Employer Branding in Australia:

A content analysis of recruitment advertising in the mining and higher education

industries.

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Abstract

Employer branding is an amalgam of marketing and Human Resource Management practice. The development of an organisational image for the purpose of attracting valuable human resources has become an important area of interest in recent years. This study partially replicates Backhaus's 2004 study by examining how the concept of employer branding relates to employment advertising in Australia. The study found that practices involving employer branding in Australia differed from those found in the United States. Key findings suggest that use of employer branding in Australia has not developed to the extent that it has elsewhere.

Keywords: Employer branding, recruitment, corporate image, mining, higher education.

EMPLOYER BRANDING

Despite the current global economic situation, effective human capital is still a major driver of strategic advantage. Competition amongst organisations for the best in human resources has been dubbed a "war for talent" by McKinsey researchers Michaels, Handfield-Jones and Axelrod (2001). And whilst this war might presently be somewhat subdued, the strategic importance of effective human capital is undiminished.

The so called 'war for talent' has resulted in an increasing need for organisations to differentiate themselves from their competitors and market unique employment opportunities to potential applicants. Such efforts are heavily contingent on the ability to formulate and utilise employer branding as a competitive labour market strategy (Martin, Beaumont, Doig, & Pate, 2005). Employer branding, a relatively new concept in human resource management (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004), is essentially an adaptation of product and corporate branding principles from the marketing discipline.

Branding is recognised as an important marketing strategy that organisations employ to distinguish their products and services from those of competitors. Whilst each product or service consists of a generic component which must meet functional requirements (Morsing, 2006), purchase decisions often hinge on product differentiation strategies. However, at the generic level, differentiation between rivals is difficult to maintain as functional components

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are easy to imitate (Hatch & Schultz, 2003; Morsing, 2006). As such, branding has become a crucial marketing approach that differentiates offerings between competitors (Simoes & Dibb, 2001). Branding serves to differentiate and build product preferences (Xie & Boggs, 2006) in three ways. Firstly, branding aims to *increase* customer attraction with aesthetically appealing and favourable messages (Morsing, 2006). Secondly, a brand is intended to distinguish the organisation's product or service from those of its competitors using functional components such as a symbol, name, design, or a combination (Keller, 2003). Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, marketers realise that differentiation requires creating and increasing a product's perceived value (Gowan, 2004); branding is about adding greater value to either the functional or emotional attributes of a product or service (Gwin & Gwin, 2003; Morsing, 2006). However, in an era of imitation and homogenisation of products and services, changes in consumer behaviour and intense competition for customer loyalty, organisations need to place greater focus on building a strong 'corporate brand' (Harris & de Chernatony, 2001).

Differentiation now requires branding of not just products, but the whole organisation (Hatch & Schultz, 2003). The idea is to make the entire organisation the subject of the branding effort (Morsing, 2006). As such, a strong corporate brand is an important strategic asset for organisations and an important source of competitive advantage (Harris & de Chernatony, 2001). The building of a strong corporate brand is a top level strategic activity designed to shape positive customer perceptions (Gwin & Gwin, 2003; Hatch & Schultz, 2003; Morsing, 2006; Xie & Boggs, 2006). That is, executive management creates knowledge about the brand that is aimed at improving customers' perception of both the company and its products (Flynn & Goldsmith, 1999). Hatch and Schultz (2003) argue that when corporate branding is aligned with organisational culture and image, awareness magnifies about what the organisation is and what it stands for, enhancing organisational attractiveness and reputation. Therefore, at the core of corporate branding is the principle of developing a positive organisational culture, image, identity and reputation. This is a strategic task aimed at building greater awareness about the organisation in the minds of consumers and increasing consumer attraction (Collins

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& Han, 2004). In this way, corporate branding extends the principles of product branding, allowing organisations to explicitly use their vision and culture as part of their unique value proposition (Hatch & Schultz, 2003). This unique value proposition may be attractive not just to consumers, but may enhance the perceptions of the organisation within its community, and increase its attractiveness as a workplace. In fact, branding efforts in the human resource management field are considered to be a powerful tool in the recruiting process (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Barrow & Mosley, 2005; Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, & Berthon, 2002; Sutherland, Torricelli, & Karg, 2002). Thus, strong, respected corporate brands help 'brand' the organisation as an employer of choice.

