Gender and Diversity Management: Explicit Cultural Values Help to Attract Target Group Members

Katja Mierke, Juliane Rosier, & Joséphine Schoeller

University of Applied Science Fresenius, Cologne

ABSTRACT

The present research aimed to examine the effects of explicit cultural values on employer attractiveness. In Exp.1, male and female participants saw a recruitment brochure promoting either a predominantly feminine or a predominantly masculine corporate culture (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Hofstede, 1980). Adjective ratings indicate that company image was perceived as intended. As expected, female participants showed higher general attractiveness ratings as well as application intentions for the prototypical feminine as compared to the masculine culture, male participants exhibited the opposite pattern. Participants' career-status (student vs. employee) did not affect perceptions of employer attractiveness. In Exp.2, participants either belonging to a minority group (physical disability, migrant family, or other than heterosexual orientation), or not, were presented a vacancy notice promoting a diversity-oriented vs. an achievement-oriented corporate culture. Again, image ratings indicate that the announcements were perceived as intended. Although general attractiveness ratings remained unaffected here, participants belonging to a minority group showed higher application intentions for the diversity-oriented than for the achievement-oriented company, and vice versa for participants not belonging to a minority group. Beyond manipulation check, image ratings show a significantly more positive pattern for the diversity-oriented company regardless of participants' group membership. Implications for value establishment and communication in times of organisational and societal change are discussed.

Key words: employer branding, corporate image, recruiting, personnel marketing, employer attractiveness

1   Introduction

Proceeding demographic change and increasing challenges in all kinds of business sectors and positions have brought about substantial changes in the labor market (Kistler & Hilpert, 2001; Nienaber & Christopher, 2007; Prezewowsky, 2007). High potentials, experts and executives are actively persuaded and headhunted, so that today – and even more so in the future - preference decisions are no longer made by employers, but by candidates (Beck, 2008). Facing these unstoppable developments, organisations are well-advised to take preparatory measures that increase their attractiveness as an employer for qualified specialists and management (Deller, Kern, Hausmann, & Diederichs, 2008; Wilden, Gudergan, & Lings, 2010). These measures should aim at internal and external personnel marketing alike: identification, commitment and work satisfaction of current employees must be strengthened in order to keep fluctuation to a minimum (Haubrock & Öhlschlegel-Haubrock, 2009), while at the same time, junior talents must be actively recruited.

1.1   Employer Attractiveness and Employer Branding

In order to compete successfully in this "war for talent" (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001) and build an attractive workplace culture, classic tools of personnel recruitment such as salary and special offers no longer suffice. Rating institutes like "Great Place to Work", the CRF institute, and others have developed quality seals for employers that go beyond traditional benefit-systems by taking an approach that focusses on interpersonal relationships and values. They assess key determinants of work climate and employee satisfaction and aggregate them into an easy-to-grasp index. For employees, such ranking indices offer helpful orientation in application and career processes. For employers, they can provide a valuable stepping-stone in change management and employer branding processes (Barrow & Mosley, 2006; Gmür & Thommen, 2006; Hauser, 2009).

An employer brand incorporates a particular direction in personnel management and its work-place related realisation (Petkovic, 2008), that is, the development and management of an employer brand aims to establish a positive and attractive image to current and potential future employees (Blum, 2010). Employer image refers to the sum of beliefs applicants hold about the organisation as an employer (Cable & Turban, 2001; Lievens, van Hoye, & Schreurs, 2005). In a frequently cited work, Aaker (1997) has shown that consumers use human traits to describe and characterise brands, and that these do in part match with prominent models of personality, i.e., the Big Five (Costa & McRae, 1992). Moreover, Slaughter, Zickar, Highhouse, and Mohr (2004) report evidence that people ascribe traits to organisations in a very similar way, and that applicants are specifically attracted by organisations that are similar to themselves in terms of these traits. Thus, creating and transporting a clear employer brand is a very successful tool to minimise uncertainty and perceived risk for potential applicants. Wilden et al. (2010)

report evidence from in-depth interviews with job-seekers from diverse countries suggesting that employer brand clarity considerably enhances credibility as well as perceived employer quality, and lowers perceived risk and information costs. Moreover, consistency between brand products and employer brand was regarded as essential for overall trust and disambiguation here.

It is evident that coherence and fit between the many different aspects of human resource management, product and services forms a prerequisite for the establishment of a consistent and credible employer brand, and Wilden et al.'s (2010) results support this claim. However, in their comparatively early work, Gatewood, Gowan, and Lautenschlager (1993) present evidence that overall corporate image and recruitment image do not necessarily correlate, and an applicant's intention to respond to a recruitment advertisement depends on both, though recruitment image explains almost twice as much variance compared to overall corporate image. Nevertheless, corporate image and, more fundamentally, the underlying corporate culture at large do of course provide the superordinate framework for any employer branding process.

1.2   The Key Role of Corporate Culture

Corporate culture can be understood as a pattern of shared fundamental principles a group has learned by coping with problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has proven successful, and that is therefore passed on to new members as a rationally and emotionally correct approach to handle these problems (Schein, 1995). Corporate culture may create social identity, enhance commitment towards the organisation, and serve as a normative standard and general orientation to individual members (cf. Kauffeld, 2011). Schein (1995, 2009) distinguishes between three levels of manifestation that differ in abstraction: First of all, at the level of artifacts (e.g. open vs. closed rooms, furniture, rites, and overall climate), "culture is very clear and has immediate emotional impact. But you don't really know why the members of the organisation are behaving the way they do" (Schein, 2009, p. 22). To find out, one has to go deeper, into the second level of so-called espoused values. Espoused values aim at creating an image and are communicated explicitly, e.g., stated in brochures or other documents elaborating on ethics and integrity, leadership principles, teamwork, customer orientation and the like (Schein, 2009). Finally, the third level of implicit values and fundamental assumptions such as paradigms or an idea of man lies beyond the other two, and is not necessarily consciously accessible even to the members of the organisation itself. In the present work, we focus explicitly stated values and principles as may, for example, be communicated on websites, in all kinds of personnel marketing materials, or in vacancy notices.

Corporate culture is a dynamic result of gravitation processes on the one hand and socialisation processes on the other hand (Nerdinger, Blickle, & Schaper, 2011): Organisations attract new members who perceive a fit between the organisation's and their own value orientation, and these new members in turn actively acquire existing value orientations and behavior patterns. An organisations self-description thus provides a powerful tool to create and manifest an attractive employer image - which is in turn essential to recruitment success (Chapman, Uggerley, Carrol, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Collin & Stevens, 2002). Making use of gravitation processes may be of particular relevance to those organisations pursuing an active gender and diversity management as part of their corporate culture and wishing to specifically attract high potential members of the according target groups.

