
Behavioral Equivalence of Organizational Culture: A Conceptual Framework

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This paper highlights the relevance of organizational culture (OC) with respect to individual, organizational, intra-organizational, industry and external environment related variables which is supplemented by an extensive review of literature on OC over the last three decades. A behavioral perspective on OC is then suggested and propositions are drawn to explain the dynamics involved thus contributing to the emerging process views on organizational culture. A Conceptual Behavioral Model of OC has been derived.

Keywords: Organisational Culture, Behavioural Equivalence

Few aspects of organizational studies have such diverse and fragmented literature as organizational culture (OC). Dominated by psychologists in mid 50s, the field of organization studies had a micro-orientation; early 80s saw advancement of the theoretical concept of OC. By mid 90s, scholars realized they were focusing more on “B” than “O” of micro-OB, more collaboration was required of occupational sociologists, organizational theorists and psychologists, developing a multi-disciplinary field that encompasses micro, meso and macro perspectives and paradigms (Porter, 1996; Schien, 1996). This is perhaps the reason for the outburst of attention to organizational culture studies as it provides for a combined macro and micro analysis. It is also believed that after ‘strong’ and ‘excellent’ cultures were found to have significant positive associations with success of American and Japanese firms (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Ouchi, 1981), there was proliferation of interest in OC.

The term ‘culture’ has different meanings. For example, Kroeber et al (1952) compiled a list of 164 definitions of “culture” from literature. While its presence in sociology and anthropology is ubiquitous and almost as old as the disciplines themselves, the introduction of ‘organizational culture’ to the field of organizational studies is generally credited to Pettigrew in 1979 (Detert et al, 2000). Since then, researchers have dealt with a range of questions from What is culture? Who shares it? How did it come to be? What is it composed of? How are its parts structured? How it works? Conditions for cultures to exist, conditions for culture to affect organizational efficiency as well as other organizational variables; to why and how do we change culture? In what way can culture contribute to controlling an organization, how can we measure culture, in what terms can we describe culture, the cultural change and the cultural difference in various contexts like national, occupational, positional, industry, firm, and its subunits, cross-cultural management in multinationals, mergers and alliances and cultural conflicts.

As the concept of OC enters its fourth decade of existence, we conduct a review and content analysis of the extant literature. Based on our understanding of the concept we subscribe to the dynamic aspect of OC and define it is a continuous process of negotiation between the sources of behavior and the manifestation of behavior of an organization within internal and external environmental context. A behavioral model of OC is then presented followed by propositions about the different sources of behavior and organizational culture in our attempt to explain the dynamics of OC.

The Concept of Organizational Culture

One of the principle problems in studying organizational culture stems from the ontological status of the concept itself (Jones, 1983). Organizational researchers have utilized a wide variety of culture definitions, but most empirical work has centered on the view of culture as an enduring, autonomous phenomenon that can be isolated for analysis and inter-organization comparison (Alexander, 1990). The intricate and complex nature of OC has led to differences and

However, there is some consensus that organizational culture is holistic, historically determined, and socially constructed, and involves beliefs and behavior, exists at a variety of levels, and manifests itself in a wide range of features of organizational life.

controversies about the definition, dimensions, measurement (Cameron and Quinn, 1999) and the context of organizational culture.

Culture is expressed and transmitted through artifacts, stories, myths and symbols (Martin, 1982; Siehl and Martin, 1981; Wilkins, 1980; Pettigrew, 1979).

Underlying these symbolic vehicles are patterns of basic assumptions (Schien, 1981, 1983; Dyer, 1982); a set of shared understandings, interpretations or perspectives (Van Maanen, 1983; Louis, 1983) and expectations (Schwartz, Davis, 1981).

Broadly, two schools of thought exist about organizational culture whether it represents something an organization 'is' or 'has'. Accordingly, researchers have analyzed the concept of OC, both as a root metaphor, i.e. organizations as expressive forms, and manifestations of human consciousness (Cameron 1999; Smircich, 1983); and as an attribute, i.e. possessed by an organization and observable; and even as property (Linstead, 2001). This is because some researchers are concerned by what appears to them to be more fundamental issues of meaning and the processes by which organizational life is possible which is in line with the view that an organization 'is' culture; while others give high priority to the principles of prediction, generalizability, causality, and control drawing from the view that an organization 'has' culture (Smircich, 1983). Both approaches share the conception of organizations as organisms; existing within an environment that presents imperatives for behavior. However, literature is less sanguine about the reciprocal evolution of culture through behavior. Further, culture has been generally accepted to be a phenomenon which is enduring and relatively stable, which is why organizations across the world need external change agents to affect the cultural change intervention.

We support the recent emerging views on culture describing it as a process and as a dynamic phenomenon of an organization. Therefore, in this paper, 1) author examines how organizational behavior is manifested in organizational culture and how behavior shapes organizational culture, 2) author suggests that organizational culture is a process of continuous negotiation between sources of behavior and manifestation of behavior and 3) organizational culture is dynamic as it is nested within a dynamic environmental context, internal and external to the organization. The paper is divided into two sections. First, author presents findings from research published during the period 1979-2009 asserting the continued interest and applicability of the OC concept in organizations. Second, author proposes a new behavioral model for understanding organizational culture and contributes to the growing interest in studying the dynamic aspect of OC.

Review of Literature

Three decades of organizational cultural studies and we have seen change in both content and emphasis. Summarized below are insights gained from OC literature developed during the last three decades. Both conceptual and empirical studies have been reviewed and are spread across various contexts, countries and businesses.

Conceptualization of Organizational Culture

Pettigrew, in 1979 defined 'culture' as the system of publicly and collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time, an important practical consideration in an extended stream of time, events, people, and processes with an example of sequence of social dramas where in each drama provided a clear point of data collection.

Culture in the early 1980s was about explaining the concept, and often prescribed methods for studying and diagnosing culture; while later research was concerned with a more utilitarian approach and asked questions such as "what use may be made of the gained information?" (Hofstede, 1986). A new line of enquiry began around 1987 about the effects of culture on an organization's performance (Arogyaswamy and Byles, Brown, 1992; 1987; Croft, 1990; Lewis, 1994; Nicholson *et al.*, 1990; Petrock,

1990; Saffold, 1988; Sherwood, 1988; Van Donk and Sanders, 1993; Whipp *et al.*, 1989); and whether and how culture can be changed to increase organizational effectiveness (Bettinger, 1989; Critchley, 1993; Fitzgerald, 1988; Hayes and Lemon, 1990; Poupart and Hobbs, 1989; Saraph and Sebastian, 1993; Smith *et al.*, 1994). Since the first study of OC is accredited to Pettigrew in 1979, author begins by reviewing his paper.

Williams' (1980) theoretical model is based on an assumption of society being in a state of constant cultural change and negotiation. In any particular period there is a central, effective, and dominant system of meanings and values which are not merely abstract but which are "organized and lived". The residual culture is the still practiced residue of previous social formations (e.g. certain religious values, notions from a rural past, and notions from a colonial past) that are often retained in order to make sense of the dominant culture. The emergent culture, he explains the new meanings, values, practices, and experiences which are continually being created, some of which are incorporated into the dominant culture and some of which are not. This theory supports our proposition of a dynamic culture, and environment, influencing the interaction of both behaviors and values and thereby affecting a cultural change. Hofstede (1980) published a cross-cultural report exploring the differences in thinking and social action that exist between members of 40 countries between 1968 and 1972 and called it 'national culture'. He argued that people carry mental programs developed early in the family during early childhood and reinforced in schools and organizations, and they contain a component of national culture. Though providing a starting point for understanding national cultures, the study has come under criticism for using a comparative logic in a heterogeneous setting at a time when quantitative comparisons of organizational cultures within a single cultural context were seen as unfounded (Denison, 1996).

When Schien(1983) emphasized the role of the founder and stated that organizational culture will always reflect the complex interaction between the assumptions and theories that founders bring to the group initially and what the group learns subsequently from its own experiences, it also explained the importance of time and dynamics of change, of how the values came initially from the founder and, as the group learned while experimenting with behaviors over a period of time, culture was developed. It is thus implied that culture will change as environment goes through unpredictable times. The model that emerges is one of shared solutions to problems which work well enough to begin to be taken for granted-to the point they drop out of awareness. Martin, Siehl (1983) suggested that while organizational culture is used to transmit top management's interpretations of the meaning of events throughout the organization, generate commitment to their practices and control behavior, three subcultures may exist, 'enhancing', 'orthogonal' and

‘counterculture’. Cultural mechanisms can also be used to undermine top-management objectives, which she called ‘counter-culture’. In addition to serving integrative functions, cultures can express conflicts addressing need for differentiation among organizational elements, the conflicting subcultures. Thus, Martin extended the OC concept by explaining how parallel cultures could exist within an organization and their understanding could help in conflict-management. Further implications are that as new generations and new entrants become a part of the organization, they will not only influence the dominant, but also the parallel forms of existing cultures.

Barley (1983) offered semiotics as one avenue for conceptualizing and analyzing occupational and organizational cultures to address issues of what the culture is composed of, how its parts are structured and how it works. Trice and Beyer (1984) described specific rites and ceremonials as manifestations of culture; rites of passage, of degradation, of enhancement, of renewal, of conflict reduction and of integration and that it may help to focus researchers’ attention on behaviors and occurrences that they otherwise might have overlooked. If semiotics represents culture, or at least is the visible part of culture, numerous examples from the corporate world about change of symbols e.g., company logos, statements of vision and mission, etc. in such case would only reflect a change in values and beliefs, which need not be the result of a conscious change intervention but a natural growth phenomenon.

Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983 called culture as ‘clan’ and that goal congruence and presence of a general paradigm in the interest of the collective helps clan control to govern organizations efficiently under conditions of ambiguity, complexity, and interdependence of transactions; market and bureaucracy form of governance would be more efficient where the level of complexity or uncertainty is relatively low or moderate

These themes can more explicitly be explained with the environmental context. Paul Reynolds (1986) adopted a more utilitarian perspective and argued that statements about organizational culture should reflect differences related to industries, technical or task requirements and that to expect the same cultural

Organizational culture can be a source of sustained competitive advantage if it is valuable, rare and imperfectly imitable.

systems to foster success in all industries seems inaccurate. Given the multidirectional nature of the concept, Meyerson (1987) identified three perspectives of OC research: ‘integration’, ‘differentiation’ and ‘fragmentation’. The integrationist perspective positions culture as an

integrating mechanism, the normative glue; differentiation emphasizes that different groups in organization embrace different and even incompatible beliefs, values and assumptions; fragmentation perspective acknowledges that ambiguity is an inevitable aspect of organizational life and organizational situations exist in which it is not appropriate to identify consistency of values and basic assumptions.

Marcoulides (1993) proposed a new model wherein organizational culture is hypothesized to consist of three interrelated dimensions: a socio-cultural system of the perceived functioning of the organization's strategies and practices, an organizational value system, and the collective beliefs of the individuals working within the organization, possibly explaining why some organizations are not performing at desired levels of productivity.

Detert et al (2000) presented another synthesis on OC in terms of eight dimensions of organizational culture, on the basis of truth and rationality in the organization, the nature of time and time horizon, motivation, stability change/ innovation, personal growth, orientation to work, task, and co-workers, isolation vs. collaboration, and responsibility and orientation and focus-internal and/or external and how these dimensions corresponded to the values and beliefs of TQM.. Daymon (2000) applied a multi-perspective analytical framework to explore organization members' experiences as they adjusted

to, and strove to shape, working life in a new television station. The paper suggests that culture formation is a fluid, ongoing process whereby cohesion, division and ambiguity continuously intertwine. Zheng et al (2009) in a recent framework propose that as the organization goes through its life stages of start-up, growth, maturity, and revival, organizational culture evolves through corresponding mechanisms of inspiration, implantation, negotiation, and transformation. This framework also contributes to the literature on the dynamic view of culture and suggests that human resource development professionals need to be perceptive of the life stages of their organizations and intentionally leverage different cultural mechanisms to respond to critical organizational needs.

Interrelating OC with other variables Empirical work using conceptual frameworks and validated instruments dominate the cultural studies since 90s. Researchers have tried to relate OC, empirically and conceptually, with other organizational variables.

Organizational culture has been found to be useful in understanding organizational variables like job satisfaction, work related attitudes like organizational commitment; individual's sense-making, self-efficacy and collective efficacy.

OC and Individual-Level Variables Harris (1994) proposed a schema based perspective that in the social setting of organizations, individuals make sense out of their experiences, based in large part on the outcomes of contrived mental dialogues between themselves and other contextually-relevant individuals or groups, again supporting the cultural negotiation process. Bloor et al (1994) attempt to identify the complex interplay between individual sense-making, group beliefs and culture in an

an organization's operating environment is identified as a major factor which facilitates and constrains the propensity for professional subcultures to radically transform or incrementally refine dominant organizational cultures. Lund (2003) empirically investigated the relationship between OC types on job satisfaction in a survey of marketing professionals in USA. Job satisfaction was positively related to clan and adhocracy types of culture type and negatively to market and adhocracy.

OC and Organizational –level Variables Hansen & Wernerfelt (1989) empirically evaluated the relative importance of economic and organizational factors as determinants of firm performance and found that organizational factors were twice as effective in explaining the variance in profit rates. Scholars have also related leadership (Weese, 1995; Wallace, 1994; Jung and Avolio, 1999), quality practices like TQM (Bright, 1993; Zeitz, 1997; Detert et al, 2000; Lewis, 2002) and Ethics (Sinclair, 1993) extensively with OC. A descriptive research study was conducted to investigate the concepts of transformational leadership and organizational culture within the administrative levels of campus recreation programs of Big Ten and Mid-American Conference universities. (Weese, 1995). The researcher concluded that high transformational leaders direct programs that (a) possess stronger organizational cultures and (b) carry out culture-building activities, specifically the "customer orientation" function, to a greater extent than other leaders do. Another empirical study conducted in 69 Canadian YMCA organizations revealed that significant differences in organizational culture existed between the organizations led by transformational leaders who were rated high and between those who were rated low on transformational leadership (Wallace 1994). Collectivists (as in Hofstede's (1980) dimensions)

with a transformational leader generated more ideas, but individualists generated more ideas with a transactional leader while performing a brainstorming task. Group performance was generally higher than that of individuals working alone. However, collectivists generated more ideas that required fundamental organizational changes when working alone (Jung and Avolio, 1999). OC affects how the topic of quality and its management is understood and implemented in organizations. It is found that total quality management (TQM) makes a number of assumptions about organizational culture, more so that it will support the change intervention. Without the knowledge of culture, companies' attempts for quality interventions are a failure (Bright, 1993).

Zeitz (1997) presented a relatively compact instrument that allows researchers and practitioners to measure perceived culture and TQM implementation among all types of employees, work contexts, and TQM program levels. Detert et al (2000) concluded that each of the normative TQM values addressed some aspect of the general OC dimension, and implies that that different OC dimensions could be used to explain several other change interventions. Lewis(2002) described how organizational culture was first linked with TQM and has since been associated with business process reengineering(BPR), organizational learning, and knowledge management, all are said to involve either changing a culture or working with an existing culture. Sinclair (1993) assessed the potential of organizational culture as a means for improving ethics in organizations. The feasibility and desirability of the prevailing approach that creating a unitary cohesive culture around core moral values is the solution to enhancing ethical behavior in terms of ethical outcomes is questioned. The model queries the existence of organizational culture at all, arguing that organizations are nothing more than shifting coalitions of subcultures. The arguments made suggest that a strong culture could be fostering dissent and under pressure forcing people to enact unethical behaviors. Thus it supports the need for our perspective on OC such that the organization is able to scan its environment, to anticipate and respond to the rapidly changing needs of all stakeholders.

OC and Industry-level Variables. Industry macro-cultures have also been found to influence organizational culture, and cultural studies have been conducted across service and manufacturing businesses revealing linkages of culture with performance and productivity (Gordon, 1991; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Gotwan et al, 1992; Brown, 1992; Zammuto et al, 1992). Levels of culture, industry effects, competitive environment and customer requirements have also been analyzed. Gordon (1991) developed the argument that organizational or corporate culture is strongly influenced by the characteristics of the industry in which the company operates.

Kotter & Heskett (1992) conducted a number of related studies using 207 firms, over a five year period to examine the relationship of strong culture and performance and found only a modest correlation. However, firms with cultures suited to their market environment performed better. Gotwan et al(1992) demonstrated using data, from management surveys of 11 US insurance companies in 1981 that both a strong culture regardless of content and a substantive value placed on adaptability are associated with

better performance for two to three subsequent years on two criterion measures of asset and premium growth rates from 1982 to 1987. The results support the findings of Denison (1990) that strength of culture is predictive of short-term performance.

Brown (1992) suggested that all three levels of organization's culture (basic assumptions, values and beliefs and visible artifacts; as by Schien, 1984) are extremely powerful determinants of organizational life, and are intuitively incorporated into the actions of skilled executives who use them to manage people, formulate strategy and induce organizational change. Zammuto et al (1992) examined roles that organization design and culture play in the varying levels of success experienced by advanced manufacturing technology adopting organizations. Kale et al (1992) provide a conceptual framework within which cross-national personal selling interactions can be studied, evaluated and integrated suggesting that the degree of congruence in organizational cultures will affect the level of buyer-seller compatibility and outcome of sale interaction. Gordon (1999) builds on the proposition that industry demands induce certain cultural characteristics, observed as consistent and widespread practices which are necessary for survival, but that these are not sufficient for superior performance. Empirical evidence was provided that industry membership, even at a crude level, is associated with certain aspects of a suitable culture as seen in practices, and that these practices are related to a firm's revenue growth within this broadly defined industry. Thus, OC has been found to explain a wide range of organizational phenomenon, addressing the limitations of other organizational variables, more tangible in nature.

OC and Intra-organization level Variables. With time, interest in culture of an organization as a whole shifted to sub-cultures 'in' and cultural gap 'between' different parts of an organization.

Within an industry, firms share the industry driven cultural elements which are influenced by industry characteristics and are based on assumptions about the competitive environment, customer requirements and societal expectations.

Further, terminologies and forms like official and unofficial culture, political culture, conformance and resistance culture, espoused and true culture, security culture, practice culture, dysfunctional culture drew attention of the researchers (Bourantas et al, 1990; Buch, 2001; Fleet et al, 2006; Jermier et al, 1991). Evidence of presence of sub-cultures and culture gap in private and public Greek enterprises was reported; and that reduction of cultural gap was possible by the age and tenure of the manager (Bourantas et al, 1990). ‘Conformance’ and ‘resistance’ subcultures in opposition to ‘official culture’ were discussed while comparing and contrasting an organization's official culture and its subcultures in a police organization (Jermier et al, 1991). Buch (2001) made a statement that organizations say one thing and do another. One is the ‘espoused culture’ and the other is ‘true culture’. When there is a gap between the two, it needs to be realigned. Murphy (2002) explored the use of official company values as a device for the achievement of cultural control. The study reveals a perceived discrepancy between the official espousal of the values by the company and their actual enactment, especially in the attitudes and behavior of senior management. It is also argued that political considerations, including powerful, unofficial cultural and sub cultural norms, will override the impact of officially espoused, but unembedded values.

OC and Environment-Related variables. The role of culture has been discussed by researchers in corporate citizenship, business process reengineering, organizational learning, organizational change, knowledge management, international alliances as well as in the emerging perspectives of strategic alliances, sustainability and future organizations (Harris, 2002; Lewis, 2002; Maignan et al, 2001; Rashid, 2003). Authors have also pointed out how culture can have negative consequences if not managed with care and have cautioned against corporate culturism (Harris, 2002; Murphy, 2002; Tourish, 2002) and that almost everyone has been in an organization that says one thing but does another (Buch, 2001). The article by Tourish (2002) examines transformational leadership (TL), a theory that has been closely linked to corporate culturism--a means of gaining competitive advantage through coherent cultures with a particularly focus on the downside of TL and its ability to lead an organization in a destructive manner. ‘Unintended consequences of Culture interventions’ by Harris (2002) elucidate eight forms of management action during culture change programs which had serious consequences for the organizations concerned. ‘Dysfunctional Culture’ styles were found to link with deficits in operating efficiency and effectiveness in a large study with data compiled from 60,900 respondents of four state government departments (Pierre, et al, 2006). Walumbwa et al (2005) conducted a cross-cultural study examining how collective and self efficacy moderated the influence of transformational leadership on followers’ work related attitudes of organizational commitment and job satisfaction

across different bank branches in India, U.S. and China ; results revealed that US ranked higher on self and collective efficacy while India scored higher mean for organizational commitment and there was no significant difference in the job satisfaction suggesting the influence of individualistic and collectivistic national cultures on organizational variables.