Employer branding was first conceptualised by Ambler and Barrow (1996), as "the functional, economic and psychological benefits [gained] from the employing company" (p. 187). However, other researchers have built on this initial concept with an orientation towards employer branding as more a promotion of the organisation. Ewing and colleagues (2002) define employer branding as building an organisational image in the labour market that promotes the organisation as a great place to work as opposed to its competitors. More specifically, employer branding refers to creating a brand message and applying marketing techniques to achieve superior status and reputation as 'employer of choice' (Sutherland et al., 2002). Further, employer branding establishes the identity of the organisation as an employer, encompassing the values, systems, policies and behaviours of the organisation toward the objective of attracting future employees (Conference Board, 2001, as cited in Backhaus, 2004). Lawler (2005) regards employer branding as the organisation's ability to fashion a compelling employer proposition that clearly establishes the organisation in the minds of elite prospective employees. For Backhaus (2004), employer branding is about presenting a 'unique' organisational image of an employer that is distinct from its competitors. In turn, this distinct employer brand must be communicated to potential applicants. Establishing a unique employer brand identity is of paramount importance for organisations in the same industry if they are to differentiate themselves from their competitors. This is because organisations in

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the same industry may appear very similar, and are likely to be pursuing similar human capital characteristics in the labour market (Thomas & Wise, 1999).

The employer branding concepts discussed above indicate that employer branding involves promoting a clear view of what makes a firm different and desirable as an employer (Backhaus, 2004). In essence, similar to corporate branding, the employer branding philosophy entails communicating aspects of the organisation's culture, identity, image and reputation for the purpose of attracting prospective employees, in a manner that distinguishes it from those who are competing for the same talent pool (Sutherland et al., 2002). As with product and corporate branding, the assumptions are that employer branding enables organisations to distinguish themselves from their competitors as an employer of choice, offering applicants a unique employment value proposition which spells out clearly why potential applicants would want to work for that organisation (Gowan, 2004). Therefore, employer branding aims to differentiate the organisation's employment offer from those of other organisations (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). This process of differentiation is depicted as the outcome of the employer branding process on the right hand side of Figure 1.

Despite the growing application of employer branding by human resource practitioners, academic research on the topic is limited to a few articles in the marketing and communications literature (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). For example, Ewing and colleagues (2002 p. 13) examined corporate websites and print advertisements in business periodicals to determine employer branding strategies. Their research identified three employer branding strategies termed as 'employer branding equity' (EBE); 'Transnational Inc', 'Mission to Mars', and 'The local – identification'. Descriptions of these three EBEs are provided in Table 1.

In other research, Backhaus (2004) conducted an exploratory study into corporate recruitment descriptions on Monster.com across twelve industries. The aim of Backhaus' research was threefold; to investigate and create a method of classifying the type of information contained

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in recruitment descriptions; to investigate whether the information content differed by industries; and to investigate whether the type of information identified would reveal the existence of distinct employer brands. Her analysis of job advertisement content revealed that there was significant difference among industries in the allocation of text to firm attributes, corporate social performance, work/family balance and advancement. From this, Backhaus concluded that there was a similarity in content of information in a given industry; for example, the IT industry emphasised information regarding organisational activities, market success and products, whereas hospitality and retail industries utilised an applicant centred approach, emphasising information on guarantees of training and advancement opportunities and fun working environment. She also concluded that there was no difference within industries on employer branding practices. Instead, she identified five categories of employer branding types; product/service-centred, balanced scorecard, career-centred, culture-centred and compensation-centred. Table 2 shows the employer brand types identified by Backhaus (2004), ranked in order of prevalence.

