An investigation into the relationships between universities' internal branding, employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of immediate leaders: A study from the perspective of academic staff in Thai universities

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing

Narissara Kaewsurin

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this doctoral thesis to my father (Somboon Kaewsurin) and my mother (Chavalrat Kaewsurin), who love me and have given me every support.

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Declaration

This is to declare that:

- I am responsible for the work submitted in this thesis.
- This work has been written by me.
- All verbatim extracts have been distinguished and the sources specifically acknowledged.
- During the preparation of this thesis, some papers were prepared as listed below. The remaining parts of the thesis have not yet been published.

Journal Articles

Currently in preparation:

1. "An investigation into the effects of internal branding on employee brand support in universities", target journal, Journal of Management Studies (with Guido Berens, T.C. Melewar, Dorothy Yen and Manto Gotsi).

Contributions to Conference Proceedings – refereed:

2. "An investigation into the effects of internal branding on employee brand support in universities", Proceedings of **the 7th Annual Conference of the Corporate Identity/Associations Research Group,** Hannover, Germany, 1st-3rd October 2010 (with T.C. Melewar).

3. "Internal branding in universities: a review and research agenda", Proceedings of **the 5th International Colloquium of the Academy of Marketing's Brand, Corporate Identity and Reputation Special Interest Group,** Gillespie Centre, Clare College, University of Cambridge, United Kingdom, 1st- 3rd September 2009, (with T.C. Melewar).

4. “Internal branding in universities: antecedents and consequences from the manager’s perspective”, Proceedings of **the 4th International Colloquium of the Academy of Marketing’s Brand, Corporate Identity and Reputation Special Interest Group,** Goizueta Business School, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, 2nd -14th September 2008 (with T.C. Melewar)

5. “Internal branding in universities: the manager’s perspective”, Proceedings of **the Academy of Marketing Annual Conference,** The Robert Gordon University, Aberdeen, Scotland, 8th -10th July 2008, ISBN 978-1-901085-94-5 (with T.C. Melewar, and Manto Gotsi)

6. “Internal branding in higher education: government policy and leadership”, Proceedings of **the 13th International Corporate and Marketing Communications Conference,** University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, 24th -26th April 2008, ISBN 978-961-235-322-3 (with T.C. Melewar) (Best paper award: Branding for non-profit organisations).

Papers presented

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9. “An investigation into effects of internal branding on employee brand support in Thai universities”, Paper presented at **Brunel Business School PhD Symposium, 2009**, 23rd - 24th March 2009.

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- The present work has not been submitted within a degree programme at this or any other institution,

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Date: __________________________________

Abstract

Internal branding in universities has been acknowledged in marketing literature as an important area of research. In the context of higher education institutions, employees play a crucial role in the branding process. Research within the current spectrum of internal branding indicates some ambiguities surrounding internal branding in higher education. Yet very few studies are available in the field of internal branding within universities to explore employee behaviour in brand support.

Accordingly, the objective of this study is to examine, from the academic staff's perspective, the relationships between internal branding in universities and employee brand support and also the relevant underlying mechanisms (specifically, the mediating effects of internal branding aspects, i.e., 1. brand-centred training and development activities and 2. internal brand communications) in a Thai university context. This study employed a mixed methods approach with a dominant quantitative component, involving semi-structured interviews (with 19 respondents) and a pilot survey (with 95 respondents) to collect data for the development of measurement scales. Afterwards, the main survey (with 347 respondents) was conducted in order to test the research hypotheses and the proposed conceptual model. In addition, information from the semi-structured interviews is used to explain the relationships found in this study after hypothesis testing.

Based on a review of the existing literature in a range of fields (including higher education management, brand management, organisational identity, organisational culture and behaviour, corporate communication, human resource management, marketing management, government policy and leadership), this study proposes a conceptual model of the positive relationships between internal branding activities in universities (internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities) and employee brand support. In addition, the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (idealised influence or charisma; inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration) are also included in the model as determinants of

internal branding activities and employee brand support. Brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communication activities are proposed as mediators of the relationships in the model. The proposed conceptual model is developed on the basis of marketing control theory (Jaworski, 1988) combined with transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and Lewin's (1947) change theory.