1.3   Gender and Diversity Management as Special Aspects of Corporate Culture

Demographic change in western societies, as outlined in the introduction, does not only stand for shifts in the age distribution, but further includes significant changes in gender relations and an increase of ethnic diversity in the working population (Schulz, 2009). In Germany, a central political framework for diversity management has been established by the so-called Allgemeines Gleichbehandlungsgesetz (2012; general law of equal treatment), aiming to hinder or eliminate any kind of disadvantage for reasons of race, ethnicity, gender, religion or value orientation, handicap, age, or sexual identity. The Allgemeines Gleichbehandlungsgesetz has largely been inspired by according European antidiscrimination laws (Ellis, 2005), so that similar conditions hold for other European countries. Demographic necessities and the renewal and extension of the legal framework have thus challenged organisations to seriously engage in programs that allow them to actively manage gender and diversity questions. In the following section, we only give a very brief outline of the issue as far as it forms the overall background for the targeted communication strategies to be tested in the studies presented here (for further reading, see for instance, Carr-Ruffino, 2009; Schnier, 2007; Schulz, 2009).

A continuous increase in the percentage of working women and more active male parenthood require more temporal and spatial flexibility (Müller & Sander, 2009), not to speak of equal treatment of men and women as a legal and moral imperative. Companies are required to "consider competences and potentials of men and women to equal extents in the field of corporate vision, structure, leadership culture, personnel development, customer orientation, and work-life-balance" (Jung & Küpper, 2001, p. 15, own translation). Although gender-based discrimination is still a severe issue in many professions and work-places (Müller-Sander, 2009; Peters & Bensel, 2000), members of social minorities are prone to elicit prejudice and open conflict in an even more general way. This is true, for example, for individuals of different ethnicity or religion, other than heterosexual identity, or for handicapped people. Companies must obviously take measures that prevent prejudice and discrimination, and develop sustainable concepts that account for according divergences in teams and other working units (Hecht-El Minshawi & Berninghausen, 2007). These concepts should allow them not only to avoid negative group dynamics, but to take advantage of the high synergy effects diversity bears, as these clearly have strong economic relevance (Elmerich, 2007).

With regards to migrants, for example, multilingualism, intercultural competences, and experience with mobility are strengths that substantially enrich a team's perspectives spectrum (Peter & Bensel, 2000). Moreover, they allow a company to adapt to the needs of international customers and thus really act as a global player. These advantages only emerge given that the respective employees experience that their particular contribution, ideas and potential are valued. In other words, at least in the case of larger organisations, a working environment that not only tolerates, but truly encourages ethnic diversity must be created (Hecht El-Minshawi & Berninghausen, 2007).

Similarly, a company that has established programs on sexual identity can obviously be a more attractive employer for gay, lesbian, bi- or transsexual/transgender employees (Frohn, 2007; Köllen, 2010; Prittwitz-Schlögl, 2012). Frohn's comprehensive survey among N = 2.230 German employees shows that the more explicit diversity management activities are implemented in a large company, the more openly employees handle their sexual identity at the work place. More importantly, in turn, the more open respondents (can) live their sexual identity, the more committed they feel towards the company, which is likely to have substantial impact on work motivation and satisfaction, turnover rates, and the like. Some organisations already have initiated global networks for gay, lesbian, bi- and transsexual/transgender members, thus making it a permanent part of their corporate culture. The Deutsche Bank's Rainbow Group, for example, regularly participates in the Christopher Street Day and similar events (Bendl, Hanappi-Egger & Hofmann, 2006), and other large companies have founded similar groups, e.g. Ford Globe, Eagle@IBM, QueerBeet at the Deutsche Telekom, or QUEERdirekt at the Volkswagen Bank (Frohn, 2007).

In contrast to other minorities, people with a disability have an "older" and stronger legal framework intended to protect them from being discriminated against. In Germany, these laws are basically subsumed in the German Sozialgesetzbuch IX and include, for instance, a fixed percentage of persons with a disability for companies with more than 20 employees, and special protection from being released. However, laws can only provide a general framework and express a political will. Whether people with disabilities experience appropriate working-conditions and a welcoming atmosphere remains a matter of according programs and corporate cultural values. Similar to employees from a different cultural background, non-heterosexual as well as disabled employees are likely to bring along autobiographic experience and specific social skills that contribute to a fresh and more flexible perspective taking, creative problem solving and other challenges of everyday work-life (Ahrens, 2010; cf. Frohn, 2007).

Moreover, similar to explicit multiculturalism, a gay-friendly and/or disabled-friendly personnel policy not only affects the quality of internal processes, employee satisfaction, and employer attractiveness, but may carry over on product or service image, and thereby potentially attract more members of these groups as clients. 70-80% of Frohn's (2007) participants stated to pay attention to whether an organisation is gay-friendly when making a consumer decision.

Thus, far beyond legal and moral imperatives, a sustainable gender and diversity management is a rich source organisations can benefit from in many ways (Stuber, 2004). To enhance the proportion of women and of minority group members in leadership positions is only a first, however essential step in this change process. In the following section, we provide a brief overview over the effectiveness of explicitly stated corporate cultural values on employer attractiveness for particular target groups, before the present two experiments are presented.

1.4 Attracting Diversity by Promoted Corporate Culture

That explicitly communicated organisational culture has substantial impact on the attraction and recruitment of job applicants has been shown in a number of studies. (Lievens et al., 2005; Slaughter et al., 2004). For example, Tsai and Wen-Fen Yang (2010) conducted two large correlational studies in the financial and the IT sector in Taiwan and found that product image, corporate citizenship image, and corporate credibility predict organisational attractiveness in both studies. Experimental evidence is, however, rather scarce in this field. Catanzaro, Moore, and Marshal (2010) provide an exception here. They presented recruitment brochures to their participants that either communicated a competitive (masculine) or supportive (feminine) organisational culture (cf. Hofstede, 1980). As expected, men rated the competitive organisation as more attractive compared to women. Both, however, preferred the supportive culture over the competitive one.

A major methodological flaw of this research is that the authors used a repeated measures design: All participants saw both versions of the material and thus knew precisely what and how aspects of the material had been manipulated. This seriously endangers their naivety with regard to hypotheses and may have triggered all kinds of speculation and reactive response behavior, thus threatening internal validity. However, results do indicate that it is possible to attract specific target groups of potential employees by presenting different corporate cultures in vacancy notes. We wish to replicate these findings by demonstrating that men and women (Exp. 1) as well as majority vs. minority members (Exp. 2) perceive different levels of employer attractiveness and develop corresponding application intentions according to the corporate cultural values communicated in personnel marketing brochures.