Numerous authors suggest that employer branding is growing in importance, however, there is a paucity of empirical research (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Barrow & Mosley, 2005; Ewing et al., 2002; Sutherland et al., 2002). Ewing and colleagues (2002) summarised thought in this area by saying "there is considerable scope for further conceptual, theoretical (and) empirical work" to be done in this domain (p. 16). This paper therefore, helps fill some of the gaps in this under-researched area by extending previous employment branding research. Previous investigations are extended in this study by examining Australian newspaper recruitment advertisements in two industries; mining and higher education. The mining and higher education industries were chosen because of the evident contrasts between them. Whilst mining industry operations involve physical work in mainly remote locations, higher education operations involve mainly psychological work in urban environments. To the researcher's knowledge, prior employment branding investigations have not been conducted in these two industries or utilised newspaper recruitment advertisements as the medium for

investigation.

The above-mentioned limitations and general paucity of research into employer branding prompts the question of *whether Australian organisations utilise different employer branding strategies*. The aim of this research is to determine whether Backhaus' (2004) research findings that employer branding differs by industry can be generalised beyond her immediate study. The following research hypothesis has been developed to test this proposition:

> *Hypothesis 1. A significant difference in the utilisation of employer branding strategies exists between the mining and higher education industries in Australia.*

METHOD

A quantitative content analysis method was chosen for this investigation for two reasons. Firstly, it would be useful to replicate Backhaus' (2004) research in the Australian context. Secondly, as the aim is to analyse existing employer branding practices, a quantitative method in which the researcher can objectively examine pre-existing textual messages (Neuendorf, 2002) is appropriate.

In content analysis, the content must be reduced to units for coding and measurement purposes (Holsti, 1969; Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 1998). Neuendorf (2002) defines 'unit' as an identifiable message or message component. In this study, two types of unit are relevant; *unit of content* and *recording unit*. The *'Unit of content'* serves as the basis for identifying the population and drawing an appropriate sample for observation (Krippendorff, 1980; Riffe et al., 1998). The unit of content is defined here as organisation descriptions evident in recruitment advertisements appearing in Australian newspapers in two specific industries; mining and higher education. *'Recording units'* are the elements of content that are classified in the coding process (Holsti, 1969). Recording units result from the breaking of content into manageable elements such as single words or a set of words (Riffe et al., 1998; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). In this study the recording units are the words and phrases in the text contained within each organisational recruitment advertisement. This approach leads to a rich

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analysis of information as it allows the researcher to investigate and code single words, groups of words and phrases (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003).

Sampling

In content analysis studies, the use of a combination of sampling techniques is common (Neuendorf, 2002). This study adopts a purposive cluster sampling strategy (Holsti, 1969) to identify units of analysis appropriate for investigation. From the population of nine major Australian daily newspapers, the Australian and the Courier Mail were chosen as data sources for the study. The Australian was chosen as it dedicates a section every Wednesday to the higher education sector which includes associated recruitment advertising. The Courier Mail was selected as it is the major daily newspaper for Queensland, the home of a large and diverse mining industry.

Cluster sampling was used to select content units. Riffe and colleagues (1998) argue that when no sampling frame is available, cluster sampling, which is the process of selecting content units from clusters, is appropriate. Newspapers are a cluster of many communication groups, usually divided into topic clusters, such as sports, business, entertainment and so forth. Newspapers often publish recruitment advertisements under a broad cluster in a newspaper edition, and then place the recruitment advertisements into industry subgroups. As such, a cluster sampling technique was used to select subgroups of recruitment advertisements in the higher education and mining industries.

A purposive, cluster sampling of The Australian and The Courier Mail was conducted for a one month period from the week starting of 24th of July to the week ending 20th of August, 2006. This generated a list of content units for analysis. During the period of investigation it became clear that a number of organisations placed recruitment advertisements in the newspaper in successive weeks. In these situations, the recruiters in question were only recorded once in order to avoid double counting. A total of 51 content units were derived, 25 in the higher education sector and 26 in the mining sector.