OC Studies in Different Contexts and Countries

New directions emerged in the field of organizational culture studies during the last two decades. Cross cultural studies were reported in the last decade which also witnessed research in cultural studies being reported from different countries like Bangladesh, Canada, China, Hong Kong, India, Malaysia, New Zealand, U.K., U.S.A., Singapore, South Africa (Bebbington et al ,2007; Bryson ,2008; Daymon ,2000; Jackson, 2005; Lee, Yu 2004; Ogbonna et al ,2002; Rashid ,2003; Taormina, 2008; Lucas, Kline, 2008) subscribing to the widespread interest in the field of organizational culture. OC studies have also taken place in areas of work-life programs (Chalofsky, 2008), organizational socialization (Taornima, 2008) and culture of family firms. Mintu et al (1996) conducted a study to examine sellers' co-operative behaviors, exploring the behavioral characteristics and environmental cues prior to and during the actual negotiation encounter. The study investigates individual, organizational, and demographic-related antecedent variables and the co-operative negotiation process of industrial exporters representing two different cultures. Williams (1998) developed a conceptual model of cross-cultural business relationships. An exploratory study was conducted to examine the impact of social and structural bonding as determinants of business relationship performance. The study found that knowledge of cultural orientation and its relationship to the social and structural bond that exists between partners is a key predictor of long-term commitment in cross-national business relationships.

Ogbonna et al (2002) performed a ten year, two phase study of UK Food retailing sector and suggested that industry macro-cultures may have impact on both the performance of individual firms and the management of organizational culture. Rashid (2003) studied the influence of organizational culture on affective, cognitive and behavioral attitudes towards organizational change in Malaysian manufacturing industries. Findings show that different types of organizational culture have different levels of acceptance of attitudes toward organizational change. A survey using Competing Values framework in Hong Kong confirmed the validity of the model as a tool in differentiating organizations (Kwan et al, 2004). Denison (2004) examined organizational culture in family and non-family firms and how it related to performance. It

became increasingly clear that family business sustainability and accomplishment were rooted in something deeper, something beyond superficial explanation and it was their 'positive' culture. Sirmon (2004) proposed a model of cultural differences and international alliance performance to explain the ambiguous findings regarding the influence of national cultural differences on alliance performance. Lee, Yu (2004) investigated relationship between corporate culture and performance in Singaporean firms and also demonstrated empirically that a set of replicable cultural dimensions exist across organizations, implies that culture can be measured with repeatable, easily administered instruments that permit systematic comparisons. Cultural Strength and innovation were found to be significantly correlated with sum insured in insurance industry, supportiveness was found to be related to growth in net profits in manufacturing industry and team orientation and task orientation were significantly correlated with staff turnover rates in hospitals. Some cultural dimensions were affected by industry membership while others were not.

Another study was conducted in South African military context as the wider society underwent transition from apartheid to democracy necessitating the integration of a multicultural force. Empirical study found significant differences in attitudes among cultural groups (Jackson, 2005). Barger (2007) suggested that in an international joint venture two cultures collide, a new culture is created and the culture of parent firm plays an important role in influencing the successful blending of cultures. This highlights the need for cross cultural management. Bebbington et al (2007) presented a World Bank funded case study in Bangladesh to illustrate the ways in which cultural interactions between a variety of organizations mediate the ways in which textual commitments are translated into a range of diverse practices. 'Security Culture' with eight dimensions was investigated by Ruighaver (2007) focusing on end-users and on the technical aspects of security in IT industry calling for a management focus on security culture. Bryson (2008) addressed the issues of time and perspectives which underlie the contested nature of culture by explaining the dynamics of organizational change through dominant, residual and emergent culture with a case study in New Zealand setting. Taormina (2008) looks into the theories regarding leadership, organizational culture, and organizational socialization and how they can influence organizational culture in Chinese organizations. Chalofsky (2008) links work-life programs with OC and suggests that organizational culture is the essence of workplace community.

Lucas, Kline (2008), in a Canadian case study, tried to understand the influence of organizational culture on group dynamics of organizational change and learning. Certain group and cultural phenomenon when manifested had significant influence on group members' response to

organizational change and their capacity to learn. Kralewski (2008) discussed 'practice culture' of medical groups to demonstrate that it is difficult to manage patient care when there is wide disagreement among clinicians about norms of behavior. Based on the review of literature author found that OC as a concept has achieved widespread importance in organizational studies across various contexts. OC has been conceptualized in different forms and has been found to relate to several other phenomena of organizations, both as an antecedent and as a consequence. It has also been found to be related to the individual level, organization and intra-organizational level, industry level and environment level variables. Author find that inspite of several frameworks available to enhance our understanding of OC, there is a need to develop a comprehensive model which takes into account various levels of influences on it. Author also suggest a behavioral point of view of OC and propose a conceptual framework.

Proposing a Conceptual Framework

It is suggested that organizational culture is a constant negotiation of 'sources of behaviour' and the 'manifestations of behaviour' in the organizational and environmental context. Author describes first our understanding of how culture develops.

Evolution of OC

The shared patterns of values, beliefs, assumptions (sources of behavior) are evolved as a result of experimentation with behaviors at the time of inception of an organization. Behaviors are actions or reactions to stimuli, internal or external; hence, while coping with internal and external issues, the organization attempts different forms of behavior and receives positive or negative feedback. As a result, it perceives different behaviors as successful or unsuccessful to a varying degree and classifies them as desirable, suitable or otherwise. The behavior perceived as desirable for the effectiveness, success or survival of the organization is reinforced; behavior which is non-conforming is discouraged and blocked. The workable and generally accepted solutions reduce the initial uncertainty faced by all members of the organization, which is a traumatic experience (Schien, 1985). These experiments are repeated to test the validity of behaviors, which once established, is accepted by most participants of the organization; to the limits that it gets transformed into assumptions, values and beliefs. Psychological contracts are created and are relatively stable, acting as stabilizer of individual behavior (Witte, Muijen, 1999).

The individual beliefs and values of participants, more so, of the people with influence, is likely to affect the perceived desirable behaviors and perceived success of organization during the initial struggle and stabilizing period. Founders often start with a theory of how to succeed; they have a cultural paradigm in their heads based on their experiences in the culture in which they grew up (Schien, 1983). With the passage of time, these assumptions, values and beliefs become the 'sources of behavior' and guide and direct subsequent 'manifestation of behavior' and there is a convergence of norms. This is in line with O'Reilly & Chatman's (1996) view that culture is "a system of shared values defining what is important, and norms, defining appropriate attitudes and behaviors, that guide members' attitudes and behaviors"; and Schien's (1985, 1992) definition of culture as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and integral integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" further arguing that values and behavior were more superficial representations of this underlying structure.

Literature does not discuss if there is a difference in how an insider or a stakeholder or an outsider perceive and experience the culture of an organization. Culture researchers have been more concerned with the evolution of social systems over time (Pettigrew, 1979; Schien, 1985, 90); importance of a deep understanding of underlying assumptions (Kunda, 1992); individual meaning (Geertz, 1973; Pondy et al, 1983) and the insider's point of view of the organization (Denison, 1996). Since no organization can exist in isolation and is accountable to its internal as well as external associations,

OC is a vehicle through which an organization encompasses the behavior variables and the sources of behavior; and influences through their interaction, behavior outcomes in the organizational context. Once culture is formed, though intangible and invisible, this reflection of an organization becomes obvious, and is experienced as its culture to an insider, stakeholder and an outsider who comes in contact with the organization.

organizational culture is also likely to encompass the external environment which in turn will influence the behaviors and their outcomes in the environmental context.

Dynamics of OC

Traditional definitions assume that culture is enduring, and relatively stable; and once formed it could be learned by whoever is or becomes a part of the organization. But author know that organizations display what can be thought of as "learning disabilities," or what Argyris might call "defensive routines" that get in the way of the kind of second-order learning (Argyris and Schon, 1996). Parker (2002) demonstrates that because organizational members do not see the past of the organization in the same way, they orient themselves to different futures. In addition, the struggle between organizations bent on normative control and individuals subjected to it is over the definition of reality (Kunda, 1992). According to the social information-processing view (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978) and cognitive view (Weick, 1969), the definitions of the situation offered by others and people's past experiences in social context provide the selection mechanisms or norms and values through which people enact events.

Sources of Behavior: Individual level. Individuals possess certain values and beliefs as a result of their own backgrounds and demographics, it is less likely that they will accept the behavioral norms as established by the culture of the organizations in totality. Also, as new entrants or new generations take over, they will try to negotiate their own values based on past experiences, self-efficacy and schemas with those of the dominant culture of the organization. This in turn is likely to have an influence on the manifestation of behaviors like sense-making and collaboration and also on the behavioral outcomes like relationships and psychological contracts. Conversely, author could argue that, strength of relationships and satisfying psychological contracts could possibly alter individual behavior and in turn enhance an individual's self-efficacy and alter schemas. Karahanna et al (2005) integrated different levels of culture, national, professional, organizational and group, by explicitly recognizing that individual's workplace behavior is a function of different cultures simultaneously.

Proposition 1: The individual level sources of behavior, and hence the individual values and beliefs based on their past experiences, schemas and self-efficacy will negotiate with the dominant and current values and beliefs of an organization and thus influence the organizational culture.

Sources of Behavior: Organizational level. The organizations internal environment is affected by its structure, purpose and practices which are in turn to some extent guided by the founder or the existing leader. Thus, a general paradigm exists in the organization as a whole which guides the common values of the organization. However, different work groups within an organization

may have different nature of tasks and hence need to perform different behaviors. As a result they may hold unique values in addition to or different from the generally accepted values and beliefs of the organization. These group values are called subcultures and have been discussed in detail in literature. Accordingly author suggest that,

Proposition 2: The organizational and intra-organizational level sources of behavior, and hence the values and beliefs based on the structure, leadership and group specific tasks will negotiate with the dominant and current values and beliefs of an organization and thus influence the organizational culture.

Sources of Behavior: Industry level. Although culture is unique to an organization or its subunits, industries exert influences that cause cultures to develop within defined parameters (Gordon, 1991). These macro-factors of the industry are likely to influence organizations to manifest behaviors in response to the competition, needs of customers, the nature of product or services and societal expectations, as per industry norms. These behaviors will be common and shared by the industry members and may also be different from organizations in other industries. Thus, an organization's values and beliefs are likely to be influenced by the behaviors forced upon them by virtue of the industry that they belong to.

Proposition 3: The industry level sources of behavior, and hence the values and beliefs determined by the nature of product or service , the competition and societal expectations will negotiate with the dominant and current values and beliefs of an organization and thus influence the organizational culture.

External Environment. The process of evolution of culture, as has been pointed earlier, involves the external and internal environment. As a result, behavior found useful for success of an organization under a set of conditions of the external and internal environment and a set of people as its constituents at a certain period of time is likely to differ with time and as environment changes. As in the present context, the global economy witnessed a major turbulence with the meltdown of the U.S. economy and the related impact on several emerging economies and business depending on exports. The uncertainties associated with recession and recovery call for different set of organizational behaviors in order to survive and perform. In general, the environment poses certain requirement of behaviors to suit its needs. Organizations also need to be prepared for adapting their behaviors in order to remain competitive under changing environment conditions. Besides, many organizations have their offices in different countries.

With the advent of globalization and mergers and acquisitions across borders, understanding of national culture and imperatives for behavior has become vital.

As a result, external environment creates a need for new behaviors which negotiate with the current manifestation of behaviors and thus change the dominant values and beliefs of the organization. The assumption here is that all participants of an organization would like to see their organization succeed, and the meaning of success may change with environmental contexts.

Proposition 4: The external sources of behavior, and hence the values and beliefs derived from the national culture and general economic conditions will negotiate with the dominant and current values and beliefs of an organization and thus influence the organizational culture.

As described above, and following from the four hypothesis stated, there seems to be a continuous interplay between the organizational culture, its subculture, the internal and external environment of the organization and the leadership and people with influence who guide behavior. As manifestation of behavior changes, so do behavior outcomes. As described in the beginning, if organizational success demands a change of behavior and experimentation with behaviors gives rise to new forms of behaviors, they are likely to get accepted and become the norms, eventually bringing about a change in the values and beliefs at different levels according to the respective needs of these levels in an organization.

Proposition 5: The manifestation of behaviors, based on the outcomes of behaviors in various behavioral contexts are likely to shape the values and beliefs of the organization which in turn will negotiate with the individual and organizational level sources of behavior in an organization and thus influence the organizational culture.

Following the five hypotheses described above, OC is likely to be in a state of flux at all times. Author therefore suggests that culture is dynamic and is a continuous process of interaction between what is manifested as a behavior and the sources of that behavior. As organizations and its members strive to achieve optimum performance, they always try to negotiate between the manifested behavior and their sources in behavioral contexts which are inherently dynamic. It therefore follows that,

Proposition 6: Organizational Culture is dynamic and a result of the continuous negotiation of sources of behavior and the manifestation of behavior in an organization's behavioral context.

Discussion

Review of various studies has supported our view of understanding culture as dynamic and dependent on various internal and external environment conditions which invariably change with time, an assumption more valid in today's global village. These studies suggest that culture has time perspective, is related to performance and non-performance as well as to other variables related to performance and that in the highly ambiguous, uncertain and complex times, firms with cultures suited to their market environment will perform better (e.g. Pettigrew, 1979; Williamson, 1980; Schien, 1983; Martin, Siehl, 1983; Barley, 1983; Wilkins, Ouchi, 1983; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Harris, 1994; Barger, 2007; Bryson, 2008; Taormina, 2008; Zheng et al, 2009). Pettigrew (1979) advocated longitudinal-processual study of organizations. Williamson (1980) demonstrated the existence of dominant, emergent and residual cultures. All of these suggest that as organizations evolve they will filter behavior norms suited to contemporary requirements. Therefore, in order to survive and succeed, as new groups take charge, and as old behaviors become dysfunctional, new behaviors will be required which will challenge the values, beliefs and assumptions of the organization and a new culture will be negotiated on a continuous basis. Using the above arguments, author have presented the behavioral model of OC. Researchers of systemic change initiatives have paid little direct attention to the values, beliefs and underlying assumptions that support or impede these new behaviors (Detert et al, 2000). In absence of giving way to new behaviors, the sources of behavior would be criticized of exercising normative control. It has been pointed that culture serves as organizational control mechanisms, informally approving or prohibiting some patterns of behavior helping the top management to control behavior in accordance with their objectives (Martin et al., 1983). Most traditional OC definitions thus imply that OC is something developed and retained by organizations such that it is relatively stable and enduring. Hence, cultural change intervention is sought through the help of external agents. How do existing definitions of culture, then, explain the context of changing environments? If OC is affected by different levels of sources of behavior as described in a model and as evidenced by several studies carried out in the past decades, how can culture be stabled and enduring ?

Literature addresses this perplexity through the concept of organizational climate. Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) defined climate as the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the environment which are experienced by the occupants and influence their behavior i.e. there is

emphasis on how the social environment is experienced by the actors while culture theorists like Schien argue how the social environment is created by the actors (Denison, 1996). This implies that while the organization experiences changing environments (climate), the culture (basic assumptions) created remains unaltered, a premise on which organizations across the world need external change agents. Author argues that since beliefs are formed through experiments of behavior, a consistent requirement of change in behavior would automatically lead to formation of new beliefs.

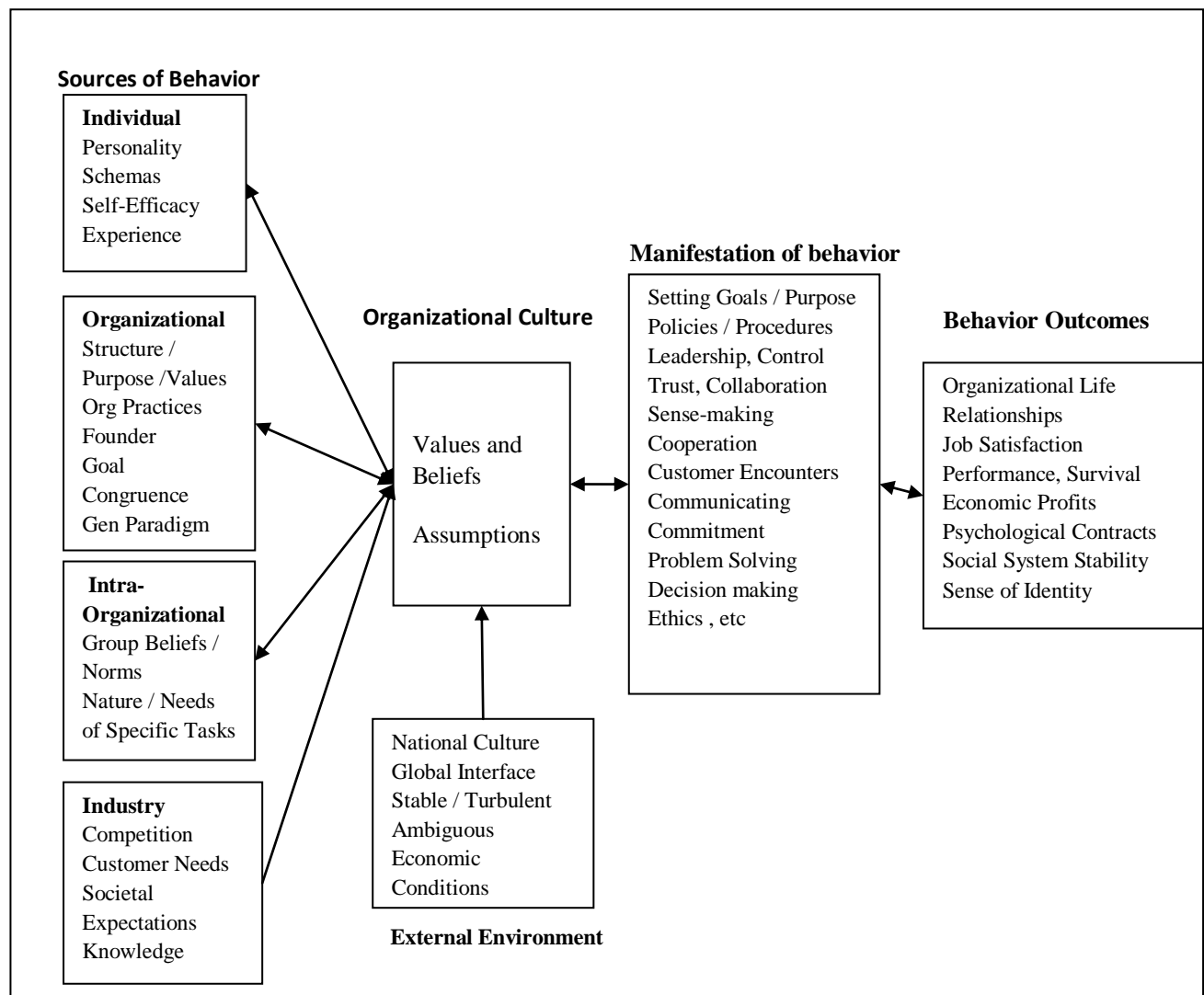


Fig 1 A Conceptual Framework of OC

Eventually, this will alter the underlying assumptions of the founders who had an important role in developing the culture of the organization. Even if they are resilient to this change, they may withdraw to enable the new generation to devise new behaviors to compete in the changing environment. This is likely to induce change in the culture of the organization. Hence, while some elements of culture may still be unaffected, other elements of culture may change by environment

which is always changing. Author had tried to contribute to the dynamic aspects of culture using a behavioral model and have indicated that new behaviors will affect a change in culture.

Authors of literature on climate and culture have attempted to understand this process of reciprocal evolution, but they have often been more successful at explaining one process or the other, rather than both at the same time (Denison, 1996). Concepts for understanding culture in organizations have value only when they derive from observation of real behavior in organizations, when they make sense of organizational data, and when they are definable enough to generate further study (Schien, 1996). Since organizational culture studies cannot be complete without differentiating it from climate, author present below our understanding of the two concepts.