From the statistical findings, together with support from the literature and the in-depth interviews during the exploratory stage, this study finds positive relationships between brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communication activities, the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders and employee brand support. However, an unexpected outcome is that the relationship between internal brand communication activities and employee brand support is not significant. This outcome indicates that the brand-centred training and development construct fully mediates the relationship between internal brand communication activities and employee brand support. Therefore, in order to create employee brand support behaviours among academic staff, institutions cannot rely solely on their internal communication activities. This finding highlights a crucial role for brand-centred training and development activities in building employee brand support in the context of higher education. In addition, the study finds that, given transformational leadership characteristics, an immediate leader of academic staff not only affects their brand support behaviour, but also either initiates or influences internal branding activities in the institution, thereby creating employee brand support among academic staff. Therefore, institutions which want to build employee brand support from the academic staff should ensure that the immediate leaders of their academic staff' should manifest transformational leadership characteristics. Finally, this investigation is expected to be of value in advancing current knowledge about internal branding in universities and also be useful to higher education management and public policy-makers who want to encourage academic staff to support their university's brand.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Organisations with consistent, unique and deeply held values are likely to perform better than organisations with a less clear and articulated ethos (Collins & Porras, 1995 cited in Mosley, 2007, p.128). Therefore, developing an organisation's brand from the inside out is vital. Internal branding assists organisations to focus on their brand values by cooperatively conveying and committing themselves to one coherent brand message, in order for their employees to understand the brand value and deliver the full promise of the brand to customers (e.g., Urde, 2003; Karmark, 2005; Mosley, 2007; de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006). In a university context, employees and academics play a crucial role in the internal branding process (Judson, Gorchels & Aurand, 2006; Judson, Aurand, Gorchels & Gordon, 2009; Whisman, 2009). However, very few internal branding studies focus on universities. This doctoral research is primarily concerned with the relationship between internal branding in universities and the way in which the academic staff support their institution's brand. The research employs Jaworski's (1988) marketing control theory, Burns's (1978) transformational leadership theory, Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and Lewin's (1947) change theory to analyse the relationships between internal branding and employee brand support, coupled with the relevant underlying mechanisms (the mediating effects of internal branding activities). This chapter offers 1) a background to the research; 2) a statement of the problem; 3) the research objectives and questions; 4) a rationale for the context; 5) the expected research contributions; 6) the methodology; 7) an outline of the limitations of the research and 8) the thesis structure.

1.2 The background of the research

In order to have a clearer understanding of the research background, this section first presents the situation of the higher education market, in regard to its new public management and the quasi-market policies employed by governments all over the world of encouraging educational institutions to be more market-oriented (Walford, 1996). Then the situation of universities with regard to internal branding is discussed.

1.2.1 Governmental policies and university administration

The increased competition in the education market has been seen as the key driver of higher education marketisation across the world (Maringe, 2005a, 2010). However, even though universities are forced in some senses to become more independent, at present the most influential market is state-regulated (Henkel, 1997; Adcroft, Teckman & Willis, 2010). In addition, the emergence of branding in higher education also seems to be a consequence of system level policies in the higher education sector (Stensaker, 2005), where the government supplies the organisation with critical resources (contributions) and in exchange the government expects its interests to be satisfied (Hill & Jones, 1992). The influence of government is felt more strongly by colleges and universities than by business and industry (Karol & Ginsburg, 1980; Adcroft et al., 2010). Governments control universities through legislation, administrative regulations (Gledhill, 1996), court decisions and the actions of the executive branch of government.

When the government encourages market approaches to education policies[1], it allows universities to have more control over their staff, budget and internal organisation (Tooley, Dixon & Stanfield, 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010). This encourages universities to develop efficient systems, for example, of internal communication (Judson et al., 2006) to support academics in developing their performance (Tooley et al., 2003). In turn, this increases the quality and efficiency of their service (Tooley et al., 2003).

Market approaches to education policies tend to highly influence the initiation of marketing and branding programmes in universities (Stensaker, 2005). First, during the last twenty years, governments throughout the world have built their strategies around keywords such as transparency, comparability and consumerism (Stensaker, 2005). Governments have decentralised the provision of universities in order to stimulate

[1] The market approaches in university can be classified into three ideal types: 1) alternative funding; 2) alternative schools; 3) alternative providers (Tooley et al., 2003).

improvements in the educational attainment of students (Walford, 1996; Marginson, 1996; de Boer, Jürgen & Liudvika*,* 2007). Devolving authority to the organisational level forms an integral part of new public management approaches which have inspired higher education institutions to reform and encouraged market approaches to higher education administration (Marginson, 1996; de Boer et al., 2007; Adcroft et al., 2010).

Second, higher education institutions are dependent upon three sources of income to support their operations: 1) endowments; 2) funding from government; and 3) tuition (Hobbs, 1978). Although public institutions receive more funding from government than private institutions do (Hobbs, 1978), both private and public universities are now facing a decline in governmental funding (Ivy, 2001; Brookes, 2003). A new public management approach (e.g., the introduction of variable tuition fees) has been introduced in order to inspire and encourage educational institutions to be more market-oriented, resulting in lower government grants to higher education (Brookes, 2003; de Boer et al., 2007; Adcroft et al., 2010). The decline of funding from governments is one of the main reasons for institutions to begin applying a marketing strategy (Ivy, 2001), since they need to find alternative revenue streams; inevitably they have become more marketing-aware (Brookes, 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010).