Measurement, category construction and category definitions

The independent variable of INDUSTRY was manually assigned with two levels of nominal measurement (1= Mining, 2= Education) and a total of 15 dependent variables were established in a two step process. Ten coding categories were derived directly from Backhaus' (2004) investigations into employer branding as an initial coding scheme for analysis as shown in Table 3.

Each of the 10 dependent variables was measured by counting the number of times word/s, similar to the category, occurred within each unit of content. The ten categories facilitated the initial analysis of information in each of the recruitment advertisements. Adhering to Backhaus' (2004) coding method, content was grouped and counted by the first author then an independent count was conducted by a research assistant. Content which did not classify into these categories was coded 'Not Applicable' (NA). Once grouping was completed, each unit of content received a ratio score expressed as a percentage for each category based on the number of words placed in each category against the total number of words in the advertisement.

In the second phase, an emergent process of categorising the content coded NA in the initial stage was utilised. A procedure closely adhering to Backhaus' (2004) method of collapsing content into categories was undertaken. The two coders independently scanned content coded with NA, grouping together data that were deemed similar. This created a checklist. The researchers then compared notes to reconcile any possible differences that might have occurred. After examination and discussion of the independent analyses, the two coders agreed on five categories as shown in Table 4.

The five categories formed a consolidated checklist for the two coders to independently code each unit of content. Similarly to the process used in the first phase of analysis, the components for the five emergent variables were measured on a ratio level based on frequency and expressed as a percentage of the total number of words in the advertisement.

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Thus, this study utilised both a priori and emergent coding processes to collapse the data into fifteen categories.

RESULTS

This study examines a total of fifteen employer branding concepts derived from hand-coded content analysis; ten from an a priori design, and five identified through an emergent content analysis process. Examination of the descriptive statistics revealed that there were marked differences in text allocated between the fifteen categories. The most frequently deployed employer branding concept is '*firm attributes*'. On average, 39.6% of the text analysed in this study was devoted to this category. After firm attributes, organisations spent the most amount of text devoted to '*compensation and benefits*', the mean was 11.36%. This was followed by '*workforce diversity*' with 8.34%, 'location' closely followed with 8.11%, and '*Advancement opportunity*' accounted for another 6.45%. The least used branding concept was '*reputation*' with only 0.53% of the text applying to this category, and only 1.06% was devoted to '*occupational health and safety*'. Table 5 details the means and standard deviations of each category ranked in order of prevalence.

The research question earlier posed asked *whether Australian organisations utilise different employer branding strategies.* The following section tests the hypothesis that:

> *A significant difference in the utilisation of employer branding strategies exists*
> *between the mining and higher education industries in Australia.*

To test the significance of differences within the independent variable of INDUSTRY, dependent variables were dichotomised into categorical variables with two nominal levels of measurement; 'yes' and 'no'. Pearson's Chi-square statistics with an alpha level of .05 was used for statistical analysis. In cases where more than 20% of expected count fell below five, Fisher's Exact Test was employed as a substitute. The results of these comparisons are listed in Table 6.

The results in Table 6 suggest that there is little difference in the way employer branding

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strategies are used between the mining industry and higher education. Only three of the 15 comparisons were significantly different. The differences occurred in relation to *occupational health and safety*, *workforce diversity* and *employee identification*. The results of the significant statistical tests are reported below.

Using Fisher's Exact Test, a significant difference ($p = .05$) was found in the *occupational health and safety* category. In comparing across both industries, 13.7% ($N = 7$) of the mining organisations provided information concerning a safe work place, compared to only 2% ($N = 1$) in the higher education industry.