The climate research has its roots in Lewin's (1951) expression of relationship between individuals and their social environments in terms of a simple equation:

$$B = f(P, E)$$

where in B = behavior, E = the environment, and P = the person. According to Lewinian field theory, the social world can neatly be divided into Bs, Ps and Es. This assumes that managers are the agents providing for a climate and employees work in that climate and there is little scope for contribution of the individuals to the social context or the environment. Author suggests organizational culture (OC) can be represented in a rather complex equation as below:

$$OC = f(B, V, E)$$

where in B = behavior, E = the environment, and V = the values and beliefs. Our assumption is that Bs, Vs and Es are not independent but interdependent and have interaction effects; Vs have more influence on the internal environment and Es relate more to external environment which is dynamic and in times as now, both are turbulent, both influence the Bs and assist in reciprocal evolution of the organizational culture and indulge in cultural negotiation, a term coined by Williamson (1980). After all, the organizations are not only made up of individual interactions but are also a determining context for those interactions (Ashforth, 1985; Barley, 1986; Golden, 1992; Poole, 1985; Poole & McPhee, 1983; Riley, 1983; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Although culture as a process and more critical views have increased in popularity emphasizing the need for greater reflexivity in organizational research (Alvesson, 2002; Weick, 1999; Hawkins, 1997), where

empirical studies are reported they still tend to reflect one point in time and thus fail to capture the process of cultural negotiation. Sound theory must take into account the history and the future of a system and relate them to the present (Pettigrew, 1979).

Conclusion and Implications for Future Research

Research that can contribute practical assistance to achieving a dynamic and broad contextual perspective is sparse throughout the literature on organizational culture (Bryson, 2008). This paper adds to the body of literature in two ways: 1). It presents organizational culture research carried out during the past three decades in order to provide future researchers with useful insights. 2) It provides a comprehensive framework and a behavioral perspective to understanding organizational culture and why and how it will change as an organization evolves through changing environment conditions, internal and external. Future research can examine each source of behavior of OC in detail and also the dynamics involved in the interchange between the manifestation of organization behavior and the source of behavior. Consequently, the proposed model has implications for practice as managers can have an overall assessment of the organizational culture by analyzing manifestations of organizational behavior and also by identifying sources of behavior.

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In-depth study of Emotional Competence Proficiency of Employees during Selling Encounters in Organized Retail

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The domain specific framework developed by Verbeke et al. (2004) has been applied in this research to identify the dimensionality of Emotional Competence (EC) Skills of employees during selling encounters in organized retail. An effort has been made to identify and differentiate the EC proficiency of employees during selling encounters. A sample of 200 employees in selling tasks was selected in Ahmedabad region. The factor loading was applied and seven Emotional Competence proficiencies named Empathy with Emotions of Customers, Self Representation, Character, Convincing Customers, Ethical Sincerity, Ethical Emotional Flexibility and Ironic Behaviour, were found, which represented the EC proficiency of employees during selling encounters. The mean analysis revealed that the EC proficiency of employees during selling encounters was found to be moderate. The analysis of Emotional Competency of employees during selling encounters in three different retail formats showed that the employees were less ethically sincere and more ethically and emotionally flexible, but up to certain limit during their selling encounters. The employees had empathy towards emotions of customers and ability to explore new perspectives, especially in employees of apparel stores and electronic stores. But, the employees were found less effective in terms of their self representations while managing emotions of customers.

Keywords: Emotional Competence, Organized Retail, Sales People

Emotional Competence (Saarni, 1999) and Emotional Capability (Huy, 1999) precisely capture the view that individuals and groups manage their emotions purposively, in the sense that they express people's individuality and the capacity to cope with emotionally challenging situations, while at the same time behaving in accordance with organizational goals and norms. A person's capacity to experience, manage and direct emotions within social situations should have a sense of appropriateness and purpose.

“Emotions are usually characterized as affective, short-lived, relatively intense and typically interruptive of thought processes”

Emotions are usually characterized as affective, short-lived, relatively intense and typically interruptive of thought processes (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotions as organized psychological subsystems, including the psychological, cognitive, motivational and experiential systems. Mumby and Putnam (1992) define emotion as the

sensations and positive or affective responses to organizational situations. Emotions typically arise in response to an event, either internal or external that has positively or negatively valenced meaning for the individual. Emotions can be distinguished from the closely related concept of mood, where emotions are shorter and generally more intense. Emotions are experienced as feelings that often occur simultaneously along with our cognitive (conscious) thoughts. The emotional feeling may be subtle or powerful. Competency is the capacity or ability to engage in transaction with a variable and challenging social physical environment (Verberke et al., 2007).

Defining Emotional Competence

Although some researchers agree that emotional competence is the same as emotional intelligence (refers to abilities to recognize and regulate emotions), emotional competence resonates only to some extent with different perspectives on emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) portray emotional intelligence in terms of the ability to perceive and express emotions, to understand and use them and to manage one's emotions so as to foster personal growth. Emotional intelligence is an innate personality trait and is a function of cognitive resources. On the other hand, Emotional competence is a capacity or skill that results from long-term efforts to integrate disparate emotional skills in ways that enable persons to manage their emotions appropriately within an organization. (Verberke et al., 2007). Goleman (1989) argue that emotional intelligence underlies emotional competence and that emotional competence is a required antecedent to performance. Emotional intelligence enhances potential for learning and emotional competence translates that potential into task-mastering capabilities.

Emotional Competence can be understood as an ability to create ideal emotional selves that guide emotional self-regulation and is goal directed or teleonomic (Bannano, 2001). Emotional Competence involves coping with ambiguity through integrating seemingly contradictory emotional skills into bounded emotionality (Mumby and Putnam, 1992). Bounded Emotionality involves individuals choosing appropriate organizational actions based on a system of tolerance and ambiguity rather than a system of reducing ambiguity through satisfying.

“An Emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding”

An Emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work (Verberke et al., 2007). Emotional competence is one's learned abilities and knowledge building attitudes related to one's cognitive, effective and social aspects of emotional intelligence in particular environment. On the interpersonal level, emotionally and

socially intelligent means to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions.

Characteristics of Emotional Competence

Emotional competence has several distinct characteristics, some of them are: (1) Emotional competence is domain specific (Huy, 1999). (2) Emotional competence is learned and emerges from effortful actions over a longer period of time (Allport, 1937). (3) Emotional competence does not require emotional intelligence (Sternberg, 1990). (4) Emotional Competence has been defined with reference to ethical values (Saarni, 2002).

Emotional Competence as Emotional Skills

Saarni (2000) explains how individuals learn to flexibly apply a set of emotions management skills to their social environments (like in families, friends and schools), such that the person is conceived as maintaining their own individuality but at the same time is capable of handling different emotionally challenging situations in accordance with the norms of the particular social environment. Emotional competence is manifested as a working self, with different skills that function to regulate emotions (Weigert, 1991). The ability of employees to be emotional working self can lead to more fluently handling emotional laden situations and become successful and respected members of social community.

Emotionally competent employees purposively or actively seek to master and integrate various emotional skills such that they can handle typical or routine emotion laden situations within their profession. In doing so, they express their own individuality and also are perceived in their actions to be appropriate to organizational as well as their own norms and goals (Erickson, 1997).

Abilities to transcend all the proficiencies or integrate across divisions will differ among people in different situations. People low in their abilities to integrate the emotional proficiencies are expected to cope less well with emotional challenging situations than people high in their abilities, but the pattern of abilities can differ, depending on the person and situation (Verberke et al., 2007). But the fullest integration of skills will be achieved only by a fraction of people (McAdams, 1988). Different people have different abilities to integrate different skills in different environment (Cantor, 1990).

The ability to integrate contradictory emotional skills on the job is similar to the process of job crafting (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001) and role innovation (Ashforth, 2001). Emotional Crafting is the specific emotional competencies, which is the process in which people undergo to integrate seemingly contradictory emotional skills into a working self and in the process come to achieve a unique signature to their work (Verberke et al., 2007).

Types of Emotional Competence

Different researchers define emotional competencies differently. Boyatzis (1982) defined four different types of emotional competence clusters: (1) entrepreneurial cluster, (2) interpersonal cluster, (3) intellectual reasoning cluster and (4) socio-emotional maturity cluster. Boyatzis et al. presented three clusters of emotional competencies namely: (1) goal and action Management cluster, (2) People management cluster and (3) analytic reasoning cluster. Spencer et al. (1997) explains six emotional competencies: (1) influencing capacity, (2) team leadership, (3) organizational awareness, (4) self-confidence, (5) achievement drive and (6) leadership. Goleman (1998) presented twenty-five emotional competencies arrayed in five clusters: (1) self-awareness cluster included emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence; (2) self-regulation cluster included self control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability and innovation; (3) motivation cluster included achievement drive, commitment, initiative and optimism; (4) the empathy cluster included understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity and political awareness and (5) social skills cluster influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation and team capabilities. Saarni (1999) defined eight different types of emotional competencies: (1) awareness of one's emotional state, (2) Skill in discerning others' emotion, (3)

ability to describe emotions, (4) capacity to empathize with other's emotional competencies, (5) skill to realize the difference between inner emotional states and outward expressions, (6) capacity for adaptive coping with aversive emotions, (7) awareness of role of emotions in the structure of relationships and (8) the capacity for emotional self-efficacy.

Need for Domain Specific Emotional Competence

Emotion management within social situations is full of uncertainties and ambiguities and contains seemingly personal contradictions. Emotional competence refers to employee abilities to cope with emotionally challenging situations while maintaining organizational norms. The same person can be emotionally competent in one domain but not in another domain. As different functions occur within organizations, which require different emotional competencies, a domain-specific conceptualization of emotional competence that applies specifically for customer boundary spanners is required. This study specifically focuses on how employees interact with customers during their selling encounters. Customer base is one of the most critical assets of any organization. It is very important for the employees to be emotionally competent during their selling encounters with customers to achieve the targets of the organization.

Emotional Competency and Selling Encounters

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) explain that emotions in sales people can have an immediate impact on organizationally salient outcomes like immediate purchase, encore (willingness to return to the store) and contagion gains (willingness to pass positive comments to others). Sutton and Rafaeli (1988) examined positive relationship between store clerks' displayed positive emotions and store's annual sales. Rosci (1981) explains salespeople profit by combining the principles of body language with professional selling skills. He described a training course that teaches salespeople to employ non-verbal signals such as friendly, smiling, enthusiastic face, arms and hands that are relaxed and open to enhance sales. Brown and Suzler – Azaroff (1994) found positive relationship between bank teller's rate of greetings and level of customer satisfaction. Tsai (2001) has indicated that employees' positive emotional displays would increase customer willingness to purchase, willingness to return to the store and pass positive comments to friends. Verberke et al. (2007) presented the most comprehensive list of seven different types of competencies required in employees during selling encounters, namely: (1) Empathy, (2) Guilt, (3) Authenticity, (4) Self-representation, (5) Convincing others that one is genuine, (6) Irony and (7) Character.

Emotional competence is a part of relationship marketing. Success of selling encounters depends on emotional interaction with the customers. The emotional competencies of sales people are important to render customer value, satisfaction and continued loyalty.

Need for the study

It is well recognized in marketing that the relationship between market performance and marketing efforts is influenced by interaction mechanism during various selling encounters. These mechanisms form a part of certain identifiable organizational and sales people's emotional competencies. The emphasis in the work force is increasingly being placed on the soft skills that complement one's emotional competence. The experience and emotional connectivity results in sales people's ability to build and maintain long-term relationships.

“Developing emotional competence within individuals and organizations can help to enhance the quality of the customer's service experience”

The emotionally competent organizational environment bears a significant influence on the strategies that organizational leaders will craft and mould to achieve their short, medium and long term goals and objectives. A key factor in sustenance of organizational competitive advantage is the people that the organization employs. The people by the organization, based on their interest, knowledge,

perceptions, experience, attitudes and ultimately determine the culture of the knowledge, qualifications, experience, perceptions, attitudes and beliefs ultimately determine the culture of the organization. The employees' emotional competence is the most important factor influencing the organization structure and culture and performance. The aggregate of strengths and weaknesses of employees' emotional competencies is one of the most essential enhancers of performance in both corporate culture and individual careers. An emotional aptitude among employees means greater teamwork, initiative and relationships characterized by optimism, trust, resilience and wisdom. There is a need to investigate the ways of improving and developing the varieties of emotional competencies within organizational training and development programme. Hence, the purpose of this study is to determine emotional competencies of sales representatives creating positive impact on customer satisfaction.

Objectives of the study

1. To explore the importance of emotional competence of employees during selling encounters in organized retail
2. To explore the various components of emotional competence of employees during selling encounters in organized retail
3. To measure the emotional competence of employees during selling encounters in organized retail

Method

The sample was drawn using non-probability convenience sampling method. In total, 200 employees in selling tasks were surveyed for the study, who had direct contact with customers during selling encounters. All the respondents were above 18 years and had frequent interactions with customers.

Materials

A structured questionnaire was used, having close-ended questions. The questions contained the variables of emotional competence of employees during selling encounters. The 17 variables were taken from earlier work done by Verbeke et al. (2004). Respondents were asked to rank each item on Likert scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree).

Procedure

The questionnaire was administered through personal interaction with employees having direct selling encounters with customers. The contacts were made to respondents during their job hours. It has increased the accuracy of answers given by them due to recency effect of selling encounters with customers.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Factor analysis was conducted for analyzing the structure of the interrelationships among a set of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions. Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to assess the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. Mean analysis was conducted to measure the emotional competence of employees during selling encounters in organized retail. Anova test was conducted to find out the variations in emotional competency of employees during selling encounters on the basis of various demographic variables.

Factor analysis

The second objective of this research is to explore the various components of emotional competence of employees during selling encounters in organized retail. The 17 EC statements have been subjected to multivariate data analysis tool – factor analysis – to reduce them to a few uncorrelated factors. In order to test the suitability of the data for factor analysis, the correlation matrix was computed and examined. This revealed that there were enough correlations to go ahead with factor analysis. Anti image correlation were computed. These showed that partial correlations were low, indicating that true factors existed in the data. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) was calculated for both the entire correlation matrix and each individual variable evaluating the appropriateness of applying factor analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was calculated to find whether the number of correlations among the variables is statistically significant or not. The value of MSA was found to be 0.602, which is much higher than the minimum cut off rate of 0.50. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity showed the value of Chi-Square at 1142.304 with 136 degrees of freedom, which was significant at 0.05 level, indicating the suitability of data for factor analysis. Thus, all of these examinations revealed that data was fit for factor analysis.

Principle component analysis was employed for extracting factors. The number of factors to be extracted was finalized on the basis of latent Root Criterion. Orthogonal rotation with Varimax method was used for factor analysis. Rotations converged into 6 iterations. In orthogonal rotation, each factor is independent of or orthogonal from all other factors. The correlation between the factors is determined to be zero. As, the sample size taken for data analysis was 200 respondents, all factor loadings greater than 0.40 were considered for the analysis.

Table 1 shows the communality values of all variables. Communality is the amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included with analysis. Large communality indicates that a large amount of variance in the variable has been accounted for by the factor solution. As shown in the table ..., all the variables are having the communality values above cut off value of 0.40, which indicate that all the variables should be considered for further analysis. The results of Principle Component Analysis with Varimax rotation for sample are shown in Table 1. It shows that 7 factors have been extracted which together accounted for 68.852% of the variance. Eigenvalues for the factors 1 to 7 are 3.334, 2.056, 1.629, 1.457, 1.200, 1.024 and 1.003 as revealed by the anti-penultimate row of the table. The percentage of the variance explained by individual factors is shown in the penultimate row of the table. It is observed that the percentages of variance explained by factors 1 to 7 are 19.612, 12.095, 9.585, 8.571, 7.061, 6.025 and 5.903.

Table 1: Factor Analysis

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Communality
EC 7	0.702							0.598
EC 14	0.687							0.648
EC 1	0.661							0.544
EC 2	0.665							0.560
EC 5	0.466							0.413
EC 12		0.930						0.887
EC 3		0.897						0.833
EC 4			0.978					0.975
EC 15			0.962					0.964
EC 9				0.756				0.672
EC 10				0.717				0.636
EC 8					0.824			0.696
EC 11					0.519			0.446
EC 13						0.887		0.836
EC 6						0.570		0.685
EC 17							0.854	0.755
EC 16							0.493	0.556
Eigenvalue	3.334	2.056	1.629	1.457	1.200	1.204	1.003	
% of Variance	19.612	12.095	9.585	8.571	7.061	6.025	5.903	
Cumulative %	19.612	21.707	41.292	48.864	56.924	62.950	68.852	

Table 2: Factors extracted

Factors	Variables	Factor Name	Reliability Cronbach Alpha
Overall Scale	All	Emotional Competency Scale	0.713
Factor 1	EC1, EC2, EC5, EC7, EC14	Empathy	0.686
Factor 2	EC3, EC12	Self-Presentation	----
Factor 3	EC4, EC15	Character	----
Factor 4	EC9, EC10	Convincing	----
Factor 5	EC8, EC11	Ethical Authenticity	----
Factor 6	EC6, EC13	Emotional Flexibility	----
Factor 7	EC16, EC17	Irony	----

The seventeen variables with seven factors are summarized in table 1. The names of the factors, statement labels and factor loadings have been summarized in table 2 above.

1. **Empathy:** This factor is the most important explaining 19.612% out of the total variance. In total five statements load on to this factor. Highest loading is for the statement “my expressed emotions are a part of what I see as my truthful way of dealing with people (0.702)”, followed by, “I feel that people can quickly feel my emotions (0.687)”, “I can easily put myself in the place of my customers and their needs (0.661)”, “others have learned to accept the way I manage my emotions (0.665)” and “I can tune my emotions to those of the customers (0.466)”. Empathy is the skill of placing oneself in the place of customers. It is an affective response that stems from the apprehension or comprehension of customer’s emotional state or condition and that is identical or very similar to what the customer is feeling or would be expected to feel. **Empathic employees are better listeners and tend to perform better** (Pilling and Eroglu, 1994 and Spiro and Weitz, 1989). So, **empathy refers to the competencies of understanding others and helping others to develop and engaging in the art of effective listening, being able to discern customer needs and then supplying the product that meets those needs.**

2. **Self-Presentation:** The second factor consists of 12.095 % of the total variance. Two statements are loaded on to this factor. The highest loading for the statement “I feel some guilt while showing my enthusiasm during a sales interaction (0.930)”, followed by “I can easily show a variety of emotions when the situation asks for it (0.897)”. Self presentations are capable of dealing enthusiastically with the customer during sales interactions. **The control of emotional expressions can be linked to acting and has been called emotional dissemblance because it often involves dissociation between what is felt and what is communicated** (Saarni, 1999). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) implicitly refer to guilt as a consequence of emotional regulation when they speak about a person role-conflict or a clash between personal values and role requirements. Hochschild (1983) found continuous feelings of guilt from employees that may result from emotional labour.
3. **Character:** This factor is accounted for 9.585 % of the total variation. Two statements are loaded on to this factor. The highest loading is for the statement “Although I am flexible with my emotions, but it is only up to a limit (0.978)”, followed by “when I laugh, I am relieved of the worry – if my emotions are adequate for the given social contact (0.962)”. Sales people have to act in accordance with company norms, as well as their own customers. Character involves moral character and ethical values, which deeply influence one’s emotional response in ways that promote personal integrity (Saarni, 2000). Huy (1999) accepted the importance of character for fostering change processes within organization. **Sales people must reconcile pressure from superiors with their own codes of conduct if they want to sustain their integrity in the organization.**
4. **Convincing:** This factor consists of 8.571 % of the total variation. This factor includes two statements. The highest loading is for the statement “People accept how I manage my emotions (0.756)”, followed by “when I laugh at myself – it helps me in not getting too emotional (0.717). A considerable effort is required to show emotions that differ from what one actually feels on an on-going basis. This is common in sales transactions and great efforts are required from salesperson to keep up one’s self-presentations. So, it is sometimes better strategy to help others come to accept one’s emotions instead of trying to change or dissemble one’s own emotions in every instance. **Effective salespeople not only have the ability to dissemble their own emotions in a strategic way but also to impose their genuine emotions on others and make other people feel comfortable with them.**
5. **Ethical Authenticity:** This factor accounts for 7.061 % of the total variance. This factor includes two statements. The highest loading is for the variable “I feel that my expressed

emotions are a part of my sincere and deeper self (0.824)”, followed by “I manage my emotions keeping in my certain social/moral norms. **Authenticity refers to skill or ability to put together the sales objectives and displayed emotions with feeling of authenticity. Salespeople high on this proficiency strongly feel that their expressed emotions are part of their sincere and deeper self at the same time keeping certain social norms into consideration.** Saarni (2000) found mature emotional competence as that moral character and ethical values deeply influence one’s emotional response in ways that promote personal integrity. Goleman (1998) states that the maintenance of standards of honesty and integrity is a determinant of trustworthiness and therefore a consequence of emotional competence.

