonates with local cultures. IHRM occupies a key strategic and political position in reconciling the potential tension between these two facets through its ability to act as a cohesive force and conduit for communication within the organization. The growing significance of concepts such as ‘employer branding’ within corporate strategic thinking provides the international HR function with a means of coordinating its processes on a global scale around this as one of several unifying themes. (Sparrow et al., 2004). Connected with this idea of ‘employer branding’ is the associated practice of ‘talent management’ which grew out of the necessity to secure and retain talented staff in the heat of boom-time late 1990’s America and is documented in an extensive report entitled *The War For Talent* (Michaels et al., 1997). Further studies found that the differentiating factor between top and mediocre performing firms was the priority placed on individual talent and the fostering of such talent by organizational leaders (Joyce et al., 2003). The economic and organizational advantages of successful talent management are substantial and considered critical in the context of international businesses. IHR professionals can act as a significant coordinating force in this area also, contributing a wealth of knowledge and expertise to global leadership.

Research Methodology

Author has used a shorter version of CVF (Competing value framework) questionnaire to 160 members (sample) to whom it was declared that their organization has acquired an organization of almost equal size. The use of CVF was just to map these individual’s understanding of culture for the event (acquisition in this case) and what implications does it have for their respective department. The questionnaire was given. The members belonged to different functions as sales, treasury, research, Human resource management, and financial operation department, Research and development, marketing. In total, they belonged to 10 departments Further, CVF mapped the analysis.



CVF (Competing Value Framework)

The CVF (Competing Value framework) is been widely used in business organizations studies and research to evaluate their culture, being an indicator of such outcomes like improvement, team synergy team cohesiveness and employee satisfaction. It is one of the most modern and conceptual frameworks developed in the early 1980s, to look at the main dimensions of active organizations. It was developed in need to identify and improve organization effectiveness and its leaders and also promote value creation.

It is an amalgamation of organizational theories which characterize organization in two dimensions

1. Flexibility – Stability and control
2. Internal environment and external environment each representing alternative approach to primary challenges that one needs to take care of in order to function.

The first dimension of CVF is the degree to which any organization will look at decentralization and flexibility versus centralization and control over organizational processes. The second dimension of CVF is the degree to which the organization is oriented towards the external environment and relationships with outside stakeholders, such as regulators, suppliers, competitors, partners and customers, versus its internal environment and processes. A classification based on these two parameters leads to four archetypes hierarchical, rational, entrepreneurial, and team oriented cultures. In the CVF organizations with an internal focus and emphasis on control labeled hierarchical cultures, adopt centralized authority over organizational processes, respect formal hierarchy and adhere to rules. They focus and emphasis on flexibility, labeled team cultures encourages broad participation by employees, emphasize teamwork and empowerment and make human resource growth a priority. Organization with an external focus on emphasis on flexibility labeled entrepreneurial cultures exhibit creativeness and innovativeness, they focus on growth and expanding resources. Finally, organizations with an external focus and an emphasis on control labeled rational cultures are characterized by clarity of tasks and goals. The focus usually is on measurable outcomes.

Rationale for Choosing Pharma Sector

Nearly 1.3 million people work in the pharmaceutical industry and, whether they are with giants like Merck & Co or GlaxoSmithKline, or minnows such as the many biotechnology and genomics firms that are springing up, most people entering the sector have something in common; they want to make a difference, according to a new report, *The Future of Pharma Human Resources*, by consultants Price Waterhouse Cooper. However, it notes, pharmaceutical companies are not philanthropic ventures staffed by saints and, despite any noble intentions, they remain under pressure to satisfy the financial expectations of their shareholders. There is a clear cut focus for understanding organizational culture and there employer brand in pharmaceuticals sector, as there is lack of studies in this area both in literature and Indian context. Secondly workers in pharmaceuticals sectors need to look at long term performance in organizations, where you don't have key response areas for performance immediately but for long term, thus having a multi rater feedback becomes important. Thirdly the performance is mapped in terms of patents, research and research paper in journals, which are both long-term objectives in the organizations realities.