Workforce diversity was also found to be significantly different across both groups with Pearson's Chi-square, $\chi^2 = 14.412(1)$, $N = 51$, $p < .0001$. Out of 25 higher education institutions, 20 (80%) institutions made an articulation about seeking a diverse workforce. Whereas in the mining industry, only 7 (26.9%) of the 26 organisations articulated this information.

In addition, Pearson's Chi-square found a statistically significant difference in relation to *employee identification* ($\chi^2 = 3.917(1)$, $N = 51$, $p = .048$). Only one recruitment advertisement in higher education had information associated with this category. In comparison, applicant qualities were more heavily emphasised in the mining industry, with six organisations utilising this category in recruitment advertisements.

Whilst the greater majority of employer branding concepts were found to have no statistically significant differences across industries three employer branding concepts; '*occupational health and safety*', '*workforce diversity*' and '*employee identification*' were significantly different between the two groups. Hence, the hypothesis is somewhat supported but not convincingly.

DISCUSSION

From the initial descriptive analysis conducted, '*firm attributes*' was found to be the most

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emphasised employer branding concept. This is an important finding as Backhaus (2004) also found this in her study. Further to this, Ewing and colleagues (2002) found that in order to market themselves, organisations utilised information parallel to '*firm attributes*'. The apparent dominance of marketing the organisation's 'firm attributes' has, however, both positive and negative consequences.

On the positive side, it is useful to note that information associated with '*firm attributes*' is one of many aspects which contribute to organisational image (Highhouse, Zickar, Thorsteinson, Stierwalt, & Slaughter, 1999). Social identity theory literature suggests that organisations benefits from presenting a large, successful and growing international organisation image to potential applicants (Smidts, Pruyn, & van Riel, 2001). This is because it may be desirable for them to affiliate with an organisation that enhances their own self-concept (Smidts et al., 2001) and offers the opportunity to gain credibility and status (Backhaus, 2004).

On the negative side however, a majority of organisations in both industries appear to have overlooked other aspects which contribute to an organisation's image, namely, pay; location; advancement opportunities; co-workers; customers; and challenging work (Highhouse et al., 1999; Lemmink, Schuijf, & Streukens, 2003). The extant organisational image research suggests that organisations should concentrate on building an organisational image that encompasses more of these aspects, as they are important in the eyes of potential applicants (Whetten & Mackey, 2002).

'*Compensation and benefits*' (11.4%), was the next most emphasised employer branding concept. However, there were no differences found between the two groups. The importance of '*compensation and benefits*' however, was only minor in comparison to '*firm attributes*' (40%). Moreover, statements about '*compensation and benefits*' were vague with descriptions such as 'competitive rates' and many organisations used blanket statements such as 'competitive remuneration package', although two organisations did provide in-depth

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descriptions of compensation rate and specified the particular types of benefits the organisation was offering.

Thirdly, '*location*' has been found to be an important contributor to an organisation's image (Highhouse et al., 1999). Overall, the vast majority of organisations in this study did not include information pertaining to '*location*'. However, '*location*' was emphasised to a greater degree by organisations in the mining industry compared to those in higher education. This may be because many mining operations are in rural and remote areas of Australia. As such, in order to attract applicants to the organisation, information about the locality and social opportunities is important.

'*Advancement opportunity*' was emphasised to a lesser degree by organisations. Over half of the organisations evaluated in this study made no mention of characteristics associated with this category. Of the organisations that did include such information, statements such as "excellent opportunities to advance your career", "unrivalled career opportunities" and "committed to developing opportunities for employees" were used. Only 6.45% of text was devoted to this category. The neglect by many organisations on this aspect is surprising as '*advancement opportunity*' was found by Turban and colleagues (1993) to be the second most important attribute used by applicants in assessing organisational attractiveness.

Arguably, organisations predominately focus on themselves with only minor attention to the needs and wants of potential employees. Although organisational image is argued to be an important managerial concern for organisations (Lemmink et al., 2003), results from this study indicate that a majority of organisations are not managing the organisation's image to full effect for employer branding purposes. This suggests that organisations are not incorporating all the information necessary to market themselves as an attractive organisation, which in turn, negatively impacts on the organisation's image as an employer. This may be a tactical error as organisations have only one chance to make a good impression to potential applicants (Backhaus, 2004). From prevailing literature, the purpose of employer branding is

two-fold, organisational attractiveness and differentiation.