6. **Emotional Flexibility:** This factor is accounted for 6.025 % of total variation. This factor consists of two statements. The highest loading is for the factor “I am acquainted with creating emotions to facilitate the process of a sales interaction (0.887)”, followed by “I feel little or no guilt about the way I manage my emotions (0.570)”. Goffman (1969) addresses the causes and consequences of expressed emotions and focuses on how people manipulate emotional expression to promote their own interests. **Salespeople who are able to avoid guilt or feel less guilty about their emotional expressions or who have been able to overcome their negative feelings, should feel more satisfied and relaxed and hence more effective than salespeople who feel guilty when contemplating the use of emotions as strategic tool** (Verberke et al., 2007).
7. **Irony:** This factor consists of 5.903 % of total variation. This factor includes two statements. The highest loading is for the statement “I can easily laugh at myself when my emotions get too strong (0.854)”, followed by “whatever happens, I have learned to accept my emotions and look at them with some humor/irony (0.493)”. Irony empowers the salespeople to disassociate themselves from negative feeling. Irony is the ability to view the experiences from newer perspectives (Hatch, 1997). Ironic perspective enables salespeople to tolerate emotionally ambiguous situation and redescribe the situation. Irony creates ability in employees during selling encounters to better equip to handle contradictory emotional and mental states. Irony help employees to put into perspective negative feelings (Vaillant, 1998) because similar to humor, it produces a dissociation from negative feelings and as a consequence, laughter often shifts toward more positive emotions. (Bananno, 2001). Humor is defined as any remark followed by laughter, although humor may not always be followed by laughter (Hatch, 1997). But humor involves emotions. Kant (1951) explains the connection between humor and emotion. Schopenhauer define irony as deliberately subsuming something directly under the

concept of its opposite. Irony involves more than mental and vocal contradiction of a statement. Brown (1997) argues that to render something ironic is to take it from its conventional context and place it in an opposite one. Irony is strictly dependent upon interpretation and therefore on its interpreters. (Hatch, 1997) So, **ironic perspective enables salespeople to handle better contradictory demands of their profession.**

Mean and ANOVA Analysis

Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation

Variables	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Empathy	3.71	0.53
E1	My expressed emotions are part of what I see as my truthful way of dealing with people.	3.65	0.81
E2	I feel that people can quickly feel my emotions.	3.69	0.77
E3	I can easily put myself in the place of the customers and their needs.	3.78	0.80
E4	Others have learned to accept the way I manage my emotions.	3.63	0.84
E5	I can tune my emotions to those of customers.	3.83	0.76
	Self-Presentation	2.84	0.90
S1	I feel some guilt when showing my enthusiasm during a sales interaction.	2.77	0.92
S2	I can easily show a variety of emotions when the situation asks for it.	2.91	0.96
	Character	3.72	0.76
CH1	Although I am flexible with my emotions but only to a limit.	3.62	0.79

CH2	When I laugh, I am relieved of the worry – if my emotions are adequate for the given social context.	3.82	0.78
	Convincing	3.64	0.60
C1	People accept how I manage my emotions.	3.67	0.68
C2	When I laugh at myself – it helps me in not getting too emotional.	3.61	0.81
	Ethical Authenticity	3.68	0.70
EA 1	I feel that my expressed emotions are part of my sincere and deeper self.	3.67	0.68
EA 2	I manage my emotions keeping in mind certain societal norms.	3.69	0.82
	Emotional Flexibility	2.37	0.85
EF 1	I am acquainted with creating emotions to facilitate the process of a sales interaction.	2.60	0.96
EF 2	I feel little or no guilt when showing my enthusiasm during a sales interaction.	2.13	1.15
	Irony	3.25	0.53
I 1	I can easily laugh at myself when my emotions get too strong.	3.10	0.80
I 2	Whatever happens, I have learned to accept my emotions and look at them with some humor/irony.	3.41	0.56
	Overall Emotional Competence	3.25	0.36

Table 4: ANOVA analysis

Variable	No. of Samples	Overall Mean	Empathy	Self	Character	Convince	Sincerity	Flexibility	Ironic	EC
Outlet										
Malls	75	3.07	F = 3.794 0.024*	F = 19.462 0.000*	F = 14.389 0.000*	F = 6.706 0.002*	F = 0.797 0.452	F = 3.595 0.029*	F = 2.095 0.126	F = 18.264 0.000*
Apparel Store	75	3.36								
Electronic Store	50	3.36								
Total	200	3.25								
Age										
18 to 25	85	3.33	F = 6.092 0.003*	F = 7.615 0.001*	F = 11.412 0.000*	F = 6.475 0.002*	F = 3.594 0.029*	F = 0.478 0.621	F = 1.245 0.29	F = 12.711 0.000*
25 to 35	66	3.31								
35 and Above	49	3.04								
Total	200	3.25								
Education										
Post Graduate	47	3.56	F = 3.026 0.050*	F = 14.265 0.000*	F = 11.276 0.000*	F = 6.055 0.003*	F = 0.333 0.717	F = 2.970 0.050*	F = 1.696 0.186	F = 13.166 0.000*
Graduate	78	3.33								
Below Graduate	75	3.09								
Total	200	3.25								
Experience										
> 5 years	35	3.39	F = 3.032 0.050*	F = 10.645 0.000*	F = 1.165 0.314	F = 1.564 0.212	F = 2.065 0.072	F = 1.282 0.28	F = 0.244 0.784	F = 3.041 0.035*
1-5 years	85	3.24								
< 1 year	80	3.21								
Total	200	3.25								

(* significant at 0.05 level of significance)

The ANOVA test was conducted to find out difference in emotional competencies of employees during selling encounters on the basis of various demographic variables (refer table 4).

- 1. Outlet wise:** The anova test was conducted to find out the differences in emotional competencies of employees during selling encounters among different types of organized retail outlets. The results showed that the emotional competency of employees, among three different types of retail outlets, during their selling encounters was found to be different ($F = 18.264$, $p = 0.000$). The mean analysis showed that employees in electronic store and exclusive apparel store were the most emotional competent people (3.36), followed malls (3.07). The difference was also found for the factors, namely, empathy ($F = 3.794$, $p = 0.024$), self-presentation ($F = 19.642$, $p = 0.000$), character ($F = 14.389$, $p = 0.000$), convincing ($F = 6.706$, $p = 0.002$) and Emotional flexibility ($F = 3.595$, $p = 0.029$). The employees in busy convenience stores (malls) – those with high rush and long lines – were less likely to display emotions to customers than employees in electronic stores and apparel stores. The employees in apparel stores and electronic stores displayed good cheer due to low rush of customers and the absence of such a display among employees in malls due busy times (rush hours). During low rush in electronic and apparel stores customers expected more integrity from employees during selling encounters. In contrast, due to high rush in malls, expressing positive emotional competencies was risky because it encouraged customers to extend transactions, which made other customers waiting in line crabby. These findings are similar to the findings of the work done by Rafaeli and Sutton (1990). The employees in mall used less emotional competency skills with customers, who were not demanding, because there was less risk of losing control over a person who made a small purchase, asks a few questions and request no favors. A demanding customer is one who requires a prolonged and complex response from service employees. The field work indicated that employees in electronic store and exclusive apparel store often express greater positive emotion to demanding customers because it helped them gain control over the long and complex transactions (Whyte, 1946). The importance of demanding customers and displaying emotions are equally important. During low rush, a long and complex transaction can also provide entertainment for a service employee. Thus, when a store is slow, as in case of exclusive apparel stores and electronic stores, displaying positive emotion as a means of obtaining control is consistent with an employee's inner feelings and creates positive impact on customer satisfaction.
- 2. Age wise:** The anova test was conducted to find out the differences in emotional competencies of employees during selling encounters among employees, with different

age groups. The results showed that the emotional competency of employees, among different age groups, during their selling encounters was found to be different ($F = 12.711$, $p = 0.000$). The mean analysis showed that employees in age group 18 to 25 were the most emotional competent people (3.33), followed by employees in age group 25 to 35 (3.31) and employees in age group 35 and above (3.04). The difference was also found for the factors, namely, empathy ($F = 6.092$, $p = 0.003$), self-presentation ($F = 7.615$, $p = 0.001$), character ($F = 11.412$, $p = 0.000$), convincing ($F = 6.475$, $p = 0.002$) and Ethical Authenticity ($F = 3.594$, $p = 0.029$).

The employees in high age groups were found high in terms of authenticity. The people with high age were found to be less flexible in terms of displaying emotions due to their evoked mind set. Lack of flexibility among older employees also resulted in low empathy of employees towards customers and convincing power. During study, it was also found that the attrition rate were very high among employees in selling function. So, more of young employees were included in survey, which contributed major part of the total workforce in selling function in organized retail.

- 3. Education wise:** The anova test was conducted to find out the differences in emotional competencies of employees during selling encounters among employees with different education level. The results showed that the emotional competency of employees, among different education level, during their selling encounters was found to be different ($F = 13.166$, $p = 0.000$). The mean analysis showed that employees having post graduate degree were the most emotional competent people (3.56), followed by employees having only graduate degree (3.33) and employees who are undergraduate (3.09). The difference was also found for the factors, namely, empathy ($F = 14.265$, $p = 0.050$), self-presentation ($F = 11.276$, $p = 0.000$), character ($F = 11.276$, $p = 0.000$), convincing ($F = 6.055$, $p = 0.003$) and Emotional Flexibility ($F = 2.970$, $p = 0.050$).

The results showed that education has significant impact on emotional competencies of employees in selling encounters in organized retail. The more educated employees were found good in terms of their self-representation and character due to their confidence and knowledge to handle the customers. They also knew the importance of empathy towards customers, which is one of the most important functions in selling encounters. The educated people were more convincing to customers and showed greater emotional flexibility in terms of altering their emotions under varieties of customers. On the other hand, low educated employees were less empathic, low in terms of their self-

representation and convincing power and also showed less flexibility, especially in malls, where most of the employees had education up to under graduate level only.

4. **Experience wise:** The anova test was conducted to find out the differences in emotional competencies of employees during selling encounters among employees on the basis of their experience. The results showed that the emotional competency of employees, with different level of experience, during their selling encounters was found to be different ($F = 3.041, p = 0.035$). The mean analysis showed that employees having more than 5 years of experience were the most emotional competent people (3.39), followed by employees having 1 to 5 years of experience (3.24) and employees having less than 1 year of experience (3.21). The difference was also found for the factors, namely, empathy ($F = 3.032, p = 0.050$) and self-presentation ($F = 10.645, p = 0.000$).

The employees who are having good experience to handle selling encounters are high in authenticity. Their experience created a particular mindset for them, beyond which, it is very difficult for them to display empathy and emotions. But, the employees having good experience are found more empathic and confident in terms of self-representation than people having less experience. The experience taught them how to deal with employees under varieties of conditions thereby showing varieties of emotional competencies. During study, it was also found that employees with lower experience were also equally competent in terms convincing power and flexibility as compared to more experienced people.

Conclusion

“Emotional competency is partly a social skill which creates capacity to monitor and evaluate customers’ feelings and emotions and to use that knowledge to guide”

The evidences are available that the job prospects are brighter for interviewees who convey positive emotions and hide negative feelings. Job analysis techniques also imply that displayed feelings are one of the basic job requirements. A more rational conception of emotion should be developed in the study of organizations. By encouraging emotional intelligence and awareness through training

amongst sales people, as well as measuring their relative importance with customers, sales managers can determine the most suitable competencies for their market. The organization whose offering consists of competencies best matching the needs and wants of customers enjoys the considerable benefit of differential advantage over competitors. Effecting implementation of

emotional competency requires two things: Coping and Adaptation. Coping is an outcome of emotional experience that emerges when employees strive to manage themselves and customers and adaptation is required to manage contextual demand with self-regulation. The emotional competence of sales people require certain skill-sets developed through training and development.

Recommendations

1. Managers can expand their efforts toward implementing human resource practices in terms of evaluating appropriate displayed emotional competencies of employees and to remove obstacles to employees displaying positive emotional competencies.
2. Training can be provided to employees to improve their emotional literacy, which creates ability to exceed impulsiveness in favour of more rational approach to emotion. Training programmes for developing emotional competencies of sales people should focus on various competencies rather than specific single competency. It will be more effective to take the grounds of various competencies while the firms are designing training programs for their employees.
3. Organizations should consider differences depending on the tasks for their staff while designing training programs in terms of developing emotional competencies.
4. Organizational commitment and a systematic approach with a focused approach will be required to build emotionally competent organizations.
5. A strategic cycle of assessment, learning, practice and feedback over time will enable organizational members to build the competencies which that be helpful in personal success as well as develop high performing leaders for the organization.
6. Occupation of positions in an organization with persons with requisite emotional competencies, knowledge, qualifications and experience is critical to the success of that individual. However, these attributes are not the only criteria that determine the successful employment of job seekers. Different companies use numerous ways to assess candidate suitability for certain roles that respective employees, upon successful recruitment will be required to perform. Instituting emotional competence training programs through specific focus on emotional adaptability is required due to varying demands from customers.
7. The employees should be trained to be empathetic which facilitates individualization as they develop cognizance of customers' individual needs for developing long term relationship. Developing empathetic employees require effective training and mentoring from organization with a genuine desire to guide and develop employees (Goleman, 1989).

8. Listening and maintaining self-control, judging the emotional cues of the speaker, modifying one's own response based on those emotional cues and focusing on positive outcome and being open minded are important emotional competency skills. It follows that the employees should be trained to develop conflict resolution and negotiation skills because the ability to judge emotional cues permits an individual to take a position and modifying responses may allow him or her to make concessions that lead to partial victories.
9. The organizations should try to develop group cohesiveness in terms of building consensus and empathized with other members among employees, which creates harmony in terms of sharing of skills within groups that leads to improve ironic skills of group members.
10. The organization should provide employees with management support, clear expectations, freedom of expression, coherence between their work and organizational goals and recognition for their efforts, which also connect employees cognitively and emotionally to the job. Such emotional connection leads motivated employees to respond to psychologically meaningfulness and safety with deeper job involvement and ultimately to performance.
11. Feedback delivered to employees in an informational style with the emotional competencies of self-awareness and self-confidence will improve their performance, provided that they have the job autonomy to implement suggestions. Amabile and Gitomer (1984) and Shalley (1991) demonstrated that employees with the greatest job autonomy exhibited the greatest improvements in creative performance.

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Measuring Employees' Brand Commitment in Universities Settings: An Empirical Study in India

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In the past, many service brands have applied a consumer-goods approach for branding to respond to a more competitive environment. Body of research focuses on various components in building a strong brand, but undermines the role played by employees in developing the brand and universities are not an exceptional. The aim of this study is to provide an insight into role played by employees in the process of building a powerful service brand. Employees must be committed to demonstrating the brand values each time a customer interact with the brand. The present research explores the employees' brand commitment in the university settings in India. The dimensions of employers brand (the university's image as seen through the eyes of associates) are used as independent variables for explaining the employees' commitment with respect to university type. Survey approach was adapted using self-administered questionnaire to achieve the research objective. A total of 112 faculties working in Indian universities have been identified (sample size consists of 104 usable observations). The analysis included hypothesis regarding which constructs explains the most in defining employee brand commitment with the help of multiple regression and subsequent multivariate analysis. For universities, research findings illustrate the importance of employee brand commitment in the process of building a strong brand.

Keywords: Brands, Brand equity, Employee Brand Commitment, Multiple Regression

Introduction

Previous research has demonstrated that services organizations need to find ways to establish a positive brand image than consumer goods organization. In service organizations, the trend of making use traditional consumer goods branding tools to leverage service brands faced serious limitations. In fact, the proliferations of brands, fragmentation of media and the specificities of services have increased the complexity of differentiating service brands, with high risk. Henceforth, market saturation and consumer confusion have changed the role of branding dramatically. However, branding literature focused on the brands in the eyes of consumer, few studies have attempted to explore the brands in the eyes of employees.

Despite the growing interest of both academics and practitioners in the “internal branding” concept, there is a still a lack of research to uncover employee interactions. It is agreed that internal branding is about promoting the brand inside the service organization and employees are the key audience. Many scholars have emphasized the specific role of employees in building the service brand and making the brand more relevant. Service brands can taste brand success only if the brand promise is communicated through mass media by its employees. If not so, it may leads to customer dissatisfaction and possibly even to refusal of brand (Bendapudi and Bendapudi, 2005; Berry, 2000). The attention to keep the employees in centre to understand the image of brand and efforts put by employees in cultivating the brand results into strong organizational image.

It is considered essential that all employees have an opportunity to understand the brand as it relates to their roles so that they, in turn, can deliver the brand promise (Gapp & Merrilees, 2006). Moreover, employees can enhance positively the perceptions of consumers relating to the service brand and how a powerful service brand can be formed by employee activities

Despite the growing interest of both academics and practitioners in the “internal branding” concept, there is a still a lack of research to uncover employee interactions.

service encounter (Berry, 2000; De Chernatony et al., 2003). So the purpose of this study is to improve the understanding of employees’ commitment to their company’s brand and investigate the factors that influence this commitment in the context of Indian Universities. Universities as service brand, have started investing huge amount of money on promoting themselves (Jevons, 2006) and are built through creating awareness, interest and loyalty among internal and external

stakeholders. According to Brookes (2003), it is becoming ever more frequent "...for the economics of running a university...[to be]...comparable to running a business" (p. 139). In this study, the university brand is considered from the employee perspective and not from the customer view to avoid confusion.

This paper begins by covering the literature on employee brand commitment and examines the concept of employer brand. From the exploration of employer brand, the dimensions of employee brand commitment are discussed which is viewed as a critical factor to build a strong brand commitment. The research methodology is then described followed by a discussion of the main findings.

Review of literature

Employee brand commitment

Employee commitment to the organization has been covered comprehensively in the management literature (O' Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Meyer and Allen, 1991). Brand commitment has been considered as an important outcome of the dissemination of brand knowledge and also as resultant of organizational effectiveness and productivity (Fiorito et al., 2007, Meyer et al., 1993)..

In other view, employee commitment is willingness to exert additional efforts to achieve the goals of the organization (Iverson and Mcleod, 1996; Heffner and Rentsch, 2001) considering the value aspects. In the past literature, commitment was refereed as employee efforts, measured by job performance and the frequency with which employees consider leaving, these together in turn have focused the employee commitment

definition in form the affective dimension that is the sense of identification and involvement with the organization.

Past research indicated that if employee perceives the relationship with organization to be a positive one, worthy of maintaining, then the employee displayed high level of commitment

However, Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2009) defined employee brand commitment as, "the degree to which employees identify and are involved with their service brand, are willing to exert additional efforts to achieve the goals of the brand and are interested in remaining with the service organization." Past research indicated that if employee perceives the relationship with

organization to be a positive one, worthy of maintaining, then the employee displayed high level of commitment (Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

Employer brand

More recently, some authors like Barrow and Mostley (2005) and Sartain and Shuman (2006) have investigated the functions of a brand from the idea that the brand exists in other stakeholders' minds. According to Ambler and Barrow (1996), employer brand was defined as, "an organization's image as seen through the eyes of its actual and potential employees and should not be confused with the consumers' brand." Employer brand promised employment experience and appealed to those employees who performed best in its culture (CIPD, 2009) and made a clear view of what makes an organization different and desirable as an employer (Backhaus and Tikoo, 2004).