Analysis

The effect of employee commitment on brand-supportive behaviors has already been studied, it remains unclear what drives employees' brand commitment. Employees are regarded as essential building blocks of service quality and a strong brand. As they represent the inter-face between organization's internal and external environment, the alignment of their cognitions, perceptions, and attitudes with the brand becomes a crucial success factor. Moreover, with fiercer competition among organizations, there is a need for a more committed workforce to provide high quality services (Clark et al., 2009). Thus, an increasing amount of attention has been paid to exploring the antecedents of employee brand commitment, which is one of the main drivers of employee brand-building behaviors, authentic brand delivery, and consistent brand image of the organization (Burmam and Zeplin, 2005; Kim and Brymer, 2011; Punjaisri et al., 2009; Xiong et al., 2013). Internal branding, in particular brand-oriented leadership, has been proposed to influence employee brand commitment (Burmam and Zeplin, 2005; Burmam and König, 2011). Thus I am studying how organizations perceive there organization culture

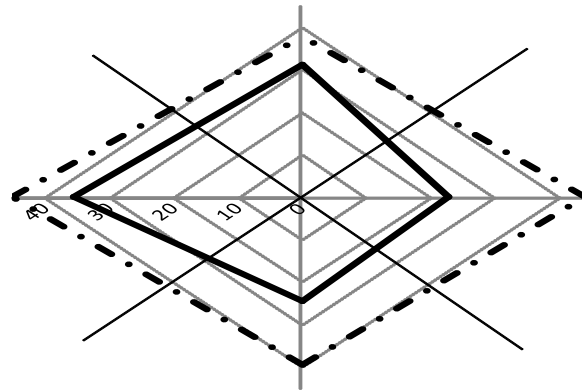


Figure 1. OCAI Diagram R& D department

There is orientation towards more market based and clan based approach, both approaches with reference to future orientation indicates that research and development irrespective of the era is highly dependent on knowledge workers. Pharmaceutical sector has a requirement that R& D departments have project based segmentations. One of the major reasons that project structure is promoted even during the recruitment times rather than hierarchical structure which is considered not the most suitable structure preferred by probable employees, interestingly the clan/team oriented culture should be increased is a clear cut requirement.

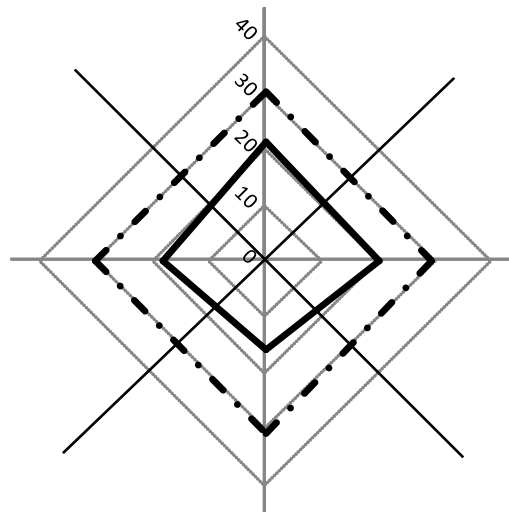


Figure 2 OCAI Diagram Marketing Department

Marketing department has clear cut adhocracy and market oriented orientation currently as well as for the future. Marketing departments are the revenue generators for the organizations, and it is under them that they have to keep the sales force as well. As part of the functions of the marketing and sales department they have to interact not only with doctors but represent the company at various levels of recruitment also, pharmaceutical's sectors have high attrition rate in this segment thus it is imperative to have an employer brand which is market oriented but business driven which is also indicated by the OCAI for future preference.

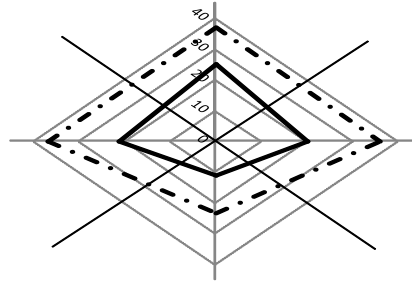


Figure 3 OCAI for Business development/ Industry Information department

In india pharamaceutical sector has to face a huge comeption , keeping in mind indian pharam indsutry is very much dependant on selling of generic drugs rather its R & D. Secondly replication of drugs and also growth in various market segments based on industry information is necessary . Thus business development acts as both as alead generator and also market penetrator, keeping in mind that thisi nformation gets passed on through analysyts and people working on ground hierachial and clan culture is prefeered and also neede to be prmoted. Interestingly the segment of the business also has lot of internal recrutiment happening, a positive image of the department is also necessary for thus the clan culture is preferred and is also promoted for the years to come.