2 Experiment 1: Corporate Culture and Gender Specific Recruitment

Many attempts have been made to work out a theoretical framework along which corporate cultures can be described, clustered or otherwise ordered in quantitative or qualitative terms. One frequently cited typology has been suggested by Cameron and Freeman (1991). They order corporate cultures along a two-dimensional space spanned by organic vs. mechanistic processes on the one hand and internal maintenance vs. external positioning on the other hand. Thus, four prototypes emerge, two of which were

chosen for the present study. Type clan is situated in the organic-internal quadrant and can be regarded as a prototypical feminine culture (cf. Catanzaro et al., 2010; Hofstede, 1980), characterised by a strong sense of community, participation, and sustainability. Type market, in contrast, is located in the mechanistic-external quadrant and can be characterised as a prototypically masculine culture (cf. Catanzaro et al., 2010; Hofstede, 1980), as it focusses on competition, achievement, and is rather decisive and hierarchical.

2.1 Method

The aim of the present experiment was to study the effect of corporate cultures on general employer attractiveness and their intention to apply as a function of gender. We hypothesised that participants will show a preference for the culture that fits with attributes associated with their own gender (cf. Bem, 1974, 1981; Slaughter et al., 2004) and thus with their general social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). That is, a two-way-interaction should emerge between participants' gender and the gender-typicality of the corporate culture promoted in a recruitment note: Female participants should prefer the more female clan culture, whereas male participants should prefer market culture. In addition, we explored potential differences between students and "experienced" employees, as more experienced employees might value the sustainability a clan culture offers more than the fast promotion opportunities a market culture offers, and vice versa for students.

2.2 Design

A 2x2 experimental design was realised with culture (clan vs. market) as manipulated and gender (male vs. female) as a further independent factor. In order to explore possible effects of career status, all four groups were composed of students and employees to about equal proportions.

2.3 Material and Dependent Measures

Two recruitment brochures were created, each systematically realising core elements derived from the corresponding cultural prototype clan and market, respectively (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Both begin with an employee statement, declare a company motto and an outline of what kind of new members are "wanted", and ends with an executive's statement. Photos and positions of the testimonials are identical across versions. In the clan version, the organisation presented itself as caring for employees' well-being, integrating everybody into one team, fostering cohesion and participation. The employee's statement stresses cohesion, climate, tradition and sustainable perspectives. The executive describes his role as that of a moderator and mentor, transitioning experience to younger team members. Conversely, in the market version, the organisation characterises itself as following clear processes and norms in order to ensure continuously high quality for their customers and thus a competitive advantage; they claim to look for goal-oriented people with high communicative skills in order to further outperform competitors. The employee's statement stresses competition and benchmarking within the business sector as well as the motivational effects of goal-

setting. The executive's statement outlines his role-understanding as leading, directing and market-oriented, and as valuing outstanding achievement-orientation.

After having studied the respective note, participants were asked to indicate their impressions and behavior intentions on 5-point Likert-scales. First, we asked them for a global judgment on the extent to which they consider the company's presentation as appealing and the company as an overall attractive employer. Next, six adjective ratings were assessed, representing typical characteristics of a clan (*trustworthy, safe, inwards oriented*) and a market culture (*leading, achievement-oriented, extravert*), respectively. The last four items measured application intentions (*I would try to get more information about the company, e.g. via internet; I could imagine to apply given I were currently jobless; I could imagine to apply given I were passively searching for a new position, e.g., having a safe but dissatisfying position; I could imagine to apply given I currently held a satisfying position*).

A pre-test with two students and two employees was run to ensure usability and comprehensibility of the questionnaire by means of think-aloud interviews (van Someren, Barnard, & Sandberg, 1994). Graphic elements were optimised for the final version according to the pretest participants' comments.

2.4 Sample and Procedure

A mixed convenience sample of $N = 120$ male and female employees of various enterprises and students of three different universities were contacted and invited to participate in a study on corporate cultures as personnel marketing instrument as conducted for a bachelor thesis. A first letter explained background and purpose of the study and announced an email that was sent out the following day and included the URL of the online questionnaire. With $n = 63$, return rate of complete questionnaires was 52.2%, which can be considered very satisfactory (Paier, 2010). The final sample consists of 32 employees and 31 students, 36 of which were female, and 27 male. Unfortunately, due to an error during final questionnaire upload, age was not assessed. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental conditions as defined by the corporate culture expressed in the note, and asked to read it thoroughly in order to be able to respond to the questionnaire items later on. Finally, they were thanked, debriefed, and invited to contact the experimenter via email in case of further questions and/or to join in a lottery for cinema vouchers. The whole procedure took about ten minutes.

2.5 Results and Discussion

In a first step, the adjective ratings were analysed in order to test whether the two versions of company brochures indeed elicited qualitatively different impressions among participants. These analyses serve as a manipulation check to ensure the interpretability of potential effects in attractiveness ratings and application intentions. The internal consistencies of the scales representing the adjectives typical of a clan culture (trustworthy, safe, inwards-oriented; Cronbach's alpha = .72) and the adjec-

tives typical of a market culture (leading, achievement-oriented, extravert; Cronbach's alpha = .83) were satisfactory, taking into account the small number of items. Thus, ratings were aggregated into a mean for clan culture and a mean for market culture ratings. These were analysed by a 2 (culture presented: clan vs. market) x 2 (participants' gender: male vs. female) x 2 (participants' career status: student vs. employee) x 2 (rating dimension: clan vs. market)-factorial ANOVA with repeated measures on the last factor. As can be seen in Figure 1, brochures in the two experimental conditions were perceived as intended: Participants rated the organisation representing a clan culture as higher in clan-related characteristics ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .67$) than in market-related characteristics ($M = 3.16$, $SD = .76$), and the market culture as higher in typical market ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .68$) than in typical clan attributes ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .57$), and this interaction is highly significant with $F (1, 51) = 95.32$, $p < .01$, eta² = .65. Overall, participants ascribed market attributes to a higher degree ($M = 3.61$, $SD = .86$) than clan attributes ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .80$). Apart from this main effect ($F (1, 51) = 8.48$, $p < .01$, eta² = .14$), no other main effect or interaction approached significance (all p's > .10), so that it can be assumed that perception of corporate culture is independent of participants' gender or career-status.
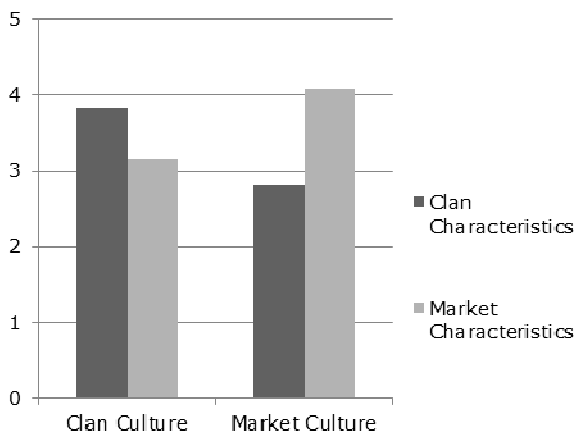
Figure 1:   Means of adjective ratings for organisations representing clan and market culture respectively.