Previous literature suggested that positive employer branding increases the applicants' intention to apply. When organizations are perceived as attractive employers due to their performance in regard to quality products and services, treatment of the environment, and issues of diversity, it leads them to attainment of competitive advantage (Daniel et al., 1997). In turn, these employees will become guardians of the brand image and turn into true believers and advocates of the brand. From past literature review, Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2009) identified four dimensions which defined employee brand commitment. The dimensions were: employer brand as employees' brand knowledge, Customer brand as perceived by employees, the employer brand and its competitors and the employer brand as experienced by employees.

Employer brand as experienced by employees

When employees think about the employer brand, they first consider the way in which they experience the brand in their routine work i.e. their encounter with brand. Their experiences are influenced largely by the top management style, human resource management practices and cross-functional coordination among various departments. Yaniv and Farkas (2005) point out that a high degree of person-organization fit may create an internal culture and values where the organization's employees are more likely to behave in the way that organization expects and are more likely to be concerned about customers. This experience as employees models their perceptions and behaviour (Dunmore, 2003; Mitchell, 2003).

Scholars pointed out that strong identification with the organization would induce an employee to stay with the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990) and would have positive impact on

employee's customer orientation. Even employees perceived the employer brand as moral brand, employee commitment was expected to be high (Morsing, 2006). Past literature drew the line that higher the experience of employees with the employer brand; it would likely to have high level of brand commitment.

Customer brand as perceived by employees

Employee perceptions of the external organizational image occupied in the minds of customers influenced both employee actions (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991) and the level of employee

“When employees found the customer brand image to be positive, they were more likely to identify with the brand”

commitment to the organizational objectives (Kahn, 1990). In fact, strong organizational image in the eyes of customers provided drive to employees in cultivating brand. Moreover, when employees found the customer brand image to be positive, they were more likely to identify with

brand image to be positive, they were more likely to identify with the brand (Underwood, 2001).commitment to the organizational objectives (Kahn, 1990). In fact, strong organizational image in the eyes of customers provided drive to employees in cultivating brand. Moreover, when employees found the customer brand image to be positive, they were more likely to identify with the brand (Underwood, 2001). As members of the organization, the employee perceptions were influenced by what they think external actors think of them as a brand. It was important to note, however, that employee perceptions of the customer's brand image were not necessarily the same as the image that the customers actually have of the company (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991).

Employer brand and its competitors

Branding literature suggested that the importance of symbolic functions increases when functional differences between brands are limited. Often within the same industry job related factors were similar and therefore it was very difficult for organizations to differentiate themselves as employers from their competitors (Lievens and Highhouse, 2003). In fact, the term “employer branding” suggests the differentiation of a firms' characteristics as an employer from those of its competitors. The employment brand highlights the unique aspects of the firm's employment offerings or environment.

In such an environment, using employer branding to convey the symbolic benefits of working with an organization can be especially useful for developing a favorable employer image. In support of this contention, Lievens and Highhouse (2003) found that symbolic trait inferences of organizations have incremental value over and above instrumental job and organizational attributes like pay or benefits in explaining a company's perceived attractiveness as an employer.

Employees' brand knowledge

According to Keller (1998), brand knowledge consisted of a brand node in the memory with a variety of associations organization of these one's memory had a influence on how is recalled, which influences an behaviour as well as decisions. While 1998) related brand consumer, it is equally employee. That is,

“In fact, in universities settings specifically in higher education brand knowledge dealt with cognitive and affective components i.e. brand meaning, knowledge customer needs and expectations and employee understanding of their responsibility to deliver the brand promise.”

linked to it. The brand nodes in significant brand information ultimately individual's brand related Keller (1993; knowledge to the relevant to the the key to

employees being able to deliver the brand promise is brand knowledge. Consistent with the consumer view, if employees were void of brand knowledge, they were not able to behave in the manner desired by the organization, nor were they able to make brand related decisions. Such employee behaviour, in contrast to the consumptive behaviour of consumers, was manifested in work related behaviour is centered around delivering on the brand promise. In fact, in universities settings specifically in higher education brand knowledge dealt with cognitive and affective components i.e. brand meaning (Palacio et al., 2002). It also included knowledge of customer needs and expectations and employee understanding of their responsibility to deliver the brand promise.

Hypothesis of the study

Based on our literature analysis mentioned in above section, we formulated the following hypotheses based on the structural model (Figure I):

H₁: Employee brand commitment is significantly different across various university types.

H₂: Employee brand commitment can be significantly explained by an Employees' brand knowledge.

*H*₃: Employee brand commitment can be significantly explained by Employer brand and its competitors.

*H*₄: Employee brand commitment can be significantly explained by Customer brand as perceived by employees.

*H*₅: Employee brand commitment can be significantly explained by Employer brand as experienced by employees.

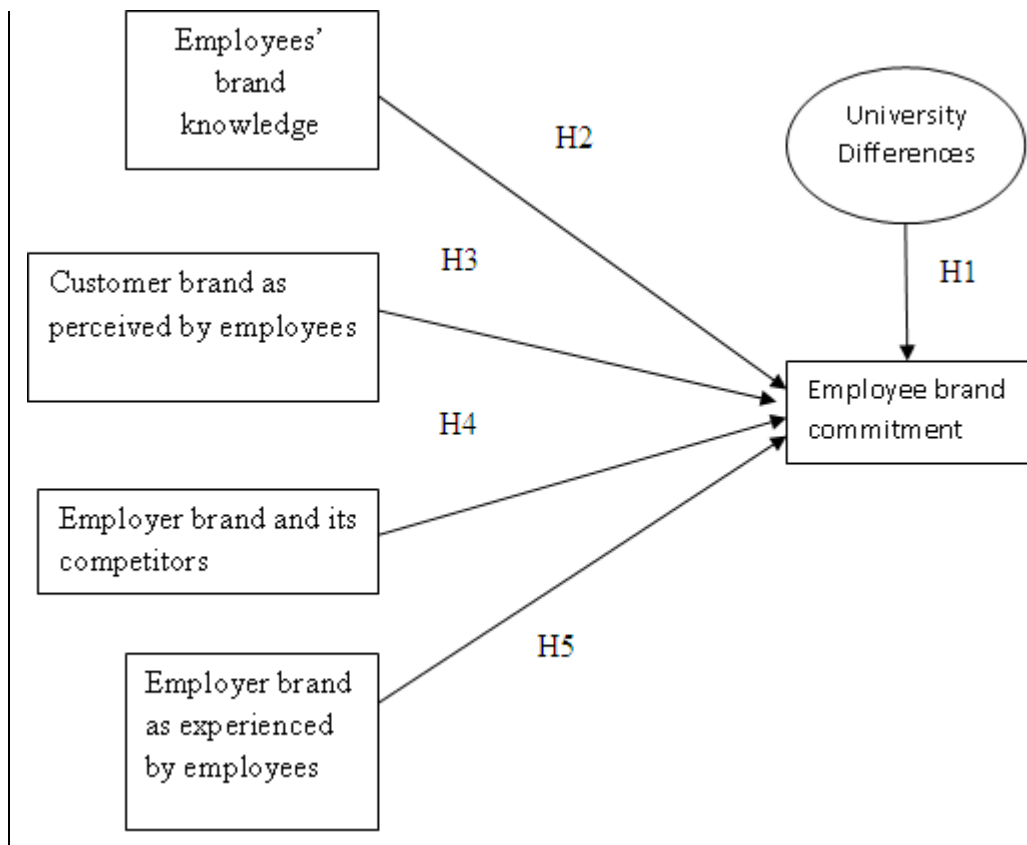


Figure I: Structural model lining dimensions of employer brand and employee brand commitment

Research Methodology

The sample

The data reported in this paper were collected as a part of large study designed to analyze employee brand commitment and brand equity for universities in India. Research adopted the survey approach. The unit of analysis was the employees of university. To determine the sample size, researcher has taken 95% level of confidence at 4% tolerance error as population was unknown. With this, it was found that required sample size was about 98, while the actual number of respondent was 103 higher than the threshold. A structured non-disguised questionnaire was designed to gather the data required for this research. The questionnaire was administered to a

convenience sample of 103 employees. The pilot testing was carried out among 20 respondents and minor modifications were made. The employees were given as much time as needed to complete the questionnaire. Employees were asked to fill the questionnaire at their own place where they could comfortably complete it, at their own convenience.

The survey measures

Measures used in the current research were either borrowed or adapted from earlier studies. The questionnaire was divided into three sections where in the first section includes basic demographics of population and next section includes the employee brand commitment scale, followed by brand equity scale. The employee brand commitment scale consists of nine statements aimed at capturing the employees' efforts. Each answer was recorded on a five-point Likert-type scale, verbally anchored by "strongly agree" (1) and "strongly disagree" (5). The nine employee brand commitment statements were adapted from the study carried out by Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2009). The measures of employee brand commitment included items relating to identification, involvement and loyalty.

Data analysis and major findings

The data were obtained from 103 employees. Out of them, 28 are working in Government University (27.2%) while 75 are working in private university (72.8%). Most respondents are married (n=75, 72.8%); dominated by age group of 20-35 (n=92, 89.3%); are postgraduates (n=50, 48.5%) and doctors (n=22, 21.4%); with balance in level of teaching i.e. graduate and postgraduate. Sample is dominated by male (n=73, 70.9 %) and have their own homes (n=72, 69.9%).

Cronbach's alpha was computed to ascertain the extent to which items making up each variable shared a common core

Prior to examining the relationship between employee brand commitment and factors explaining it, the strength of the scale was assessed by examining its reliability. The instrument was then subjected to the computation of coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1991).

Cronbach's alpha was computed to ascertain the extent to which items making up each variable shared a common core. In reliability analysis, the alpha (α) coefficient was calculated to find out the internal consistency of the items on the scale. It was found 0.805 for employee brand commitment which was more than 0.6 (Nunnally, 1978) which confirms that the scale shows good internal reliability. The reliability results for other constructs are shown in table II.

Table II
Reliability Statistics of constructs

	Variable	Number of Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
1.	Employee brand commitment	9	0.805
2.	Employees' brand knowledge	9	0.857
3.	Employer brand and its competitors	3	0.671
4.	Customer brand as perceived by employees	4	0.859
5.	Employer brand as experienced by employees	14	0.964

Difference analysis of employee brand commitment across different university type

To examine the differences in employee brand commitment across different university types, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. In fact, ANOVA is used when the objective is to assess group differences on single metric dependent variable (Hair et al., 2008). In order to test employee brand commitment, average of all statements was taken as dependent variable. In this study, employee brand commitment was consisted of nine statements. The resulting F-statistics as shown in table III revealed a significant difference between university types with respect to employee brand commitment (F value=35.603 , sig.=0.000) which supports H1.

Table III
ANOVA table on employee brand commitment

Independent variable	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	1	242.576	1208	0.000*
University type	1	7.149	35.603	0.000*
Error	101	0.201		
$R^2 = 0.261$ (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.253$)		* $p < 0.001$		

In addition to this, separate univariate ANOVA tests were conducted to examine whether there were university type differences in dimensions of employee brand commitment. Results showed that dimensions of employee brand commitment i.e. employees' brand knowledge ($F=33.335$, sig.=0.000), employer brand and its competitors ($F=48.297$, sig.=0.000), customer brand as perceived by employees ($F=44.736$, sig.=0.000), and employer brand as experienced by employees ($F=60.288$, sig.=0.000) were found significantly different in university type (table IV).

Table IV
ANOVA table on dimensions of employee brand commitment on university type

Independent variable	F	R²	Sig.
Employees' brand knowledge**	33.335	0.248	0.000*
Employer brand and its competitors**	48.297	0.336	0.000*
Customer brand as perceived by employees**	44.736	0.312	0.000*
Employer brand as experienced by employees**	60.288	0.380	0.000*

*p<0.001; **dependent variable

In order to understand the relationship between employee brand commitment and its dimensions with respect to university type, multiple regressions was performed. In this, employee brand commitment (average score) was taken as dependent variable and the dimensions of service brand as independent variables.

Significant predictors of employee brand commitment among State Government University

In order to identify significant predictors of employee brand commitment in state government university, simultaneous multiple regression was conducted. The model containing all four dimensions was significant, $R^2 = 0.868$, $F(4, 23) = 37.886$, $p < 0.05$. Among these four dimensions, Customer brand as perceived by employees (sig.= 0.584) and employee brand and its competitors (sig.= 0.939) were found to be non-significant predictor of employee brand commitment (H3 and H4 is not supported). The predictability of the other two variables was in the following descending order: Employee brand as experienced by employee ($\beta=0.649$, $p < 0.05$) and Employees' brand knowledge ($\beta=0.467$, $p < 0.05$) that is H5 and H2 is supported respectively. Table V presents the result of the simultaneous regression tested for government university employee.

Table V
Results of the simultaneous multiple regression tested for government university employees

Variables	B	t	Sig.
1. Employer brand as experienced by employees	0.649	3.045	0.006**
2. Employees' brand knowledge	0.467	0.009	0.011*
3. Employer brand and its competitors	0.078	2.783	0.939
4. Customer brand as perceived by employees	-0.100	-0.555	0.584

Notes: $F=37.886$ ***; $dfs = 4, 23$; $R^2=0.868$, $Adj. R^2 = 0.845$ * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Significant predictors of employee brand commitment among deemed/private University

In order to identify significant predictors of employee brand commitment in deemed/private university, simultaneous multiple regression was conducted. The model containing all four dimensions was significant, $R^2 = 0.739$, $F(4, 98) = 21.053$, $p < 0.05$. Among these four dimensions, Employees' brand knowledge ($\text{sig.} = 0.523$) and Employee brand as experienced by employee ($\text{sig.} = 0.199$) were found to be non-significant predictor of employee brand commitment (i.e. H2 and H5 is not supported). The predictability of the other two variables was in the following descending order: Customer brand as perceived by employees ($\beta = 0.333$, $p < 0.05$) and Employee brand and its competitors ($\beta = 0.241$, $p < 0.05$) i.e. H3 and H4 is supported. Table V presents the result of the simultaneous regression tested for government university employee.

Table V
Results of the simultaneous multiple regression tested for deemed/private university employees

Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	Sig.
1.Customer brand as perceived by employees	0.333	2.713	0.008**
2.Employer brand and its competitors	0.241	2.017	0.047*
3.Employer brand as experienced by employees	0.215	1.295	0.199
4.Employees' brand knowledge	0.068	0.643	0.523

Notes: $F = 2.0531$ ***; $df_s = 4, 70$; $R^2 = 0.739$, $Adj. R^2 = 0.520$, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Discussion & implications

Collected data were analyzed using SPSS software package. Univariate analysis of variance was performed to assess the group differences across university type. It was found that university differences were significant in employee brand commitment. After that separate multiple regressions was employed to test the relationships for university type i.e. state government university and private/deemed university. For state government university, regression analysis results showed that two variables were significant i.e. employee brand as experienced by employee and employees' brand knowledge with model fit of $R^2 = 0.868$. On the contrary, for private/deemed university, regression analysis results showed that two variables were significant i.e. customer brand as perceived by employees and employee brand and its competitors with model fit of $R^2 = 0.739$

In summary, it was found that state government university employees display higher brand commitment in comparison with private/deemed university. One of the possible explanations for

this is that employer brand perceived by an employee was found significant in the case of state government university. It may be possible that employees working in the conventional university may convince the way they experience the brand. More importantly, they view that working in conventional university is characterized as high job security, upward mobility (intrinsic rewards), higher extrinsic rewards, upward and downward communication, promotion satisfaction, trust in supervisors, and the philosophy of university. While, in private/deemed university, employees perceive low level of job security, get lesser opportunity for upward mobility etc.

Moreover, employees' brand knowledge was significant in Government University and the idea is that employees fully understand what the brand is and their role in delivering on the brand promise as it is incomplete in case of private/deemed university. Employees working in private/deemed university may understand the brand values and meanings but it is not sufficient for them to be committed and support the brand.

However, in private/deemed university, customer brand as perceived by employees was found significant and not in state government university. The possible explanation is may be private universities are putting more efforts in creating awareness, interest and loyalty among target students. Also, private universities recently invest heavily in communication activities to create a desired image, and demonstrate an institution's excellence and relevance. The focus of university must be on promoting brand among students and accordingly they allocate efforts and resources. Henceforth, employee perceive university brand as more as customer brand.

“Employees’ brand knowledge was significant in Government University and the idea is that employees fully understand what the brand is and their role in delivering on the brand promise as it is incomplete in case of private/deemed university”

In addition to this, employees working in private/deemed experience that their university faces highly intensive competitive pressure in comparison with Government University as private universities have continuous pressure in terms of admissions and fees structure. From a practical perspective, the results of the study imply that administrators (including deans) in private universities should enhance the brand

Moreover, private universities can stress on intrinsic motivators such as research magazines, funding for research etc. that can be proved influential in creating high commitment.

In short, education managers of universities need to give utmost importance to continually and consistently communicate the message, so as employees fully understand the value of university. They are advised to avoid commoditization of educational programs and certificate for mere profits that eventually dilute the employer brand. This study contributed to the conceptualization of drivers of employer brand commitment from employee's perspective. Particularly administrators must take caution regarding value propositions offered by university that strengthen the brand image in the minds' of employees who are critical of success of university.

Limitations and further research

The main limitations of the study were that data were obtained only from universities operated in Gujarat. With this, another limitation of this research is that we explored relationship between the employee brand commitment and employer brand; however the time constraints did not allow us to analyze existing different stakeholders working in universities. Therefore, extending this research to other stakeholders like non-teaching staff, supporters etc., would help us in understanding these phenomena completely. In fact, this study did not consider the emotional bonds (cognitive dimension) between employees and employer brand to understand the commitment. In addition, future research that examines the relationship between the employee brand and commitment in understanding brand equity that would promote employee brand-building activities.

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Performance Management in Institutes of Higher Education Through Balanced Scorecard: A Conceptual Study

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The purpose of this paper is to show how the Balanced Scorecard approach, a performance management system, could be implemented at institutes of higher education. Balanced Scorecard is a strategic weapon for all organizations including Educational institutes and especially institutes of higher education. The implementation of the BSC approach is presented. This paper tries to study use of BSC in various universities across the globe, the various approaches and perspectives used with examples; its use in Indian environment is also studied. The paper points out that the BSC approach is well suited to a higher education situation esp. for aligning various perspectives with strategy of the organization. Recommendations are given for the use of BSCs effectively for improving institutional performance.

Keywords: Balanced Scorecard, Higher Education, Strategy, Performance Management

Introduction

Educational institutions are now experiencing the need to adopt the concepts that they have taught. Increased competition, globalization, technology and resource constraints are making institutions rethink their processes in order to ensure value adding processes are in place to ensure success. Also recently a lot of strong criticism of business education's relevance to business and the community in general has been made. (Bennis and O'Toole, 2005; Holstein, 2005). The institutes are also unable to measure how much, value is added by their programs and this only aggravates the problem (Pfeffer and Fong, 2002). With the rising competition in the environment, there has been quite a critical discussion about the nature, value and relevance of business schools. Howard Thomas (2007) in their research on business schools has pointed out the following critics:

- doing irrelevant research;
- being too market-driven and pandering to ratings;
- failing to ask important questions;
- pursuing curricular fads;
- “dumbing down” course content; and
- focusing more on specialist, analytical rather than professional managerial skills

“The increased criticism and competition, has made it is important for business schools, to have a clear strategy, strategic positioning and alignment to the competitive environment”

This increased criticism and competition, has made it important for business schools, to have a clear strategy, strategic positioning and alignment to the competitive environment. They need not only to answer the strategic question concerning what kind of business school they want to be (e.g. on a continuum from internationally prestigious and research-oriented to professionally focused and applied), but also set suitable performance goals and policies to attain these goals and incessantly monitor and adapt strategy and strategic positioning when weak performance signals are observed.

It is thus more important than ever to develop and measure processes that lead to successful outcomes. This brings into focus the measures of performance as well as the process that need to be put in place to ensure that the areas of concern are addressed. The thing that makes the concept of performance management more special is that various initiatives are systematically linked together in a conscious and planned way to align as much organizational activity as possible with the intended strategy.