CONCLUSION

As organisations today face increasingly unpredictable competitive pressures in the business environment, the skills, knowledge and abilities of human capital are of paramount importance. Consequently, the ability of organisations to attract talented people into the recruitment pool remains critical. As competition for valued human capital increases amongst organisations, there is a growing interest in, and application of branding practices. Despite its popularity amongst practitioners, there is a general paucity of empirical research into employer branding, especially in an Australian context. As such, the aims of the current study were two-fold; replication of existing research and extension of employer branding to the Australian context. The mining and higher education industries were chosen for the investigation of the overarching research question of: "*Do Australian organisations utilise different employer branding strategies?*" A quantitative content analysis was applied to recruitment advertisements in the mining and higher education industry. The overall outcome of the current study indicates that whilst there are some areas of divergence, in the main there was little difference across the two industries examined.

The findings of the present study support the growing body of knowledge in this area. The previous work of Ewing and colleagues (2002) and Backhaus (2004) relating to types of employer branding has been supported, and the conclusion drawn by Backhaus (2004) that unique employer branding identity is infrequent was also confirmed. As such, the results of this study have contributed by adding to the robustness of parts of the theoretical framework of employer branding. On the other hand, from the results of the analyses in this study, employer branding factors previously found by Backhaus (2004) to be different across industries was disconfirmed in the present research in an Australian context.

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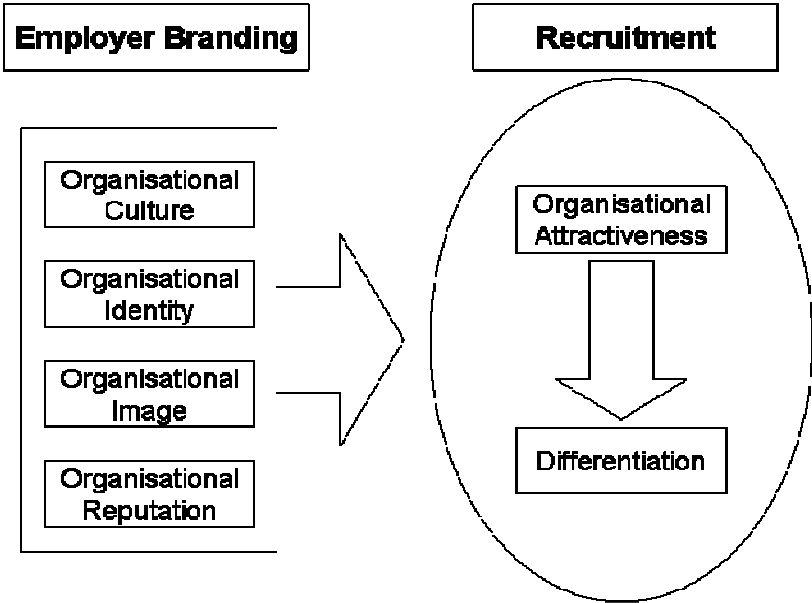**Figure 1. Proposed model of the components of employer branding**

Table 1: Ewing's employer branding equity (EBE) categories

Category	Description
Transnational Inc	'Status and mobility (global network)': Organisations sell their status as a multinational company, with a global workforce.
	The employment proposition is - we're big, we're stable, we're multinational and we're a respected and admired employer - why look any further?
Mission to Mars	'Excitement (new experiences)': Organisations that are not as well known utilise this strategy as a new and exciting organisation, with opportunities for advancement.
	The employment proposition - what we do is exciting, join us and be ahead of the herd.
The local - identification	'The tactic with this employer branding strategy is to utilise existing employees, describe characteristics and attributes that the organisation is seeking and if potential applicants fit the profile, they should join the organisation.
	The employment proposition here - these are the kind of people who succeed in our organisation, if you're of the same ilk, join us and succeed too.