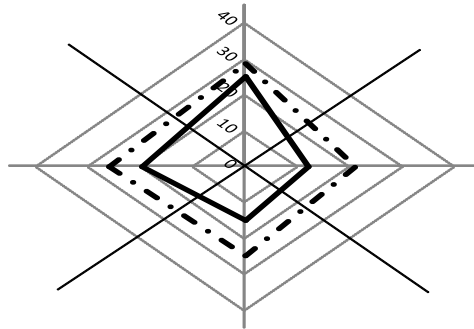


Figure 4 OCAI for Human Resource Department

HR department needs to look at the recruitment procedures and is basically it's the face of employee engagement and employer branding activities for an organization. In pharmaceuticals firms generally the human resource department is also

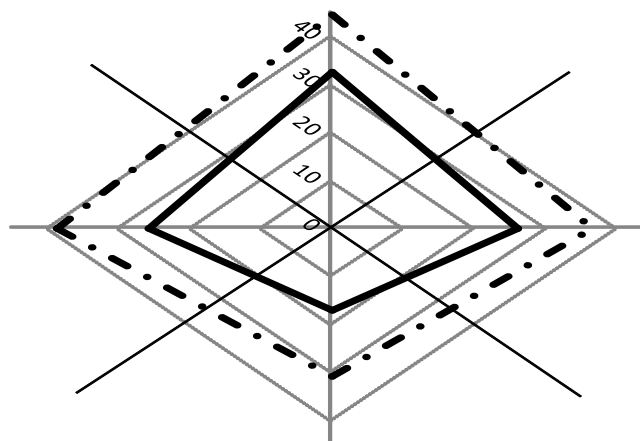


Figure 5OCAI for T&D department

Within a typical analysis-design-develop-implement-evaluate (ADDIE) training model, relationships between organizational culture and each step of the training are conceptually available. Organizational culture shapes, influences, and redefines training programs which, in turn, shape, influence, and redefine organizational culture. Including a culture analysis within program planning will ultimately alleviate many of the problems that may arise during the implementation of a training and development program because of cultural resistance and/or clash of values between culture and training. The design and development stages of a typical training and development program include the creation of a learning environment, ensuring transfer of training, and developing an evaluation plan. The reciprocal influence of this stage of the training program with organizational culture can be seen in several ways. First, creating a learning environment heavily depends on learning objectives, trainees' learning styles and preferences, and levels of trainees' self-direction and collaboration with one another (Sadler-Smith, 1996). The way in which these aspects are measured (modality) and the importance placed on each of them affects the culture of an organization (legitimation) because trainees' interpret (modality) such emphases as what is valued by the organization; thus enforcing (or reinforcing) ways to behave and what to value. Conversely, an organization's culture influences the learning environment because trainees' learning styles, self-direction, and collaboration already collectively represent the organizational culture. If the organization promotes a highly individualistic culture then low collaboration, high self-direction, and "diverger" or "converger" learning styles will most likely be emphasized in the learning environment (Noe, 2008); thus directing the program planner in ways to administer training.

Thus more of an adhocracy culture is preferred for branding the T&D Department and also for the future as well.