The Balanced Scorecard Concept

The 'Balanced Scorecard' (BSC) concept was formulated by Robert Kaplan and David Norton and was most notably described in a *Harvard Business Review* article (Kaplan & Norton 1992). The widespread adoption and use of the BSC in business is well documented. The basic premise of the BSC is that financial results alone cannot capture value-creating activities. Kaplan and Norton (1992) suggested that organizations, while using financial measures, should develop a comprehensive set of additional measures to use as leading indicators, or predictors, of financial performance. They suggested that measures should be developed that address the following four organizational perspectives:

1. *Financial perspective*: "How should we appear to our stakeholders?" – uses traditional financial measures to measure past performance.

2. *Customer perspective*: "How should we appear to our customers?" - focuses on stakeholder satisfaction and the value propositions for each stakeholder.

3. *Internal business processes perspective*:

"What processes must we excel at?" - refers to an internal organizational processes.

4. *Learning and growth perspective*: "How can we sustain our ability to change and improve?" – looks at intangible assets such as employee knowledge and organizational cultural attitudes for both individual and organizational self-improvement.

“All of the measures in the four perspectives must be aligned with the organization’s vision and strategic objectives, enabling managers to monitor and adjust strategy implementation leading to breakthrough performance”

All of the measures in the four perspectives must be aligned with the organization’s vision and strategic objectives, enabling managers to monitor and adjust strategy implementation leading to breakthrough performance (Kaplan & Norton, 1996). The BSC provides a way of organizing and presenting large amounts of complex, interrelated data to provide an overview of the organization and foster effective and efficient decision making and continuous improvement. Developing the BSC requires the identification of several key components of operations and financial performance, establishing goals for these components, and then selecting measures to track progress toward these goals.

Literature Review

Although the concept of the BSC has been widely adopted and used in the business sector, the education sector has apparently not embraced the BSC concept widely, as indicated by the dearth of published research on this topic. A thorough review of the literature yielded few significant publications. The dearth of literature available for the topic points to the fact that BSC has not found great acceptance in the education industry. Bailey et al. (1999) surveyed business school deans' opinions about the potential useful measurements for a balanced scorecard. Cullen, Joyce, Hassall, and Broadbent (2003) proposed that a balanced scorecard be used in educational institutions for reinforcement of the importance of managing rather than just monitoring performance. Sutherland (2000) talks about how the Rossier School of Education at the University of Southern California adopted the BSC to assess its academic program and its planning process. Chang and Chow (1999) reported that 69 accounting department heads were generally supportive of the balanced scorecard's applicability and benefits to accounting programs. Papenhausen and Einstein (2006) revealed how BSC could be implemented at a college of business. Armitage and Scholey (2004) successfully applied the BSC to a specific master's degree program in business, entrepreneurship and technology.

In higher education, there are certain conventions in this regard that are acceptable as a measure of excellence. Higher education has emphasized academic measures, rather than emphasizing financial performance. These measures are usually built on and around such aspects as faculty/student numbers (ratios), demographics; student pass percentages and dispersion of scores; class rank, percentile scores; graduation rates; percentage graduates employed on graduation; faculty teaching load; faculty research/publications; statistics on physical resource (see library, computer laboratories etc.). Ruben (1999) indicates that one area deserving greater attention in this process of measurement is – the student, faculty and staff expectations and satisfaction levels.

In a study conducted by Ewell, (1994) (cited in Ruben, 1999), the measures used in 10 states in the USA to report performance of higher education institutions, were as under :

- Enrolment/graduation rates by gender, ethnicity and program.
- Degree completion and time to degree.
- Persistence and retention rates by gender, ethnicity and program
- Remediation activities and indicators of their effectiveness.
- Transfer rates to and from two and four year institutions.
- Pass rates on professional exams.

Higher education has emphasized academic measures, rather than emphasizing financial performance.

- Job placement data on graduates and graduates' satisfaction with their jobs.

Some of the problems associated with the use of the BSC in education arise from the different perspectives and needs that have to be addresses. Norreklit (2000) pointed out, that the perspectives in this case are interdependent and part of a linear cause and effect chain. McAdam and O'Neil have said that it is difficult to balance the different perspectives and this has to be carefully considered when designing the BSC.

Tertiary Education in India

In India, the University system, as we see today, originated about a century and half ago with the establishment of universities at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad and Lahore between 1857 and 1902. These were modeled after the British Universities of that period. The Central Advisory Board of Education's (CABE) Committee on Autonomy of Higher Education Institutions (2005) in its report states that currently the Indian higher education system consists of 343 university level institutions and about 16,885 colleges and that there are many nagging concerns about its role and performance. Many of our reputed universities and colleges have lost their pre-eminent positions. Only a few manage to maintain their status and dignity in an environment of complex socio-economic pressures and worldwide changes in approaches to the educational processes. Under the rapidly expanding situation with multiplicity of expectations from the higher education system, it has become necessary to identify those attributes, which distinguish a first-rate institution from a mediocre one.

“The programmes available in the college system largely determine the quality of our higher education”

The complex array of associated issues deserves a total rethinking of our approach to higher education. Serious efforts are now underway to develop the policy perspectives in education involving deeper national introspection and fundamental changes in the structure, content and delivery mechanisms of our

university system. The report further indicates that the enrolment in the Indian higher education system has increased from 7.42 million in 1999-2000 to about 9.7 million at present, indicating nearly 10 percent annual growth. The colleges account for about 80 percent of the enrolment with the rest in the university departments. Thus the programmes available in the college system largely determine the quality of our higher education. In the past decade there has been a sharp

increase in the number of private colleges as well as universities with the status of either deemed to be universities or state universities. The proportion of eligible age group wishing to enter higher educational institutions will most likely increase significantly from the present level of about 7 per cent. The regulatory mechanisms will perhaps be liberalized. Higher education is continuing to expand, mostly in an unplanned manner, without even minimum levels of checks and balances. Many universities are burdened with unmanageable number of affiliated colleges. Some have more than 300 colleges affiliated to them. New universities are being carved out of existing ones to reduce the number of affiliated colleges. Under these circumstances, our dependence on autonomy as the means to improve quality of such a huge size of higher education system poses serious challenges.

Venkatesha (2003 as cited in Venkatesh & Dutta, 2007) compares and finds a lot of differences in the work-culture between the teachers of postgraduate departments of universities with those of colleges. In degree colleges, teaching is the only mandate and pertaining to this, teachers have to improve their knowledge in teaching by undergoing orientation and refresher courses, summer-camps, workshops and participating in seminars/symposia from time to time. On the basis of these activities, teachers are considered for promotion to the next cadre. Some college teachers, who are interested in research may conduct research and publish papers. Research activity of college teachers is invariably out of their natural interest rather than a yardstick for their promotion unlike in universities. Once a university teacher acquires a PhD degree, many university teachers lapse into routine teaching assignments. Because of this type of dual role of teaching and research without defined guidelines, university teachers can neglect either teaching or research, or sometimes both. In Indian universities, teachers are promoted based on their research publications, books written, papers presented in seminars/symposia, membership of various academic societies, etc., but much importance has not been given to the teachers' contributions towards teaching.

This type of situation in our universities tempts many teachers to neglect teaching and take up some sort of research mostly uneconomical, unproductive, outdated and repetitive type and venture into the business of publishing substandard research articles. The system normally recognizes quantity like number of PhD

“Unfortunately, no concrete method has been developed so far to judge the teaching and research aptitude of university teachers”

students guided, number of papers published, etc. rather than quality of the research and publications. Unfortunately, no concrete method has been developed so far to judge the teaching

and research aptitude of university teachers. Some academicians argue that both teaching and research cannot be done at the same point of time. However, it is generally thought that education (even from undergraduate level) and research should coexist to complement each other. Special emphasis on assessment-oriented teaching and research will impart a new dimension to the role of the teacher.

Commenting upon the inherent contradictions in higher education and research in sciences, Chidambaram (1999) indicates towards a peculiar situation existing in the country. Wherein on one hand a large number of people are being given post-graduate degrees in science disciplines, without an appreciation of their possible future careers; on the other hand, there is a considerable reduction in the number of such talented and motivated students seeking admissions to science courses. The dilution of resources that this irrelevant training represents has the consequence of deteriorating the quality of the training for the really talented people.

Staying on with science education, Narlikar (1999) identifies – poor methodology of science teaching that encourages rote learning, ill-equipped teachers and labs, lack of inspirational and committed teachers, poorly written text-books, peer pressure to join lucrative courses; as some of the causes of the current sickness that has afflicted the science scenario. The romance of science and a proper and correct image is just not getting projected by our institutions or the universities. In his opinion this unfortunate trend can be reversed if the society displays a will and creates an environment to cure the causes of the deeply entrenched malady.

“India’s colleges and universities, with just a few exceptions, have become “large, under-funded, ungovernable institutions”

Altbach (2005) provides an overview of the ailments afflicting the higher education machinery in India when he says that India’s colleges and universities, with just a few exceptions, have become “large, under-funded, ungovernable institutions”. Many of them are infested with politics that has intruded into campus life, influencing academic appointments and decisions across levels.

Under-investment in libraries, information technology, laboratories, and classrooms makes it very difficult to provide top-quality instruction or engage in cutting-edge research. Rising number of part-time and ad hoc teachers and the limitation on new full-time appointments in many places have affected morale in the academic profession. The lack of accountability means that teaching and research performance is seldom measured with the system providing few incentives to

perform. He goes on to say that India has survived with an increasingly mediocre higher education system for decades.

Now as India strives to compete in a globalize economy in areas that require highly trained professionals, the quality of higher education becomes increasingly important. So far, India's large educated population base and its reservoir of at least moderately well-trained university graduates have permitted the country to move ahead. He concludes that the panacea to the ailments of Indian universities is an academic culture based on merit-based norms and competition for advancement and research funds along with a judicious mix of autonomy to do creative research and accountability to ensure productivity. He rightly says that "world class universities require world class professors and students – and a culture to sustain and stimulate them". He recommends a combination of specific conditions and resources to create outstanding universities in India including sustained financial support, with an appropriate mix of accountability and autonomy; the development of a clearly differentiated academic system – including private institutions – in which academic institutions have different missions, resources, and purposes, managerial reforms and the introduction of effective administration; and , truly merit-based hiring and promotion policies for the academic profession, and similarly rigorous and honest recruitment, selection, and instruction of students.

Misra (2002) identifies "management without objectives" as one of the key reasons of the downfall of the Indian university system. He highlights the need for – adopting a functional approach in our universities; periodic academic audits; greater autonomy and accountability in all spheres of operations; open door policy welcoming ideas and people from all over; administrative restructuring decentralizing university departments and schools; and making education relevant to our people and times; as the basic steps in improving the Indian universities. The above discussion establishes the need for accountability based autonomy and being consistently relevant to the context in which the Indian universities (or any other university anywhere for that matter) may exist. This creates the backdrop for adopting the basic tenets of strategic management in the paradigms of operating our universities. The balanced scorecard is one such basic tool that can certainly be of assistance in this rationalization process.

Application of Balanced Scorecard at Institutes of Higher Education

There are a number of universities around the world that have implemented the Balanced Scorecard. They have modified the perspectives to suit their needs. Table 1 (appendix) lists out the perspectives and the details of the same are as under:

Balanced Scorecard at the University of Minnesota:

Their mission statement is to prepare students to become managers and leaders who will add value to their organizations and communities by:

- offering high quality graduate and undergraduate programs;
- conducting valuable basic, applied and pedagogical research; and
- Supporting regional economic health and development.

Based on this mission, The BSC strategy map was developed with three overarching and complementary strategic themes:

1. Teaching themes – selection and retention of faculty who are focused on teaching excellence to gain an increased market share of the educational market.
2. Research themes – identification of college faculty as dedicated research colleagues desiring to be champions in their chosen field.
3. Outreach themes – use of college faculty to support regional education and other intellectual support.

Even though the number of measures in each perspective varies, it is important that each measure align with the organization's strategy

The BSC strategy map for the college (Appendix B) uses a generic architecture to describe each strategy. In this way, each measure is rooted in a chain of cause-and-effect logic that connects the desired outcomes from the strategy with the drivers that will lead to the strategic outcomes. The strategy map illustrates how intangible assets are transformed into tangible and

financial outcomes. Even though the number of measures in each perspective varies, it is important that each measure align with the organization's strategy. The measurements used are adapted from Bailey et al. (1999) but were tailored to apply to the college of business.

Financial perspective: The financial perspective contains the tangible outcomes in traditional financial terms.

Stakeholder perspective: Value propositions are created to meet the needs of each stakeholder. These value propositions are those that hold the greatest value to each stakeholder and represent outcomes of the college's internal processes. Satisfactory realization of the value propositions translate into financial outcomes outlined in the financial perspective.

Internal process: The internal process perspective describes the critical internal processes that drive the stakeholder satisfaction and the college's financial outcomes. Internal business processes deliver the value proposition to stakeholders and drive the financial effectiveness.

Learning and growth perspective: The learning and growth perspective identifies the sets of skills and processes that drive the college to continuously improve its critical internal processes. The learning and growth areas that feed into internal processes subsequently drive stakeholder satisfaction and ultimately financial outcomes.

University of California, San Diego

Chang and Chow (1999) indicated that in 1993 the University of California, San Diego's senior management launched a Balanced Scorecard planning and performance monitoring system for 30 institutional functions using three primary data sources: 1) UCSD's internal financial reports; 2) National Association of College and University Business Officers benchmarks; and 3) faculty, staff and student customer-satisfaction surveys.

This exercise was conducted under the framework of the university's vision, mission, and values. Reported benefits and outcomes to date have included reorganization of the workload in the vice chancellor's area, revision of job descriptions with performance standards, introduction of continual training for user departments, ongoing customer assessments and increased responsiveness to communication needs through the use of technology. O'Neil and Bensimon (1999) described how a faculty committee at the Rossier School of Education of USC adapted a Balanced Scorecard model originally developed for business firms to satisfy the central administration's need to know how they measure up to other schools of education. The format of the Balanced Scorecard adapted by the faculty included the following four perspectives:

- 1) Academic management perspective (How do we look to our university leadership?);
- 2) The internal business perspective (What we excel at?);
- 3) The innovation and learning perspective (Can we continue to improve and create value?);
- 4) The stakeholder perspective (how do students and employers see us?).

O'Neil and Bensimon (1999) indicated the following favorable results from the "academic" scorecard implementation:

- Easier approach for the university to accomplish its strategic goals.
- A systematic and consistent way for the provost's office to evaluate performance reports from various schools and departments.

- The scorecard established common measures across academic units that have shared characteristics.
- The simplicity of the scorecard makes it easier for academic units to show how budget allocations are linked to the metrics of excellence.

University of Wisconsin

The University of Wisconsin—Stout provides a distinct array of programs leading to professional careers focused on the needs of society. Some unique characteristics include the following:

- (a) More than half of the 27 undergraduate programs are not offered at any other campus in the University of Wisconsin system, and several are unique in the nation;
- (b) The programs emphasize business-relation processes and staying current with fast-changing technology and market dynamics; and
- (c) Traditional instruction is reinforced by extensive technology laboratories and industry partnerships.

The university's programs also include the following key student requirements and corresponding measures or indicators:

- (a) Cutting-edge, career-oriented programs (number of new programs, placement success);
- (b) High-quality, active-learning education (percentage of lab instruction and faculty contact);
- (c) Effective student support services (retention, academic success, student satisfaction); and
- (d) Related employment and academic or career growth opportunities (placement in major, graduate success, employer satisfaction; (Karathanos and Karathanos, 2005).

Kenneth W. Monfort College of Business

The Kenneth W. Monfort College of Business (2004) at Northern Colorado's mission is to deliver excellent undergraduate business programs that prepare students for successful careers and responsible leadership in business. Some of its unique characteristics follow:

- (a) Pursuing excellence in undergraduate-only business education, uniquely among its regional and national peers;
- (b) One of five undergraduate only programs nationally to hold Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business accreditations in business and accounting; and

(c) Commitment to a program strategy of high-touch, wide-tech, and professional depth to make the college of business a value leader compared with its competition.

In addition, the programs have the following key strategic objectives and corresponding measures or indicators:

- (a) Build a high-quality student population (average ACT score of new freshmen and average transfer student GPA);
- (b) Maintain high-quality faculty (overall percentage of faculty academically and or professionally qualified);
- (c) Maintain adequate financial resources (available state funds and available private funds); and
- (d) Develop market reputation consistent with program excellence (college of business media coverage; Kenneth W. Monfort College of Business, 2004).

Applicability and Design of BSC in the Indian Environment

The strategies for creating value in education need to be based on managing knowledge that creates and deploys an organization's intangible assets.

Review of extant literature indicates that business organizations, as well as academic institutions, are fundamentally rethinking their strategies and operations because of changing environment demanding more accountability. The BSC is described as a novel approach to face these challenges (Dorweiler and Yakhou, 2005). The strategies for creating value in education need to

be based on managing knowledge that creates and deploys an organization's intangible assets. The scorecard defines the theory of the business on which the strategy is based hence the performance monitoring can take the form of hypothesis testing and double-loop learning. A good BSC should have a mix of outcome measures and performance drivers (Kaplan and Norton, 1996). Marketing and communication strategies vis-à-vis institutions of higher education assume greater importance as the image portrayed by these institutions plays a critical role in shaping the attitudes and perceptions of the institution's publics towards that institution (Yavas and Shemwell, 1996). In India, for instance, institutions of higher education are becoming increasingly aggressive in their marketing activities. In this increasingly competitive environment, the marketers of higher education should be concerned about their institution's positioning and image.

The marketing of educational programmes has attracted attention of researchers who have identified research-based planning and programme development, relationship marketing and non-traditional methods for education delivery as key areas for future focus (Hayes, 1996).

Some of the reasons for marketing of higher education gaining importance in the management of higher education programs and institutions are – the founding missions being found increasingly ill-suited for the demands of the marketplace; budgets becoming excruciatingly tight while departments and programmes clamoring for more support; the recruiting and fund-raising arenas having become extremely competitive as well as hostile; higher education being more and more dominated by many largely undifferentiated colleges and universities offering similar programmes; demographic shifts in the operating environment marked by diminishing numbers of traditional full-time students, fewer full-pay students and fewer residential students; escalating demand for adult higher-education and continuing and special-focus programmes; and last but not the least, the sharp rise in the cost of higher education (Kanis, 2000). In India too recently as liberalization has progressed, although in fits and starts, governmental support to institutions of higher learning in the form of grants and subsidies, is drying up. The movement of self-sustenance is gaining force. This also adds up and forces managers of educational institutions, especially in the public domain, to re-think their mission and strategies (Venkatesh, 2001).

Ruben(2004) says that students are affected not only by the teaching environment but also by the learning environment, which includes facilities, accommodation, physical environment, policies and procedures, and more importantly, interpersonal relations and communication and from every encounter and experience. Hence the faculty, staff and administrators have to set good examples by their deeds and recognize that everyone in an institution is a teacher. A wide range of stakeholders and their diverse claims/interests and objectives have to be addressed in the context of the institution of higher education in India. The customer perspective is supposed to aim at the immediate needs and desires of the students, parents, faculty and staff, alumni, the corporate sector and the society at large. It is relevant here to state that looking at students solely as customers becomes a sort of a misnomer as they are also (if not only) the “throughput” that eventually gets processed in the institution and ends up accepted (or rejected) at the verge of graduation. Hence the corporation and society at large should be considered as the real customers.

The second component involves the internal business or operations perspective. This inherently focuses on the implementation and delivery of the academic, research and other programs by the

institution and the degree of excellence achieved in the same. The innovation and learning perspective of the organization look at the development of faculty and staff as a precursor and foundation to excellence in program design and delivery. Finally, the fourth component constitutes of the financial performance and its measure. It is clear in the Indian context especially, that the government although eschews the “profit” word for educational institutions, however is emphasizing more and more on self sustaining programs and institutions as a desirable outcome of the strategies and models envisaged and pursued by universities and colleges. Surpluses are important as only then institutions can look for achieving greater autonomy in designing and delivering ever new courses and programs that are relevant to the population in context, but expensive to implement.

Kaplan and Norton (1996) say that companies are using scorecard to:

- Clarify and update vision and strategic direction;
- Communicate strategic objectives and measures throughout the organization;
- Align department and individual goals with the organization’s vision and strategy;
- Link strategic objectives to long term targets and annual budgets;
- Identify and align strategic initiatives;
- Conduct periodic performance reviews to learn about and improve strategy; and
- Obtain feedback to learn about and improve strategy.