Table 2: Summary of employer brand types identified by Backhaus (2004)

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Employer Brand Type	Main Information Items
1. Product/service-centred employer brand	Attributes of firm, product/service with virtually no other employer branding concepts emphasised.
2. Balanced scorecard brand	Provided a balanced picture of the organisation as an employer with all ten of Backhaus' categories touched on.
3. Career-centred brand	Opportunities of advancement and employee support.
4. Culture-centred brand	Work environment, advancement opportunities and compensation.
5. Compensation-centred brand	Compensation and benefits.

Table 3: A Priori design categories

Dependent Variable	Variable Definition
Firm attributes	Defined as the emphasis on characteristics of the organisation such as size, growth-rate, global reach, success, profitability and other similar characteristics.
Supportive work environment	Defined as the emphasis on characteristics similar to warmth and concern for employees made by the organisation.
Compensation and benefits	Defined as the emphasis made by the organisation on remuneration characteristics.
Challenging work	Defined as the emphasis on articulating the work of the organisation as interesting or challenging.
Location	Defined as the emphasis on characteristics that articulate good opportunities for social life.
Customer orientation	Defined as the extent to which the firm emphasises information about their focus on customer satisfaction.
Advancement opportunities	Defined as the emphasis on characteristics associated with possibilities of career growth.
Climate	Defined as characteristics associated with the general everyday work environment.
Corporate social responsibility	Defined as the extent to which the firm emphasises information that the organisation is a good corporate citizen or emphasis on pro-environmental practices of the organisation.
Work/family balance	Defined as the way the organisation emphasises the assistance to workers in achieving a balance between work and leisure or family commitments.

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Table 4: Emergent coding categories

Dependent Variable	Variable definition
Strategic vision and aim	Defined as emphasis made by organisation in articulating its aims and vision.
Occupational health and safety	Defined as the articulation made by the organisation in providing a safe working environment.
Workplace diversity	Defined as emphasis made by the organisation in the articulation of seeking a diverse workforce.
Employee identification	Defined as emphasis on describing characteristics and attributes that the organisation is seeking or the description of successful employees already within the organisation and if potential applicants fit the profile, they should join the organisation.
Reputation	Defined as the articulation made by the organisation on awards achieved, or any status ranking the organisation has received in promoting that they are a good employer.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std Dev
Firm attributes	51	0	84.30	39.60	24.01
Compensation & benefits	51	0	72.70	11.36	16.75
Work diversity	51	0	83.33	8.34	13.92
Location	51	0	39.50	8.11	13.47
Advancement opportunity	51	0	56.00	6.45	11.07
Supportive work environment	51	0	35.60	5.77	9.56
Corporate social responsibility	51	0	32.70	4.34	8.46
Strategic vision and aim	51	0	44.00	3.58	9.62
Employee identification	51	0	32.05	2.45	6.90
Climate	51	0	37.60	2.45	6.90
Customer orientation	51	0	45.80	2.09	7.57
Work/family balance	51	0	39.80	1.67	6.93
Challenging work	51	0	31.40	1.21	5.40
Occupational health & safety	51	0	15.32	1.06	2.90
Reputation	51	0	15.32	0.53	2.69

Table 6: Summary of cross-industry comparisons

Dependent Variable	Statistical outcome
Firm attributes	Not significant
Compensation & benefits	Not significant
Work diversity	**Significant**
Location	Not significant
Advancement opportunity	Not significant
Supportive work environment	Not significant
Corporate social responsibility	Not significant
Strategic vision and aim	Not significant
Employee identification	**Significant**
Climate	Not significant
Customer orientation	Not significant
Work/family balance	Not significant
Challenging work	Not significant
Occupational health & safety	**Significant**
Reputation	Not significant