The two items assessing initial overall attractiveness were highly intercorrelated with Cronbach's alpha = .90 and thus aggregated to a mean index. This index was submitted to a 2 (culture: clan vs. market) x 2 (participant's gender) x 2 (participant's career status) ANOVA in order to test the two-way interaction hypothesised between culture and gender, and in order to explore possible effects of participants' career status. As expected, overall employer attractiveness was higher when there was a fit between corporate culture and participants' gender: The company characterised by a typical clan culture was rated as more attractive by female ($M = 4.23$, $SD = .73$) than by male participants ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .91$), and the market-oriented company received higher attractiveness ratings by male ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .90$) than by female participants ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 1.05$). This interaction is statistically significant with $F (1, 53) = 5.16$, $p < .05$, eta² = .09.

As can be seen in Figure 2, participants also perceived the company promoting clan culture ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .87$) as
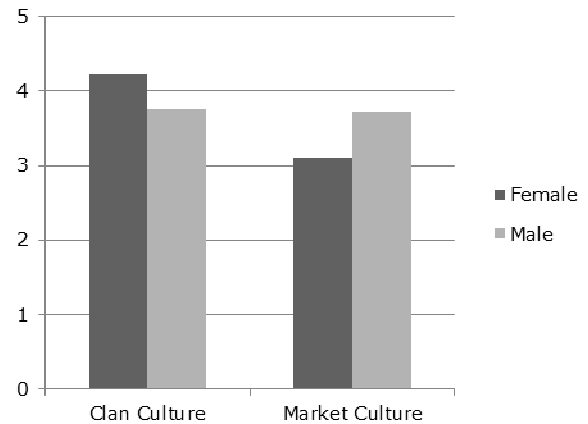
Figure 2:   Means of attractiveness ratings for organisations representing clan and market culture by participants' gender.

generally more attractive than the one promoting market culture ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .90$; $F (1, 53) = 4.68$, $p < .05$, eta² = .08). Neither the main effects of gender or career status nor any other interaction approached significance (all F's < 1).

Most important for all practical purposes is, whether different corporate cultures not only elicit different perceptions of employer attractiveness, but also affect application intentions accordingly. Therefore, participants' ratings on the last four items assessing behavior intentions were summarised into one mean index (Cronbach's alpha = .80) and submitted to another 2 (culture: clan vs. market) x 2 (participant's gender) x 2 (participant's career status) ANOVA. Again, the data indicate the predicted significant two-way interaction between culture and participants' gender ($F (1, 54) = 7.81$, $p < .01$, eta² = .13): The company promoting a clan culture evokes higher application intentions among female ($M = 3.93$, $SD = .51$) than among male participants ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .94$), and vice versa for the market-oriented company brochure ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .64$ for male vs. $M = 2.90$, $SD = .79$ for female participants). Note, however, that male participants indicate perfectly equal application intentions regardless of culture, so that the interaction effect goes back entirely to the female subsample. The results pattern is illustrated in Figure 3.
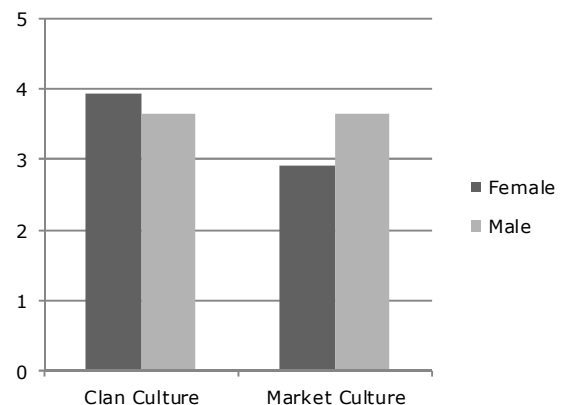
Figure 3:   Means of application intention ratings for organisations representing clan and market culture by participants' gender.

Again, there was a significant main effect of culture with clan culture ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .90$) eliciting overall higher application intentions compared to market culture ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .81$; $F (1, 54) = 6.53$, $p = .01$, eta² = .11), and again, no other main effect or interaction approached significance (all F's < 1.19).

Taken together, results of Exp. 1 fully support the idea that corporate cultures are differentially appealing to different target groups, and that employer attractiveness is higher provided there is a fit between the corporate culture's gender-typicality potential applicants' gender (and, presumably, according embraced values). Thus, organisations that wish to enhance the proportion of female employees (in particular in upper management positions, e.g., Daimler AG, 2010) may thus want to identify and strengthen all aspects of their corporate culture, values and programs that are relevant to gender mainstreaming and, in a next step, communicate and promote these explicitly in personnel marketing materials.

3   Experiment 2: Corporate Culture and Diversity Specific Recruitment

The aim of Exp.2 was to replicate and extend findings of Exp.1 with regard to diversity management.

3.1   Method

Again, the study was realised as a questionnaire experiment. Members of a minority and non-minority participants were presented with one of two vacancy notes and subsequently asked to rate the company's image, to indicate employer attractiveness and application intentions. In order to provide a broad test of diversity concepts as well as to facilitate the recruitment of participants, minority status was defined by belonging to one of the following groups: family with foreign cultural/migration background; other than heterosexual identity (gay, lesbian, bisexual, transsexual/transgender); or disabled persons. It is hypothesised that a recruitment announcement stressing the company's diversity orientation is perceived as generally more attractive and elicits a more positive image and higher application intentions compared to a company espousing traditional values, and that this effect is particularly strong for participants belonging to one of the above minority groups. Thus, in contrast to Exp.1, we do not expect the hypothesised two-way-interaction to be cross-over by nature, which would imply that majority members prefer the achievement-oriented over the diversity-oriented company.

3.2   Design

A 2x2 experimental design was realised with company culture (achievement- vs. diversity-oriented) as manipulated and participants' minority vs. majority status as second independent variable. Gender was controlled for as a further factor.