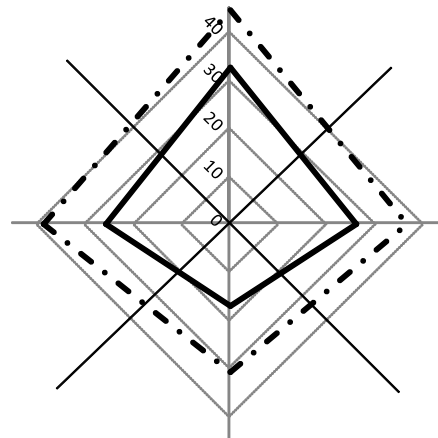


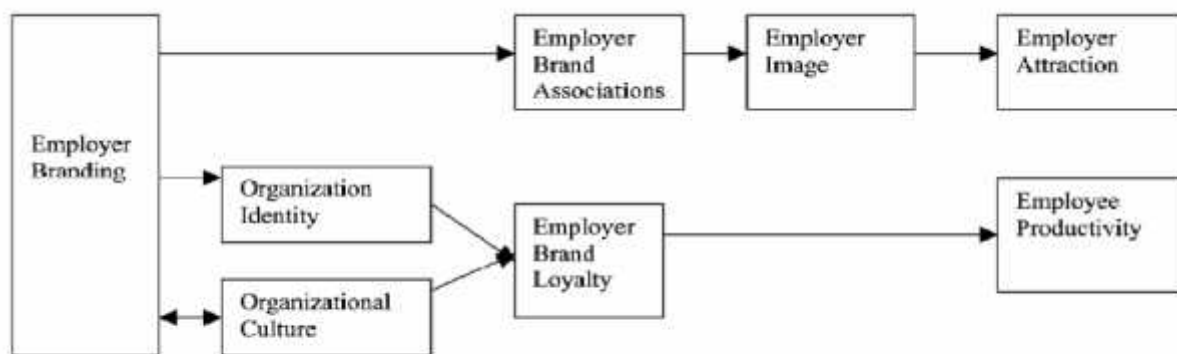
Figure 6 OCAI for CSR Support department

By using a strongly organization-centered view, many business and communication scholars regard CSR as a special corporate program that is carried out in order to deal with different stakeholders. Institutionalism, sensemaking and communication theories, and by using the "translation"-metaphor, we are now able to develop a broader perspective and a model of the institutionalization of concepts such as CSR within corporate communications. This perspective describes major processes of the institutionalization of CSR on the micro-level (actors of organizations), meso-level (corporations, organizations, publics and audiences) and macro-level (environment and institutions) (Figure 1). CSR cannot be seen as a fixed script or tool that might be used by corporations in order to produce fixed effects such as legitimacy. Instead, it represents a dynamic continuum of competing meanings. It is part of public discourses, a construct and "symbolic resource", which is alternately and often competitively used by a variety of players, this gives a clear approach towards market orientation towards both CSR and its orientation. Organizations use CSR as good mechanism to increase the influence of employer brand if employers wish to grow and maintain a sustainable business and a strong employer brand, they will now need to demonstrate more than ever before their commitment to consumers, employees, and its associated stakeholders, not to mention the environment. By showing its commitment to be a company with a strong social commitment is certain to improve its brand reputation both internally and externally. A comprehensive CSR policy can only work if it has the commitment and engagement from its own employees and internal stakeholders. From an external perspective, the integration of CSR into a company's strategy is also an important move to attract the talent the business needs to drive the organization and reap future rewards from the increased productivity these individuals can bring.

Conclusions

The discipline of employer brand management takes a more holistic approach to shaping the culture of the organization, by seeking to ensure that every people management touch-point is aligned with the brand ethos of the organization. In providing a robust mechanism for aligning employees' brand experience with the desired customer brand experience, and a common platform for marketing and HR, employer brand management represents a significant evolution in the quest for corporate brand integrity. Brands are among a firm's most valuable assets and as a result brand management is a key activity in many firms. Although firms commonly focus their branding efforts toward developing product and corporate brands, branding can also be used in the area of human resource management. The application of branding principles to human resource management has been termed "employer branding." Increasingly, firms are using employer branding to attract recruits and assure that current employees are engaged in the culture and the strategy of the firm. Firms appear to be expending considerable resources on employer branding campaigns, indicating that they are finding value in the practice. According to the Conference Board report on employer branding (Conference Board, 2001) organizations have found that effective employer branding leads to competitive advantage, helps employees internalize company values and assists in employee retention. The diagram clearly indicates the framework which can be used to relate employer brand and also organization culture. Employer branding is a relatively new approach toward recruiting and retaining the best possible human talent within an employment environment that is becoming increasingly competitive. Employer branding has the potential to be a valuable concept for both managers and scholars. Managers can use employer branding as an umbrella under which they can channel different employee recruitment and retention activities into a coordinated human resource strategy. Integrating recruitment, staffing, training and development and career management activities under one umbrella will have a substantially different effect than each of the processes would have alone.

The value of the employer branding concept for management scholars parallels the value it has for managers. Management scholars can use employer branding to integrate many different but related constructs that have been discussed in the recruiting, selection, and retention literatures under one umbrella. The employer branding concept can be especially valuable in the search for an organizing framework for strategic human resource management. And also OCAI can be significant instrument to measure up employer brand for the future as well.



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