All the above benefits are relevant in the context of the institutions of higher learning in India. As Pandey (2005), indicates – “a good aspect of BSC is that it is a simple, systematic, easy-to-understand approach for performance measurement, review and evaluation. It is also a convenient mechanism to communicate strategy and strategic objectives to all levels of management”. According to Kaplan and Norton (2001) the most important potential benefit is that BSC aligns with strategy leading to better communication and motivation which causes better performance. Considering the linkages in service management profit chain (Heskett et al., 1994 cited in Kaplan and Norton, 2001) we can say that the potential benefits can be:

- Investments in faculty and staff training lead to improvements in service quality;
- Better service quality leads to higher customer (stakeholder) satisfaction;
- Higher customer satisfaction leads to increased customer loyalty; and

- Increased customer loyalty generates positive word of mouth, increased grants/revenues and surpluses that can be ploughed into the system for further growth and development.

With growing popularity for Indian Engineers and graduates in job employment abroad, India has to build world-class quality into higher education. In fact, a critical test of a scorecard's success is its transparency: from the 15-20 scorecard measures, an observer is able to see through the organizations corporate strategy (Kaplan and Norton, 1993).

Conclusion

In this paper we propose that in an environment that demands increasing accountability from business schools, the BSC Approach offers a promising and valuable tool for implementing a strategic performance management system in institutes of higher education. The top management should focus on strategic themes instead of merely relying on formal structures in institutes. The strategy of the institute/university should be communicated to everyone in a easy to understand language. The roles of teachers, administration staff, deans and others should be clarified in advance so as to implement Balanced Scorecard. We propose that BSC will improve communication in institutes as well as work as feedback mechanism for all concerned. This will result in flawless communication and relatively easy implementation of institutional strategy. We also propose to use BSC for balancing internal as well as external perspectives, as so to foster institutional performance.

Thus if institutes of Higher education use BSC, they will be able to position their students and programs positively in the minds of the international audience.

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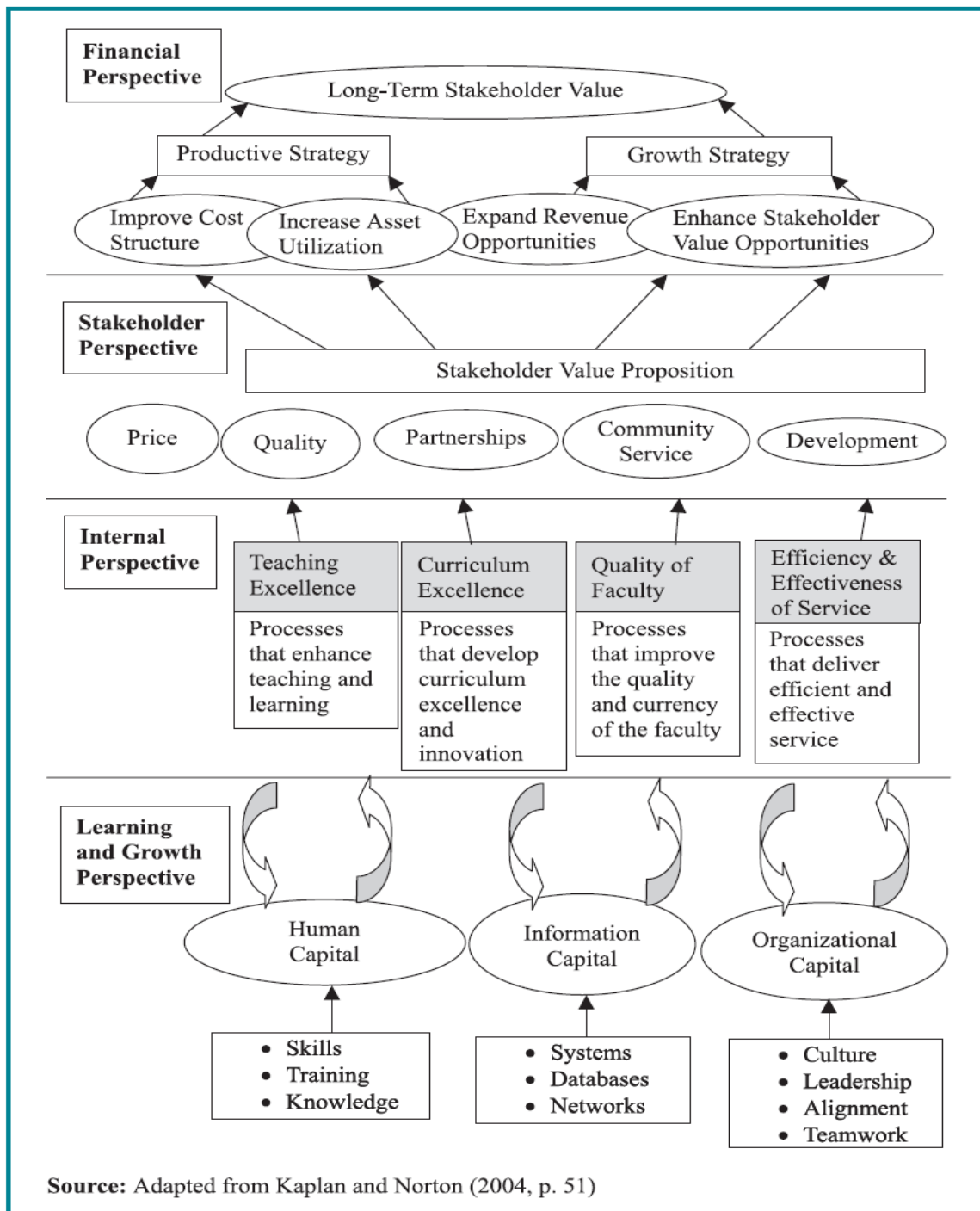
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Appendices



(A) Linkages between Balanced Scorecard Perspectives

Perspectives	Goals	Measures
Financial		Annual subsidy to the department
		Amount of donations
		Amount of outside funds
		Succeed Test / exam results

		Enrolment trend
		Survive Funding per student
		Level of student enrolment
Customer Perspective	Effective Student Placement	Percentage of students with a job offer at graduation
		Number of companies recruiting on campus
		Average starting salaries of graduates
	Quality Instruction	Pass rate in professional exam
		Accreditation
		Alumni evaluation
	Highly valued programme	Percentage of applications enrolled
	Quality academic advising	Student evaluation of services / advisory service
	Flexible course scheduling	Student satisfaction survey
Internal Business Perspective	Quality assurance	Student competency evaluation
	Internship	Student evaluation
		Number of companies involved
		Number of opportunities for internships available
	Optimum class size	Average class size compared to other institutions
		Average class size for majors
	Unique curriculum	Number of other departments offering the same programme
	Cost efficiency	Faculty-to-student ratio
		Faculty-to-student ratio
Innovation and Learning Perspective	Professional growth in department	Travel budget for attendance of conferences
		Number of presentations by departmental staff at conferences
		Number of seminars attended by departmental staff
		Number of departmental publications
	Innovation in teaching	Number of teaching innovation projects
		Number of teaching workshops attended by departmental staff
	Curriculum innovation	Number of curriculum revisions in past 5 years
		Number of new courses offered in the past 5 years

(B) Balanced Scorecard at University of Minnesota

HR Manager at the Cross Road

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This case study is about HR Manager at the Cross Road. This case was an attempt to draw attention on effective and efficient HR Planning through optimum use of human resources in the organization. The study focused on how to inculcate conducive culture which would have positive influence on employees overall productivity. This case dealt with how to align corporate strategy with HR strategy. Given the advancing drought scenario and situation at hand, HR Manager felt helpless in balancing manpower requirement for the dairy. He set back on the chair in his office and wondered, what should be the course of action.

Keywords: Man Resource Planning, HR Strategy, Organization Culture, Recruitment

Introduction

The Vipul Milk Producer's Cooperative Union, popularly known as Vipul Dairy, was located at Manavar City in Dhar District of Madhya Pradesh State in India. The cooperative was primarily engaged in milk collection, processing and manufacturing of milk-based products. The cooperative Union was part of Madhya Pradesh Marketing Sangh (MPMS)¹, headquartered at Jabalpur City in Madhya Pradesh. Mr. B. D. Patidar, an MBA (HR) by qualification, having twenty years experience in the same Dairy, headed the Human Resources Department as Manager. One fine morning reading a forecast by Meteorological Department of the Government that the State would face a severe drought for a couple of years Mr. Patidar got worried about the existing manpower situation of the Dairy.

The Journey

The goal of the organization was not only to manufacture the quality milk and milk products, but it was also primarily for the betterment and progress of men and women associated with the production of milk in the villages. The Vipul Dairy was established in the year 1968 with a capacity of one Lakh² Liter per day, the commercial production started in April 1972. The capacity was increased to 2.5 Lakh Liters per day in 1986. However, the Dairy faced a critical scenario of reduced milk collection due to severe drought from 1988 to 1990. During the three years period, milk collection fell to one Lakh Liter per day. The drought was so severe that drinking water was supplied once in five days. The Dairy further increased the capacity to eight Lakh Liters per day in 1995 and subsequently to thirteen Lakh Liters per day in 2001. In total the Dairy had three plants for milk processing.

Sangh and The Dairy

The Dairy manufactured products and quantity as prescribed by the Sangh. The Sangh was responsible for marketing the products, brand building, new product launch and marketing channel management. The Dairy only processed the order. The payment came through the Sangh. The Sangh gave each dairy under its preview, "Perfecting Plan" for the entire year. Under this plan, they gave specific quantity and products to be manufactured by each dairy. The Sangh had a Planning Committee consisting of all the Managing Directors of the Cooperative Dairies in the State of Madhya Pradesh. In the Planning Committee allocation of products and quantity was decided and each Dairy could argue its stand on the matter, but the decision of Sangh was final.

The Dairy manufactured *Krishna* Milk Powder, *Krishna* Paneer, *Krishna* Ghee, *Krishna* Shrikhand, *Krishna* Dahi, *Krishna* Mava, *Krishna* Butter Milk. *Krishna* Mava was exclusively

manufactured by Vipul Dairy for MPMS. *Krishna* was the exclusive brand of MPMS. The Dairy did not start its own brands because of the fear of disturbing relation with MPMS.

The Dairy

The Dairy had 13,000 Mandalis³ associated with it. The geographical area spread of each cooperative union was decided by the Sangh and the geographical area for the Dairy was limited to Dhar District. The Dairy had six Chilling Units located at Raigarh, Amjhera, Sardarsher, Bayvar, Dhantura and Shyamala. The spread of each Chilling Unit was 6 kilometers of rural coverage. The main milk processing and milk-based product manufacturing unit was located at Manavar with a per day capacity of thirteen Lakh Liters. The existing capacity utilization was twelve Lakh Liters per day. The utilization was subject to milk collection from Mandalis. Normally, the milk collection was highest during Monsoon and dipped to a low during summer. This was so as water was not only the essential need of life, but also essential for the growing milk production. 85 percent of the constituent of milk was water and if there was no water, then there could not be any dairying business. The Dairy used 3.5 Liters of water for processing one liter of milk.

The Dairy was managed by a Board, which was the apex body, consisting of twenty one members i.e., sixteen Representatives from Mandalis, Managing Director, Representative of Registrar of Cooperatives, Representative of Country Dairy Development Council (CDDC), Representative of Bank and Representative of MPMS. The Board was headed by a Chairman elected by the Board Members, but normally from one of the Mandlis. The Chairman had lot of responsibilities to fulfill the local aspirations of employment and monetary benefits.

Manpower Scenario

The Dairy employed 1035 permanent employees and 300 contract laborers. The contract laborers were appointed through open tenders. Normally, contract laborers were hired for packaging, production and milk collection activities.

The recruitment of all the employees except Managing Director was subject to the sole discretion of the Board of the Dairy. The appointment of the Managing Director was to be endorsed mandatorily by the MPMS and CDDC. The Board formed Interview Committee consisting of Five Members namely, Sectional Representative, Human Resources (HR) Department Representative, Managing Director (Chairman of the Interview Committee) and two Nominees of the Chairman from the Board. Each section sent a requisition for filling up the vacant post or

additional recruitment requirements to HR department. The HR department processed the requisition with the Board for approving the requirements and also the eligibility norms. Once approved, the HR department approached various manpower pools for attracting requisite quality applications like Employment Exchange, reputed colleges in the near vicinity and through advertisements in local newspapers. The selection was done by Interview Committee.

The total number of employees to be recruited is required to be in conformity with MPMS and CDDC guideline. The recruitment had to be endorsed by the Registrar of Cooperatives of the State. The Board prescribed the minimum qualification for each post. Once the recruitment was over, it had to be endorsed by the Board within 30 days.

Whenever there was a emergency need of skilled employee for certain products or during a scenario of increase in production, Employee Loan Service (ELS) facility between Cooperative Dairies falling under the Sangh was available. The transfer under ELS was possible only when the work, skills and post matched. It was further subject to the concerned employee's acceptance.

Whenever there was a continued situation of reduced milk collection, permanent employees were transferred to activities, which were otherwise allocated to contract laborers such as milk collection, packaging and production. The contract laborers were removed and bonus paid to permanent employees was reduced.

The average age of permanent employee was forty-nine years and out of total permanent employees forty percent were deployed in the field activities like milk procurement, farmer training programs, veterinary services, cooperative development programs and milk collection. The rest were deployed at Manavar unit.

The Sangh gave approval for recruitment for 1100 permanent employees across department. Under the fear of inviting anger of Sangh, the dairy recruited only 1035 permanent employees, in spite of increasing production requirements

Employee Benefits

The dairy gave the following benefits to its permanent employees:

1. Employees Provident Fund Scheme was offered in which the employer contributed the same amount as was deducted from the employees' salary. The deduction was at the rate of 12% of Basic salary plus Dearness Allowance.
2. Group Insurance Policy was administered.
3. Gratuity Benefits.

4. Leave Travel Allowance, every three years, subject to minimum 200 days of work per year.
5. Bonus was given every year with minimum 8.33% of Basic Salary plus Dearness Allowance. Last year the Dairy gave 15% Bonus.
6. Free of cost Training and Development Program were offered to upgrade the employability of employees.
7. Free Transportation from residence to the work place was made available
8. Reduced rates of the milk products were charged from employees of the Dairy.
9. Afternoon lunch was provided at national rates to permanent employees.

The Cross Road

Voluntary Retirement Scheme (VRS) was not offered by the dairy. Mr. Patidar knew that an employee once recruited and confirmed, couldn't be sacked, as "No Fire Policy" existed. Even the non-performers could not be punished by reducing their ranks.

Mr. Patidar had a thought that as the dairy was operational for 24 years, several employees were due for retirement. Moreover, ITI holders servicing the Production and Maintenance groundwork were leaving jobs after getting experience, to more lucrative offers from other industries.

Mr. Patidar recalled the Board Meeting a day before, which approved Perspective Plan 2020. Under the plan, the dairy was to expand the capacity to 15 Lakh Liters per day of milk handling and establishment of two new chilling centers. The project was to cost Rs. 100 Crores. The plan envisioned to expand into new product manufacturing as recommended by the Sangh i.e., MPMS sweets like Rasogulla, Peda, Gulab Jamun etc. The plan also envisioned expansion of existing milk base products manufacturing units. To accomplish the vision, the Board approved recruitment of 200 additional engineers, diploma holders, ITI holders and administrative staff.

Further there was an increased absenteeism from permanent employees at below managerial level as pay hikes was as per CDDC and MPMS norms, which had not been revised for the last ten years.

Given the advancing drought scenario and situation at hand, Mr. Patidar felt helpless in balancing manpower requirement for the dairy. He set back on the chair in his office and wondered, what should be the course of action.

Questions for Case Analysis:

1. Were the concerns of Mr. B. D. Patidar justified?
2. What course of action would you recommend to Mr. B. D. Patidar?
3. Should Vipul Dairy revise Perspective Plan 2020?
4. What strategy for Human Resource Planning would you recommend for Vipul Dairy?
5. Should Vipul Dairy continue its association with MPMS?

Women Empowerment at Ajanta Manufacturing Limited

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The past three decades have witnessed a steadily increasing awareness of the need to empower women through measures to increase social, economic and political equity for sustainable economic and social development in any country. The case study highlights AML's (Ajanta Manufacturing Limited) women empowerment process. This case is about AML, a company forming a part of Ajanta Group of Companies based at Morbi India. Shri O. R. Patel, after whom the ORPAT brand is named, decided to employ women workforce in 1985 with the belief that 'women are more efficient and productive as they are disciplined, dedicated, and focused.' Out of nearly 4000 employees working in the organization 90% are female employees belonging to small villages. Group chairman gives credit to the thousands of women that contributed to the growth of company for being the biggest manufacturer of wall clocks in the world. The case discusses problems and challenges faced by organisation while recruitment, retaining the employees and the safety and security of women workforce. The case also highlights the issues related to motivation, training and development, compensation, reward-recognition and working culture in the company. The case also briefly discusses the innovative strategies to building confidence in women workforce.

Keywords: Women Empowerment, Ajanta Manufacturing Limited

Introduction

The constitution of India secures to all citizens its Fundamental Rights. The Principle of Gender equality grants equality to women and various measures are adopted in favor of women. As per census (2001) population of India was 1027 million where 496 million were female inhabitants, i.e. it total counts to 48% of population consist of women. And the female literacy in the country was 54.16%

For sustainable economic and social development to take place in any country, it is necessary that all sections of the population take part effectively in the economic, social, political and democratic processes of society. Presence of women in corporate India was increasing gradually, still the ratio of their participation in corporate was negligible. In such a scenario where acceptance of female workforce in corporate India was negligible, the case of Ajanta Manufacturing Ltd. should be appreciated as a case for women empowerment.

Ajanta group of companies

Ajanta group was set up by Mr. Odhavjibhai Patel (O.R.Patel) who founded the business in 1971, and started manufacturing clocks in the name of 'Ajanta Transistor Clocks Manufacturing Company'. In 1987 Mr. Jaysukhbhai Patel and Mr. Pravinbhai Patel took over their family business. The businesses were jointly managed by the promoters till the year 1992.

Phase I: AML was set up jointly as a partnership firm in 1992 as M/S Ajanta Electronics Inc.

Phase II: As a private entity AML was established in the year 1994 in the name of Ajanta Electronics Pvt. Ltd.,

Phase III: Thereafter in 2004 it was converted into public limited company as Ajanta Manufacturing Limited.

About AML

As a part of family arrangement, Mr. Jaysukhbhai Patel took over AML since 2004. The company was based at Morbi in the state of Gujarat. The philosophy was to give 'Value for Money', products, which help in maximizing the customer's satisfaction from the cost, benefit perspective. Based on these principles, AML employed more than 4000 employees, and was the largest manufacturer of Ajanta Clocks in India. The company was market leader of producing and distributing compact fluorescent lamps (CFL – Power Saver lamps), vitrified tiles and aluminum composite panels (ACP'S). The group had a strong penchant and expertise in creating excellent

brands. Brands which were offered by AML were, “AJANTA QUARTZ”, “OREVA” AND “ORPAT”.

Women Power in AML: Recruitment

Till 1985 the group had only male employees in the organization. Promoters observed that men were wasting their time by moving here and there which led to less productivity. Morbi was a small town of Gujarat. Generally girls used to work on farms. Neither those girls were educated, nor self sufficient. Therefore Mr. O.R.Patel thought of uplifting that segment of society and making them self sufficient. So they decided to employ women workforce since 1985 with the belief that “women are more efficient and productive as they are disciplined, dedicated, and focused.”

The promoters believed, “unlike men who waste their time at work by moving here and there, women are more disciplined and serious in performing their duties. Besides, their nimble fingers are ideal for the precision of work that clock manufacturing requires”.

It was an uphill task to convince parents to allow their young daughters to step out of their homes on to a shop-floor. Ajanta Group of companies were carrying good name in region of Morbi. To recruit women workforce at AML Mr. O. R.Patel firstly recruited Mrs. Vanitaben Patel, wife of his elder son Mr. Pravinbhai

Patel in the organization to build the trust among the parents of the young girls. That helped them to attract female workforce gradually. They believed, “in today’s world it is not *Human Resource* but it is *Human Relations* that counts in any organizations”.