3.3   Material and Dependent Measures

In the introduction, participants were asked to imagine that they were about to finish their studies and just started exploring the job market. In the internet, they came across the following vacancy note which they were requested to read thoroughly before proceeding in the questionnaire.

The fictive company's name and general description of size and sector, the vacant positions of junior consultants in the new subsidiary to be opened, as well as structure, layout and other design aspects were kept constant across versions. Announcements differed only in the picture, claim, and in the values and programs communicated in the respective parts of the text. The achievement-oriented version shows a young man holding an arrow pointing upwards into a clear blue sky, and the claim next to the picture said „Your achievement is our success". In the text, it was stated that the company focused on employees' qualification, offered comprehensive training programs, and that their achievement-orientation and flexibility allowed them to keep up in fast changing global markets. Among requirements and offers, specific points were achievement-motivation and mentoring programs. In contrast, the diversity-oriented announcement was illustrated with a picture showing two business women discussing in front of a computer, one of African and one of Caucasian origin. The claim stated "Diversity is our success". In the text, it was stressed that the company valued diversity and offered according initiatives like a network for gay and lesbian employees, training for elder employees, and barrier-free offices, and that they regarded their employees' diversity as a chance to creatively succeed in fast changing global markets. Among requirements and offers, specific points were intercultural-competence and a dynamic, respectful corporate culture.

After studying the announcement, participants were asked to indicate on 6-point Likert-scales their intention to apply, and their overall assessment of employer attractiveness (to what extent would they seek further information, recommend the note to peers, and consider the company sympathetic). In the next section, they were asked to rate the company's image on 24 trait adjectives (e.g., warm, open, achievement-oriented, arrogant, tolerant, etc.).

In the final section of the questionnaire, participants were asked for age, gender, course of studies, and whether they had a bodily disability, at least one person in their family of different cultural background, and for their sexual orientation. In all three "minority status"-variables, we provided the additional response option "not specified" for participants who did not wish to disclose their group membership.

3.4   Sample and Procedure

A total of $N = 136$ students from different courses of study participated in the study, 68 of which were male and 68 female (age $M = 22.87$, $SD = 2.10$). Of the entire sample, five participants indicated to have a bodily disability, 37 to stem from a family with at least one person of different cultural/migration background, and 14 considered themselves as homo- or bisexual (none as transsexual/transgender). The two versions of the recruitment notice were randomly assigned to participants with the restriction that gender as a control variable was distributed equally across conditions (thus, 34 male and 34 female

per announcement). Minority status was assessed anonymously at the end of the questionnaire, so that equal distribution was not under our control. Six participants had to be excluded from analyses because they chose not disclose their membership with regard one or more minority groups variables by responding "not specified". Of the remaining 130 participants, $n = 64$ read the achievement-oriented announcement ($n = 20$ of which belonged to a minority group), and $n = 66$ the diversity-oriented announcement ($n = 20$ of which belonged to a minority group). Thus, there were almost perfectly equal proportions of minority and majority members in both experimental conditions.

Participants were recruited on campus and asked to take part in a short paper-pencil-questionnaire study conducted for a bachelor thesis. They were randomly assigned to conditions, shown one of the two recruitment announcements, asked to read it carefully and to fill in the questionnaire. Finally, they were thanked and debriefed. The whole procedure took about 10 to 15 minutes.

3.5 Results and Discussion

In a first step, the 24 image ratings were factor analysed by means of a principal components analysis (Kaiser-Guttman-criterion, varimax rotation) suggesting a six factorial solution that explains 71.14% of the total variance. The first factor explains 28.38% of the total variance and can be labeled "diversity-orientated", as items loading high here were, for example, tolerant, warm, open, liberal, and the like. The second factor explains 18.41% percent of the variance, and with adjectives like professional, success-oriented, and the like was labeled "achievement-orientated". Further factors were "arrogant" (slick, arrogant, aloof; 8.19% variance explained) and "cosmopolitan" (cosmopolitan, responsible, 6.39% variance explained), "constant" (down-to-earth, stable, 5.26% percent variance explained), and "energetical" (full of temperament, dominant, 4.12% variance explained).

Analogous to Exp.1, a manipulation check was conducted to ensure that the two announcements were perceived as intended. Therefore, all image items were aggregated into mean indices according to the dimensional factor structure suggested. The first two dimensions were regarded as crucial for manipulation check purposes. Thus, the according mean indices were analysed by a 2 (culture: diversity vs. achievement) x 2 (minority status: yes or no) 2 (rating dimension; diversity- vs. achievement-oriented)-factorial ANOVA with repeated measures on the last factor. As can be seen in Figure 4, announcements in the two experimental conditions were perceived as intended: Participants rated the diversity-friendly organisation as higher in diversity-related characteristics ($M = 4.68$, $SD = .64$) than in market-related characteristics ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .91$), and the achievement-oriented culture as higher in typical achievement attributes ($M = 4.49$, $SD = .76$) than in typical clan attributes ($M = 3.91$ $SD = .53$), and this interaction is highly significant with $F (1, 126) = 55.77$, $p < .01$, eta² = .31. No other main effect or interaction approached significance (all $F's < 1$).

In addition, we explored in how far the two companies differ along the remaining four image dimensions. Accordingly, we conducted univariate 2 (culture: diversity vs. achievement) x 2 (minority status: yes or no) ANOVAs the rating dimensions' mean indices as dependent variables. As can be seen in Figure 4, the achievement-oriented company was rated as more arrogant ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .94$) than the diversity-oriented one ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .84$; $F (1, 126) = 11.77$, $p < .01$; eta² = .09). This main effect of corporate culture was independent of participants' minority status ($F < 1$), nor was there a main effect of minority status ($F = 1.48$, $p = .23$, ns.). The same pattern emerged for the rating dimension "cosmopolitan": The diversity-oriented company got overall higher ratings ($M = 4.77$, $SD = .76$) than the achievement-oriented one ($M = 4.23$, $SD = .85$; $F (1, 125) = 15.64$, $p < .01$; eta² = .11). Again, this effect emerged likewise for participants belonging to minority and majority groups, that is, there was no interaction ($F (1, 125) = 1.20$, $p = .28$, $ns.$), nor a main effect of participants' minority status ($F < 1$). Perceptions of constancy, as summarised in the fifth factor, were neither affected by culture (M diversity = 3.64, $SD = .84$, M achievement = 3.70, $SD = .64$) nor by group membership (M minority = 3.76, $SD = .60$, M majority = 3.63; $SD = .81$; all $F's < 1$). On the final dimension, energetic, the achievement-oriented company received significantly higher ratings ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .81$) than the diversity-oriented one ($M = 2.91$, $SD = .81$; $F (1, 126) = 7.99$, $p < .05$, eta² = .06). This is the only rating dimension in which a main effect of participants' minority status was observed, as minority members gave generally lower "energetic"-ratings ($M = 2.88$, $SD = .88$) than majority members ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .79$; $F (1, 126) = 4.52$, $p < .05$, eta² = .04). However, there was again no significant interaction between the two independent variables (F < 1), so that the perceived difference between the two cultures promoted in the announcements did not differ between minority and majority members in any of the image rating dimensions. All mean image ratings are illustrated in Figure 4 according to corporate culture.
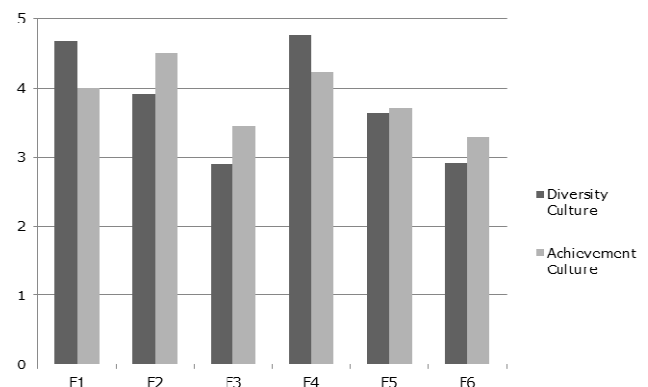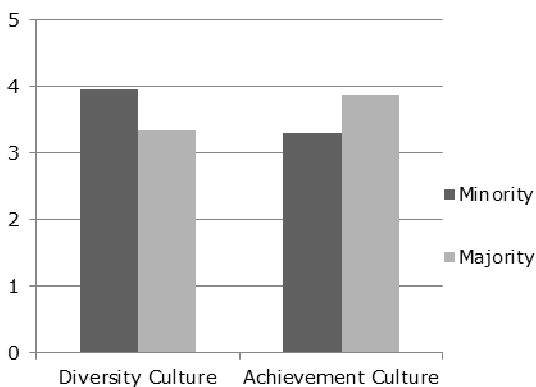

Figure 4: Mean image ratings for organisations representing diversity vs. achievement culture by image factors (see text).

In order to test the central hypotheses that the announcement promoting a diversity-oriented corporate culture is regarded as generally more attractive to and elicits higher application intentions among members of a minority group, two further ANOVAs were conducted. Because of the effects observed in Exp.1, gender was

included as a control factor, resulting in a 2 (culture: diversity vs. achievement) x 2 (minority status: yes vs. no) x 2 (gender: male vs. female) design. The three items assessing further information seeking, sympathy, and likelihood of recommendation formed a satisfactorily homogenous scale (Cronbach's alpha = .73) and were summarised into a mean index for overall employer attractiveness. Against predictions and in contrast to Exp.1, however, this index remained unaffected by corporate culture and participants' group membership. Except for a very slight and non-significant tendency of overall higher ratings for the diversity-oriented company (M = 3.74, SD = .92) than for the achievement-oriented company (M = 3.50, SD = .83, F (1, 122) = 2.26, p = .14, eta² = .02), there was no indication of any main effects or interactions (all F's < 1).

When analysing the intention to apply as dependent variable, however, the predicted two-way interaction emerged: Participants who themselves belong to one of our predefined minority groups indicated higher application intentions in the diversity-oriented announcement condition (M = 3.95, SD = .89) than in the achievement-oriented condition (M = 3.30, SD = 1.59), and vice versa for majority members (M = 3.89, SD = 1.12 for the achievement-oriented and M = 3.35, SD = 1.35), and it was statistically significant (F (1, 122) = 5.93, p = .02, eta² = .05). Female participants show a generally higher application intention (M = 3.79, SD = 1.29) than male ones (M = 3.43, SD = 1.19), independent of minority status or corporate culture, but apart from this non-significant tendency (F (1, 122) = 2.69, p = .10, eta² = .02), there were no indications for any other main effect or interaction (all F's < 1). The results pattern is illustrated in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Means of application intention ratings for organisations representing diversity vs. achievement culture by participants' group membership.

Taken together, findings of Exp.2 show that explicitly communicating a corporate culture that embraces diversity provokes a corresponding image of being more open and tolerant, more cosmopolitan, less arrogant, but less energetic compared to a typical achievement-oriented culture. Although the overall attractiveness ratings did not differ systematically according to culture or participants' group membership, the focal result of Exp.1 could be replicated in the application intention measure: members of a minority group indicated a higher intention to apply when the corporate culture promoted was diversity- rather

than achievement-oriented. We did not necessarily expect this pattern to be reversed for non-minority-members, but it turned out to be, as these participants preferred the company promoting an achievement-oriented culture. It could be that a very strong focus on diversity management gives rise to the idea that members of a minority group are indeed preferred over other employees, not only in terms of hiring decisions, but also with regard to career-programs and the like. Such potential concerns of reversed discrimination may have led majority members to indicate comparatively lower application intentions when they were presented the diversity-oriented announcement.

4   General Discussion

In times of societal and demographic change, more and more organisations develop comprehensive gender and diversity management programs as part of a progressive and cosmopolitan value culture - as well as in order to participate in the competitive advantages such a policy brings along. A prerequisite for the according programs to make sense and unfold their virtues is to maintain and/or attract at least a certain quota of members of the respective subgroups of employees.

The present experiments show that tailoring personnel marketing material to specific target groups can be very effective: When the corporate culture promoted in an announcement fits with participants' group membership and presumably endorsed values, overall ratings of employer attractiveness (Exp.1) and intention to apply (Exp. 1 and 2) were significantly enhanced. It is interesting to note that in Exp. 1, the effect in the application intention entirely goes back to the female participants, whereas our male subjects did not exhibit a preference for one of the two cultures. In other words, the more feminine clan culture attracted women but did not turn male applicants off. In Exp. 2, however, although all participants gave more favorable image ratings to the diversity-oriented as compared to an achievement-oriented company on almost all dimensions, intention to apply to the diversity-oriented company was diminished among majority members. As already outlined in the discussion of Exp.2, this might be due to concerns of lowered chances or even reverse discrimination. We did not ask participants why they responded the way they did, which might have helped to support this speculative explanation or given rise to other insights in underlying motives or processes. Further research should include open questions or other forms of qualitative data collection in order to clarify this aspect.