The promoters took pride in recruiting such women work force, who were denied access to formal schooling. Those girls got the opportunity to acquire skill based training at AML. Such causation toward gender equity sought to empower women so as to take decision making about themselves, their families and their communities.

The uniqueness of such women workforce was that, even few female employees used to drive buses to bring women from over 100 villages in the area of 65 km radius in Morbi to the factory. Women almost left men behind in all the areas within the premises of Ajanta Manufacturing Ltd.

To quote with one of the example of a women employee “the group felt very proud in saying that being the only bread earner from the family, she feeds a family of four people by working 8 hour

shift a day". It was also seen that women have even crossed the Maslow's hierarchy of needs by climbing one ladder higher.

"We brought a Color T.V. for the family" said the proud father of women employee who was basically a farmer.

"Group chairman gave credit to the thousands of women that contributed to the growth of company for being the biggest manufacturer of wall clocks in the world."

It was being observed that AML was the leader in providing employment in Saurashtra, Gujarat region. At AML the major competencies required for the jobs were more of behavioral competency and skill efficiency rather than technical one.

While selecting the candidates AML gave emphasis on good attitude. They were evaluating the inner qualities like integrity, honesty and loyalty for each established job position.

Employee Enrichment

Apart from creating trust and safety on workplace, AML also provided best terms of employment in its region. AML was known in the market for reward and motivational system.

It would not be exaggerated to say that one can easily differentiate AML's employees with that of employee of other organizations from the region. The company was attractive pay masters as well as an excellent training provider. The company considered employees as its strength or pillar for the success. Promoters gave prime importance to employee enrichment for the smooth working in the organization. The company was equipped with latest office equipment and was the first movers in that region to adopt new things. That gave them excellent opportunities to learn new technologies.

The promoters felt that, "if your employees are happy, motivated then nobody can take away success from you". As good a saying "Happy Workers' are Productive Workers".

Retention

The main problem in recruiting women workforce was then, retention of talent. The attrition rate of women was very high at AML as well. AML took that challenge and started recruiting and training 2nd layer of the job requirement.

The reason for such high attrition was that, as a part of social system the girls used to get married at age of 20-25 and they tend to leave the organization. Along with the attrition, another big challenge faced by AML was the rapid changes in the technology. AML were an excellent trainer as they provided on- the- job training to all its employees.

The time when the company used to get the information about the marriage of any girl the new girl was immediately recruited and was made to work with the departing employee to take over the job without any hindrances. Overstaffing was never a problem but embedded in the culture of the company.

Retention efforts were focused on the core group of employees who provide the stability and knowledge base for the organization. When retention went below the lower limit, appropriate actions were taken by management to reframe strategies for retaining the key staff

Work Culture

Leaders deployed the vision, mission, and values in variety of ways, including AML's open communication process and the strategic planning process. Being majorly women oriented unit, women safety was of prime importance. In recent times one could see significant contribution of female employees in banking, IT and teaching. Still in male dominated society incidents of molestation and exploitations may observe on the workplace. AML adopted open communication process. There was an atmosphere like a close knit family prevalent at all levels and this had helped the group in improving its safety and productivity on consistent basis.

AML provided a great environment and a tradition to treat every one with respect and dignity. Promoters and seniors managers had regular visits to the plants, administrative offices and always spared time and having one to one communication with all the female workers in the organization. Women employees were given equal opportunity to resolve the issues related to them with top management.

It was a very big challenge for AML to keep smooth threads of relationship between the female work force and other managerial staff in the organization. The sense of due respect was always found towards all the female workers within the premises of AML. Girls were given right to share and discuss any of the work related problems with the promoters and board of directors. It was not only about sharing or telling the difficulties, but the girls were even assured action against the accused irrespective of her position. Girls were not allowed to work beyond their working hours (8 hours a day).

Rewards and Recognition

AML's motivational programs for its employees consisted of a special blend of employee benefits. They majorly focused on the physical emotional, mental, and creative aspects of each individual. The link between emotional-psychological needs, their untapped abilities and future organizational performance was very well seen at AML.

The company used to offer a comprehensive benefits package to the people working in the organization. On festivals like Diwali, bonus and gifts were distributed to all the workers irrespective of their contribution and tenure of working in the organization. Providing them with safety uniforms, transportation facilities, food etc. were some of the policies and practices observed at the company. With such humble effort and initiative a sense of being in the family was created among all workers and the employees were empowered in the organization.

As a part of social responsibility the company gave community support in key areas that were aligned with its vision and mission. For instance at the time of the marriage of the female employee irrespective of the period of service, all necessary house hold items along with the monetary benefits were given. Women were also given the opportunity to work even after their marriage. Since girls belonged to families from villages around Morbi social system didn't permit them to continue with the job.

As the girls were from the lower income group families, they did not have any scope of leisure or entertainment at their villages. So to keep them energetic and enthusiastic at work AML used to organize picnics, and get together at nearby places. At times they were shown some of the movies and videos at the factory auditorium.

AML provided free Canteen and accommodation with all basic amenities, like TV facility on master screen for all the girls working in the organization. Telephone facility on each floor of the hostel was also provided at free of cost. Workers were also reimbursed for their medical bills. Infrastructure at AML comprised of, hospital, Reva Township and Oreva party plot.

Various innovative ways were taken in the company to motivate the employees, like "*The day's target is achieved, Congratulations!!!*" were some of the quotes placed on the company's notice boards.

Participative Management

Since the group gave credit to all the women employees for its success, it believed that unless and until employees were not participative in setting of the standards and the objectives they would

not be able achieve success. AML believed in the concept of participative Management through which they tried to empower women workforce.

“Without our women employees we wouldn’t have been able to achieve the distinction of being the largest manufacturer of wall clocks in the world.”- Mr. O. R. Patel, Group Chairman.

AML believed in the strategy that the most successful leaders were those who form an intense and timeless reverence for the people, create a ‘culture of sustainability’, centered on people, not their products, services, or even the bottom line. AML believed in ethics,

honesty, and integrity. Its principles and values were non-negotiable requirement of employment. It had committed people to support the organization values and family culture with team work.

Hormonal Industrial Relations:

In spite of being labor intensive organization, there were no union and there were no strikes or labor unrest since inception of the company. It was observed that few employees were working with the company since its inception. There was no discrimination among the employees. Girls were seen on the shop floor as well as holding key positions in the company

Product Diversification and recruiting women:

Moving further to expand the vision of the company, the company decided to set up it own comprehensive CFL – ‘power saver lamps’ manufacturing unit. The overwhelming success of the new product made OREVA brand the number one company and the leading manufacturer of CFL lamps.

Diversifying more on investment opportunities AML had launched ELECTRIC BIKES popularly known as ‘E-bikes’ under the banner of OREVA. Needless to mention the basic philosophy remained the same. They continued to recruit women workforce for their CFL and E-Bikes units.

Future challenges

In India ‘Women Empowerment’ is still an idea if one look to poor and illiterate segment of the society. Because of social issues, corporate female employees cannot climb the ladder and achieve strategic positions. With the increased literacy level in India, organization may face different challenges in women empowerment.

Conclusion

AML chose the strategy of employing women work force as a medium to achieve its organizational goals. The emerging scenario towards breakage of 'glass ceiling' was very well seen at AML. It would not been exaggeration to say that AML provided platform to that segment of society called as women workforce for its upliftment, dignity and wellbeing.

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Questions for Case Analysis:

1. Has women empowerment being achieved at AML? Justify.
2. Had you been in place of Mr. O.R.Patel , what else would you suggest further in women empowerment process ?

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Settling Scores

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Organizations of today operate in very dynamic set of conditions. At organizational level & individual level life values, preferences & culture are quite diverse. However the fundamental organizational values that impact its functioning are, universal in nature. In this backdrop, building a sustainable & value aligned work culture across the globe depends upon the stance taken by the senior leaders in organization .The case highlights the difficulties encountered by the women employees who aspire to make it big in the corporate ladder & subsequently in professional domain but ultimately end up becoming victims of individual revenge & politics.

Keywords: Professionalism, Settling Scores, Organizational Culture, Workforce Dynamics.

The Happy Beginning:

Preeti Raghvan completed her engineering in Electronics & Communications from Government College at Bangalore. Preeti was an outstanding student in academics. Preeti completed her engineering with distinction. Equipped with excellent technical skills & a flair for learning, it was not difficult for her to secure a job in the booming IT Industry. Preeti was obvious choice of the leading IT companies which turned for campus placement, so much so that Preeti was spoilt of choice. Preeti chose to work with Manaic Consultancy based at Bangalore. The consultancy provided software solutions to leading clients pertaining from manufacturing, services to hospitality with leading clients from cross border countries. Having successfully completed tenure of two years at this consultancy company, Preeti thought it wise enough to pursue higher education in management discipline. Following further, Preeti could make it to the top business school in the country through her hard & meticulous work complimented by great aptitude. Preeti completed her Master in Business Administration specializing in Human Resources as she felt that she possessed great interpersonal & people management skills.

Preeti got success fully placed through campus placement in one of the leading companies of the service sector, Zenith Private Limited. She got hired for the capacity of HR executive. The company had 2000 employees as its workforce size. The company extended a luring package, abundant career development, learning opportunities and at the top this posting at Bangalore. Bangalore was Preeti's home ground and a megacity very dear to Preeti's heart. Furthermore the word of mouth which she received from her friends working in other companies in the same sector was fair enough. Preeti had no chance to reject the offer. Preeti was joyful & contented. She thought that this was her dream job that she had always aspired for. After the completion of employment offer formalities Preeti was supposed to report at company office within a week with which Preeti was more than comfortable. After the passage one week, Preeti reported at the company where she was required to undergo the induction programme. The induction programme made sure that Preeti was given a soft landing at the organization. Preeti was very much impressed by the company's vision, & the welfare policies for the employee's. This provided a reality bite to the concept of her dream job.

The third & fourth pages of the case study provided insights into the organization where the character was recruited, its working culture & environment. It also throws light on the personality traits of the character's immediate boss & co- colleagues.

The soft landing:

The second phase of the induction programme was continued over by Mr. Ravikant Sinha, Preeti's immediate boss, working at the capacity of Manager (HR) & associated with the company for the four years. Ravikant was a man of enthusiasm coupled with a soft & supportive nature. He was in his mid thirties & unmarried. Ravikant was very much impressed by Preeti's personality, her radiance, dynamism and zeal to conquer the world. Ravikant also took an opportunity to introduce Shikha to Preeti. Shikha like Preeti was working at the rank of HR executive. She was associated with the organization for the last six months. Shikha was a lady of warmth & caring nature. Preeti was very much impressed by her boss, co- colleagues & their caring gesture. This job was indeed a dream come true for Preeti. Within no time Preeti got assimilated & absorbed into the work culture of the company.

Preeti rolled out many training & development interventions in consultation with Ravikant within two months of joining specifically for the middle management & upper middle management for the various functions like sales, operations, finance pertaining to soft skills, emotional intelligence, and interpersonal skills, all being well received. Preeti received accolades for the various interventions she organized. In no time she became a very popular in the organization. The employees felt that Preeti could feel the pulse of the organization.

This recognition did not come in isolation. Recognition had responsibility to shoulder. This enhanced the work burden on Preeti. Responsibility augmentation made sure that Preeti & Ravikant would have to meet regularly to discuss work linked issues. They would often drop at the company cafeteria, albeit to discuss some or the other module of training & development that were to be rolled out for its workforce. Ravikant, who had developed a degree of inclination towards Preeti from the very first meeting, found his feelings augmented with every passing day. He felt that Preeti was perfect for him & together would make a perfect couple. Ravikant would not miss even a single opportunity which would allow him to stay close to Preeti. On several occasions he tried to muster courage to express his tender feeling of love but in vain. One fine day, during their regular interaction on office work, Ravikant solicited courage & expressed his hidden emotional feelings to Preeti. Preeti could not believe this. She was not prepared for such sudden emotional outburst. She was taken aback. Moreover Preeti had never seen Ravikant from that perspective.

The subsequent page throws glance on problem situation & its associated repercussions on the relationship both professional & personal. The changed dynamics between the character & her boss. The undesirable impact on the career progression of the character leaving her in a quandary.

The ending was not so happy:

In no time Preeti reverted back that stating that Ravikant seemed to have misinterpreted her feelings & her behavior towards him. He was more of a compassionate boss cum friend for him. Moreover she was a lady of high career orientation & marriage was nowhere in picture for her. Saying that Preeti left the cafeteria premises stating that she had some other office exigency. Ravikant could not believe his ears. How could Preeti reject his proposal? He was downtrodden. Pondering over he too left the cafeteria. On that day Preeti & Rajnikant did not indulge in any sort of conversation whatsoever. The next morning work started as usual. Preeti was expecting everything to be settled. But destiny has something else in stored for her. Everything changed with yesterday afternoon. Rajnikant was changed man. The sympathetic, supportive Rajnikant was taken over by unsupportive & retaliating Rajnikant. Preeti could smell the wrong. Ever since then, Rajnikant would not miss any opportunity to sideline Preeti & humiliate her in front of her colleagues. She was also sidelined from the prestigious Management Development Programme which was to be rolled out for the upper middle management in the coming months. Her name was replaced by Shikha without knowlege, in spite of Preeti putting in all the ground work & efforts. The relationship between Preeti & Rajnikant turned bitter day by day. Preeti on the other side of the picture possessed a gut feeling that things would settle down gradually & Rajnikant would see the light with time. Days paved way for months & months for year. It was a year passed by. The results of the performance appraisal were to be declared. Preeti was expecting promotion with pay hike as she felt that she had put in considerable amount of hard & meticulous efforts & was well deserving. Preeti came to the company the next day expecting the good news to be announced soon to her surmise, Preeti was found to have a performance appraisal rating of “C” i.e. average as compared to “A” secured by Shikha. It was Shikha who secured the promotion, in spite of Preeti being more deserving. Preeti could not believe her luck. It was then in no time Preeti realized that the performance appraisal report was reviewed & signed by Ravikant. Her immediate boss had tried to settle score with her by trying to put a break on her career ascent. In no second did she realize that Ravikant could not accept Preeti’s rejection gracefully. Preeti could not believe it could have happened to her. She could not give up just because her boss could accept her rejection gracefully. What could she do? Whether she could escalate the matter to the senior management or could leave the present organization & wait for further opportunities. Amid all these thoughts Preeti thought over whether this was the dream job she had always aspired for?

Questions for Case Analysis:

1. Enumerate the role of senior management in the issues of this sort.
2. If you would have been in Preeti's position what step you would have taken?

Book Review

“THE HAPPY EMPLOYEE”-

101 Ways for Managers to Attract, Retain, & Inspire The Best and Brightest.

Julia McGovern and Susan Shelly

Business, Adams Media, Avon, MA 02322, U.S.A., First South Asian Edition, 2010, pp 250, Rs. 29

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Fundamental changes are taking place among the work force and at the workplace that promise to radically alter the way companies relate to their employees. Number of changing work place trends has created fierce competition for qualified work force in this knowledge economy. Companies that understand what their employees need and make strategic decisions proactively to fulfil those needs will become the dominant players in their respective markets. Plenty of attention is given to attracting and selecting the right people, developing them once they are on the team, and understanding the full scope of their capabilities. Many researchers have highlighted the importance of front line managers and how their behavior relates directly to the levels of commitment, motivation and satisfaction of the employees which can lead them to stay at the organization. Lots of material is available on how to retain the talented human assets and how to make them happy and satisfied but *The Happy Employee- 101 Ways for Managers to Attract, Retain, & Inspire the Best and Brightest* written by

Julia McGovern and Susan Shelly will help the students, managers and academicians to learn about leadership, building trust and earning respect, how to develop and maintain high-performance teams through proper communication techniques and effective rewards system which is having base on research and real life examples. The entire book is divided in to three parts and eighteen chapters which cover 101 ways for managers to attract retain and inspire the best and brightest of the organization.

Retention strategy starts with smart hiring. The first chapter of the book starts with process of identifying and attracting the top talent, and tips for the same which has been explained with case studies of different organizations. The reviews of different experts including top- notch managers of different companies and management Gurus have also been mentioned to support the same. Continuum of Hiring process and creative ways for the process makes the topic clearer. What can be done to avoid common mistakes in HRM practice and how to resolve the loss of the mistakes have been explained with case studies. The current challenges to HR include the shortage of skilled man power and how to retain them as needs of human beings differ from time to time, person to person and place to place. How to understand the needs of the employees and how to get them fulfilled them is described in the second chapter. As a manager one should also take care of the diversity of the team and should react accordingly which has been described with case studies. Manager should plan the recruitment process in a scientific manner which includes, knowing the jobs that are going to be recruited, prior research work for the same, development of a Perfect-Employee Profile, understanding the position specification, assess the prospective candidates etc. have been explained in third chapter. The process then continue with the actual recruitment process which covers to find out the source for the process, the best use of technology, ideal time frame for that and so on which have been described in fourth chapter. The next step is to select the best candidates for the organization. The selection process has also become much more scientific and complex one. Chapter five, six and seven covers the tips for the interview process, sample questions to be asked at the time of the interview, Dos and Don'ts of the interview process, how to conclude interview process, preparing the list of the selected candidates, negotiation process and so on.

Part II of the book is about retaining best and brightest employees. Identifying, interviewing and hiring the right employees are critical steps but retaining those employees is every bit as important. Satisfied employees provide tremendous advantages to the companies they work for. Different researches conducted on retention strategies have been elaborated in chapter eight. Negative impact of high turnover, signs indicating turnover have been discussed which continue

with the good on-boarding strategies, tips with Dos and Don'ts for the on-boarding program, guidelines for the orientation program and role of co-workers and supervisors. Managers having leadership quality can make his staff accountable and lead his team for the development of the organization. Chapter nine includes concept of leadership, theories of leadership, styles of leadership, tips for a manager to be a good leader, role of manager in getting higher productivity, tips for getting employees to aim high and achieve more, leadership competencies and self-development steps for a leader. The book all over contains a lot of information about the responsibilities of managers. Managers most of the times complain that employees don't seem to take responsibility of their work and even they don't seem to be accountable. Here the challenge for the manager is how to encourage employees to remain engaged in their job. The key factor for solution of this problem is to delegate responsibilities in a proper manner. Chapter ten includes how to delegate responsibilities, steps for implementation of Management by Walking Around (concept taken from the book *In Search of Excellence*, written by Tom Peters and Robert H. Waterman), strategies for time management, how to keep meetings productive and meaningful. The managers should attune to their own emotions then only they can be successful in their personal and professional lives. The chapter includes tools to score high emotional intelligence. With the help of this only, one can handle critical employee issues tactfully. For this situational leadership model developed by management Guru Ken Blanchard has been discussed. Chapter eleven describes types of team, role of manager in building team, twelve tips for effective team building developed by Susan M. Heathfield, a Management development consultant, how to overcome resistance from difficult team members. Tips for maintaining standard performance as a team leader has been discussed. The consultants worked on why the companies experiencing high turnover rate took responses from the sample employees who left the organization, came to the opinion that lack of appreciation for the work done, lack of individual development opportunities lead them to attrition. Employees generally welcome constructive advice and opportunities regarding their career path so training and development programs should be included. Chapter twelve discusses the need of career development program and the ways to motivate employees.

Part III is about maintaining morale of the employees to be happy and productive. Every organization has a particular culture which defines the character of the organization. In chapter thirteen clues for determining the culture has been discussed. Tools to use at the time of guiding for bigger and better things have also been explained. Five – C approach to effective communication suggested by *The National Business Research Institute, Inc.* has been elaborated in chapter fourteen. The chapter continues with the discussions of strategies for effective

communication, Dos and Don'ts for E- Mail, how and up to what level control should be there on employee's personal distractions, etc.

Chapter fifteen is all about effective techniques, categories and tips for giving and receiving feedback, best ways of evaluating performance, qualities of good performance appraisal, use of employee opinion survey and tips for the same. Role of manager as a coach and the way and time to take disciplinary actions with illustrations have been discussed in chapter sixteen. Chapter seventeen shows the simple but important ways to make employee happy and feeling them appreciated including Reward and Recognitions Programs, shapes and sizes for Rewards and so on. Strategies recommended by American Psychological Association for managing stress are nicely discussed in the last chapter of the book. Test for measuring the effectiveness as a role model for manager is also given. The chapter ends with the tips how to help the employees with different age group to manage their work and life.