A major limitation of the experiments reported here is that they are not field experiments (which, on the other hand, would bear substantial ethical problems). Participants knew they were taking part in a study, and they were required to imagine a scenario. Such a setting is of course not to be compared to a real job-seeking situation with all its complex particularities. However, although put in a somewhat artificial situation, participants did not know that there were different materials defining different experimental conditions. This provides a major methodological advantage compared to prior work (e.g., Catanzaro et al., 2010), as speculations about hypotheses and "good"

response behavior are kept to a minimum when a between-subjects manipulation is used. Even though real job seekers do naturally see and judge a number of different announcements in a row, these announcements usually differ in multiple ways that become impossible to disentangle when it comes to the question which particular aspect has altered perceptions of employer attractiveness or application intentions. By refraining from a repeated-measures-design and by realising a "lab"-situation, we were able to control for potential confounds (like layout, business sector, company size, and so on) by keeping them more or less constant without the material becoming too artificial. In addition, our participants clearly did belong to the population forming the target group for tailored recruitment strategies, i.e., students soon going to enter the market (Exp. 1 and 2) as well as experienced employees at about the mid of their career (a subsample in Exp.1).

Thus, if we take the present results for a moment as they are, we can conclude that explicit communication of corporate culture does indeed attract people who share this culture's values and likely consider themselves as profiting from according special programs. This holds in particular for members of somewhat disadvantaged groups (women in Exp. 1, members of a minority group as defined by sexual identity, multicultural family background, or handicap in Exp.2). A major concern may arise, however, with regard to the overall credibility of such explicit communication. Collins and Stevens (2002) report that applicants regard information provided directly by an organisation as comparatively less credible, and rather rely on recruitment information from word-of-mouth sources. This stresses once more the claim already outlined in the introduction, that corporate culture must never be "abused" as a recruitment tool if there is no substance behind it. Organisations who have not yet fully internalised the underlying idea of men, and whose management staff is not fully committed to the comprehensive change processes gender and diversity programs require risk their credibility and more. "Values" that are promoted, but lack correspondence in rites and everyday climate, or that are not internalised and embraced on the second and third level of corporate culture (Schein, 2009), will undermine any goal gender or diversity management programs may pursue. An image merely created for the sake of branding will very soon be unveiled and likely backfire heavily with regard to employer attractiveness and overall consumers' trust in an organisation. The more participative the development and manifestation of corporate cultural values, the more authentically they may be transformed into everyday interaction and other processes, and the more deeply organisational change can be rooted. Moreover, a meaningful fit between service / product politics and personnel management further enhances a sense of coherence and overall congruency.

Nevertheless, a substantial step-stone of gender mainstreaming and diversity management must be to increase quota of female and / or minority members, in particular in leadership positions. The present research shows that explicit value communication may provide a powerful tool to attract specific target groups: It was effective in addressing individuals that may be underrepresented, but particularly valuable employees – as they enhance variety in fresh perspective-taking and creative problem-solving, can provide a link to particular groups of customers, and the like. Of course it will not be sufficient to enhance application rates without according coordinated measures that prevent any kind of discrimination against minority groups during personnel selection processes.

Equalising gender proportions or enhancing minority quota is about much more than just tuning the numbers (Thomas & Ely, 1996). The whole process may unfold perpetuating dynamics, as explicit corporate cultural values will attract more and more employees that endorse these values (in the sense of gravitation processes), and will in turn further fill them with life.

Purposeful and explicit communication of corporate cultural values, e.g. in personnel marketing materials, will thus contribute to manifest and root these values during change processes in several ways: They attract new members with matching values, but they also render corporate culture more visible and salient to its present members, and both will promote manifestation on all three levels suggested by Schein (2009). Moreover, explicitly stated cultural values and employer image are likely to carry over to the corporate image as a whole, in turn affecting consumer decisions. As consumers become more and more interested in the working conditions involved in the products and services they purchase, a gender and diversity-conscious personnel marketing might even have positive effects on brand perception and market shares among the respective target-groups.

5   References

Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research, 34*, 347–356.

Ahrens, A. (23.11.2010). *Neue Wege zur Beschäftigung schwerbehinderter Menschen.* Retrieved from http://www.stellenboersen.de/jobs/karriere/gender-diversity/jobs-fuer-schwerbehinderte/020326-fachtagung-schwerbehinderte.html.

Allgemeines Gleichbehandlungsgesetz (16.10.2012). Retrieved from http://www.gesetze-im-internet.de/agg/index.html.

Barrow, S. & Mosley, R. (2006). *Internes Brand Management: Machen Sie Ihre Mitarbeiter zu Markenbotschaftern.* Weinheim: Wiley-VCH.

Beck, C. (2008). *Personalmarketing 2.0: Vom Employer Branding zum Recruiting.* Köln: Luchterhand.

Bem, S. L. (1974). The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 42*, 155-62.

Bem, S. L. (1981). Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing. *Psychological Review, 88*, 354–364.

Bendl, R., Hanappi-Egger, E. & Hofmann, R. (2006). *Agenda Diversität: Gender- und Diversitätsmanagement in Wissenschaft und Praxis.* München: Rainer Hampp Verlag.

Blum, J. (2010). Unternehmenspersönlichkeit im Rahmen von Employer Branding. In W. Aretz & K. Mierke (Hrsg.): *Aktuelle Themen der Wirtschaftspsychologie. Beiträge und Studien* (Bd. 2, pp. 32-44). Köln: Kölner Wissenschaftsverlag.

Cable, D. M. & Turban, D. B. (2001) Establishing the Dimensions, Sources, and Value of Job Seekers' Employer Knowledge During Recruitment. *Research in Personnel and Human, Resource Management, 20*, 115–163.

Cameron, K. S. & Freeman, S. J. (1991). Cultural congruence, strentgh, and type: Relationships to Effectivness. *Research in Organisational Change and Development, 5*, 23–58.

Catanzaro, D., Moore, H., & Marshall, T. R. (2010). The Impact of Organisational Culture on Attraction and Recruitment of Job Applicants. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*, 649–662.

Carr-Ruffino, N. (2009). *Managing Diversity: People skills for a multicultural workplace* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Chapman, D. S., Uggerslev, K. L., Carroll, S. A., Piasentin, K. A. & Jones, D. A. (2005). Applicant Attraction to Organisations and Job Choice: A meta-analytic review of the correlates of recruiting outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 928–944.

Collins, C. J. & Stevens, C. K. (2002). The relationship between early recruitment-related activities and the application decisions of new labor-market entrants: A brand equity approach to recruitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 1121–1133.

Costa, P. T. & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual*. Odessa: PAR.

Daimler AG (25.11.2010). *Diversity*. Retrieved from http://nachhaltigkeit.daimler.com/reports/daimler/annual/2010/nb/German/4060/diversity.html.

Deller, J., Kern, S., Hausmann, E., & Diederichs, Y. (2008). *Personalmanagement im demographischen Wandel: Ein Handbuch für den Veränderungsprozess.* Heidelberg: Springer.

Ellis, E. (2005). *EU Anti-Discrimination Law.* Oxford EC Law Library. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Elmerich, K. (2007). *Personenbezogene Wahrnehmung des Diversity Managements. Arbeitswissenschaft in der betrieblichen Praxis. Band 29*. Frankfurt / Main: Peter Lang GmbH. Europäischer Verlag der Wissenschaften.

Frohn, D. (2007). *Out im Office?! Sexuelle Identität, (Anti-)Diskriminierung und Diversity am Arbeitsplatz.* Köln: Schwules Netzwerk (Hrsg.), gefördert vom Ministerium für Generationen, Familie, Frauen und Integration in Nordrhein-Westfalen.

Gatewood, R. D., Gowan, M. A., & Lautenschlager, G. J. (1993). Corporate image, recruitment image, and initial job choice decisions. *Academy of Management Journal, 36,* 414–427.

Gmür, M. & Thommen, J.-P. (2006). *Human Resource Management*. Zürich: Versus.

Haubrock, A. & Öhlschlegel-Haubrock, S. (2009). *Personalmanagement*. Stuttgart: Kohlhammer.

Hauser, F. (2009). Wahre Schönheit kommt von innen: Der Great Place to Work®-Ansatz. In A. Trost (Hrsg.): *Employer Branding. Arbeitgeber positionieren und präsentieren*. Reihe: Personalwirtschaft. Köln: Luchterhand.

Hecht-El Minshawi, B. & Berninghausen, J (2007). *Interkulturelle Kompetenz. Managing Cultural Diversity*. Trainingshandbuch. Frankfurt / Main: IKO – Verlag für Interkulturelle Kommunikation.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Jung, D. & Küpper, G (2001). *Gender Mainstreaming und betriebliche Veränderungsprozesse*. Bielefeld: Kleine.

Kauffeld, S. (2011). *Arbeits-, Organisations- und Personalpsychologie.* Heidelberg: Springer.

Kistler, E. & Hilpert, M. (2001). Auswirkungen des demographischen Wandels auf Arbeit und Arbeitslosigkeit. *Aus Politik und Zeitgeschichte* (APuZ), 5–13.

Köllen, T. (2010). *Bemerkenswerte Vielfalt: Homosexualität und Diversity Management*. Mering: Rainer Hampp Verlag.

Lievens, F., Van Hoye, G., & Schreurs, B. (2005) Examining the Relationship between Employer Knowledge Dimensions and Organisational Attractiveness: An application in a military context. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 78*, 553–572.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones. H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The War for Talent.* Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Müller, C. & Sander, G. (2009). *Innovativ führen mit Diversity-Kompetenz: Vielfalt als Chance*. Bern: Haupt Verlag.

Nerdinger, F. W., Blickle, G., & Schaper, N. (2011). *Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie.* Heidelberg: Springer.

Nienaber, C. (2007). Die Bedeutung des Kompetenzmanagements für die strategische Personalarbeit. In W. Jochmann & S. Gechter (Hrsg.). *Strategisches Kompetenzmanagement* (pp. 25–46). Berlin: Springer.

Paier, D. (2010). *Quantitative Sozialforschung: Eine Einführung*. Wien: Facultas.wuv.

Peters, S. & Bensel, N. (2000). *Frauen und Männer im Management. Diversity in Diskurs und Praxis*. Wiesbaden: Gabler.

Petkovic, M. (2008). Employer Branding. Ein markenpolitischer Ansatz zur Schaffung von Präferenzen bei der Arbeitgeberwahl. In T. R. Hummel, H. Knebel, D. Wagner & E. Zander (Hrsg): *Hochschulschriften zum Personalwesen*. (Bd. 37, 2. Aufl., pp. 1-287). München: Rainer Hampp Verlag.

Prezewowsky, M. (2007). *Demografischer Wandel und Personalmanagement: Herausforderungen und Handlungsalternativen vor dem Hintergrund der Bevölkerungsentwicklung.* Wiesbaden: Deutscher Universitäts Verlag.

Prittwitz-Schlögl, F. (29.06.2012). *"Was ihr wollt" oder "Wie es Euch gefällt"? Was (LGBT-) Führungskräfte und High Potentials wirklich wollen.* Retrieved from http://www.professional-difference.com/wp/ content/uploads/2012/06/Praesentation_MILK_EmplBranding_Vorab1.pdf.

Schein, E. H. (1995). *Unternehmenskultur. Ein Handbuch für Führungskräfte.* Frankfurt / Main, New York: Campus Verlag.

Schein, E. H. (2009). *The Corporate Culture Survival Guide*. New York: Wiley.

Schnier, V. (2007). *Gender Mainstreaming und Diversity Management in der Organisationsentwicklung.* Saarbrücken: VDM Verlag Dr. Müller.

Schulz, A. (2009). *Strategisches Diversitätsmanagement. Unternehmensführung im Zeitalter der kulturellen Vielfalt.* Wiesbaden: Gabler.

Slaughter, J., Zickar, M. J., Highhouse, S., & Mohr, D. C. (2004). Personality Trait Inferences about Organisations: Development of a Measure and Assessment of Construct Validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 85–103.

Stuber, M. (2004). *Diversity. Das Potenzial von Vielfalt nutzen – den Erfolg durch Offenheit steigern*. Neuwied: Luchterhand.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J. C. (1985). The Social Identity Theory of Group Behavior. In: S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (eds.): *Psychology of Intergroup Relations* (pp. 7-24). Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Thomas, D. A. & Ely, R. D. (1996). Making differences matter: A new paradigm for managing diversity. *Harvard Business Review, Sept.–Oct.,* 79–90.

Tsai, W.-C. & Wen-Fen Yang, I. (2010). Does image matter to different job applicants? The influences of corporate image and applicant individual differences on organisational attractiveness. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 18*, 48-63.

van Someren, M. W., Barnard, Y. F., & Sandberg, J. A. C. (1994). *The Think-Aloud Method. A Practical Guide to Modelling Cognitive Processes.* London: Academic Press.

Wilden, R., Gudergan, S., & Lings , I. (2010). Employer branding: Strategic implications for staff recruitment. *Journal of Marketing Management, 26*, 56-73.

Corresponding author:

Prof. Dr. Katja Mierke
University of Applied Science Fresenius
Department Business & Media
Im MediaPark 4c
D-50670 Cologne
GERMANY
e-mail: mierke@hs-fresenius.de