Third, the practices discussed above could also bear witness to the emergence of quasi-market policies for governing the higher educational sector (Brookes, 2003; Stensaker 2005). The term 'quasi-market' is used to describe a type of market-like institutional structure in which competition mechanisms are encouraged in order to improve the performance of public institutions (their quality and efficiency) (Lapsley, 1992). However, to defeat negative aspects of the market and to ensure educational equality, state involvement has been strengthened (Walford, 1996). According to the 'Oxford studies in comparative education' of 1996, it is agreed that the purpose of the quasi-market policies used by all governments has been to encourage educational institutions to think more in terms of the market (Walford, 1996).

Furthermore, in parallel with the emergence of quasi-market policies for governing the higher educational sector, ranking systems have emerged in a number of countries

(Stensaker, 2005; Salmi & Saroyan, 2007) in order to guide students when making decisions about their choice of institution for a first degree. These systems also serve as background information for funding decisions (Dill & Soo, 2003 cited in Stensaker 2005, p.4) and are used as policy instruments for measuring and comparing university performances (Salmi & Saroyan, 2007). The league tables and ranking systems impact greatly on higher education decision-making by helping universities to set goals for their strategic planning and assess their performance, as well as to support their representation (Hazelkorn, 2007).

League tables and ranking systems lead to good opportunities for higher education institutions to position themselves within the higher education market. The ranking table is likely to influence the way in which institutions encourage employees to deliver the service which the institution brand promises to customers, in order to offer a positive image (Salmi & Saroyan, 2007; Hazelkorn, 2007). In addition, the increasing competition between institutions, not to mention the growing concern for effective management, have resulted in the need for higher educational institutions to be managed in the same way as any other enterprise in the private sector and the need to promote their services through various marketing activities (e.g., Kotler & Levy, 1969; Litten, 1980; Kotler & Fox, 1985; Gray, 1991; Klayton, 1993; Naude & Ivy, 1999; Maringe, 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Hammond, Harmon, Webster & Rayburn, 2004, 2007).

Overall, the discussion above suggests that higher education institutions are encouraged on all sides to become more market oriented. When educational institutions are led by governments into a market system, they are forced to fund themselves more independently (Marginson, 1996). The institutions begin to treat students and parents as consumers, responsible in the end for the policies of the institution, including staff policies (Marginson, 1996). A decline in funding influences the way in which institutions treat their staff (Brookes, 2003). Private universities, which may be more dependent upon tuition fees (since they receive less funding from the government), appear to be ahead of public universities in using the initiatives in internal brand communication (Judson et al., 2006).

1.2.2 Universities and internal brand building

Recently, organisations have increasingly focused on their brand values by cooperatively conveying and committing themselves to one coherent brand message, in order for their employees to understand the values embodied in the brand and to deliver the brand promise to customers (Judson et al., 2006; Boone, 2000). A brand message will lose its credibility if it is not supported by aligned employee behaviour (Schiffenbauer, 2001 cited in Judson et al., 2006, p.99). As noted above, organisations with consistent, unique and deeply held values have been shown most likely to perform better than those with an ambiguously articulated ethos (Collins & Porras, 1995 cited in Mosley, 2007, p.128), making it imperative to develop an organisation's brand from the inside out.

In a university context, employees and academics play a crucial role in the brand building process (Stensaker, 2005, 2007; Whisman, 2009). University employees are heavily influential in representing higher education institutions to the public (for example, in terms of staff reputation, research output and top quality teaching) (Naude & Ivy, 1999; Ivy, 2001). If staff members do not clearly understand the institution's brand, their acts may reflect their own values more than the university's brand values (Jevons, 2006). Baker and Balmer (1997, p.367), also state:

> "As institutions, universities seem to have a clearly defined and well understood role, centred on the discovery of new knowledge through research and its maintenance and communication through teaching. The problem is, however, that individual members of a university are, by definition, experts in their own right and so consider that they are the best judge of how to fulfil this role. At best, the members of the academic community will proceed in the same general direction. At worst, they will actively pull against one another. The result will be something similar to the efforts of a symphony orchestra without a conductor, a leader, or even the music to hold them together".

Therefore, in order to encourage coherent branding, employees should have the same perceptions of the values embedded in the brand (de Chernatony, 2002). However, to ensure that employees behave in alignment with the brand, the branding process must address such fundamental questions as ‘who are we?’ and ‘what are our values?’ (Belanger, Mount & Wilson, 2002). For this reason, internal communication is crucial for managing academic staff in higher education institutions so that they behave in a manner which supports their institution’s brand.

1.3 Problem statement

Internal branding relates to the alignment of employee behaviour with brand values (e.g., Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2004; Aurand, Gorchels & Bishop, 2005; Mosley, 2007). As discussed above, in a university context, employees and academics are likely to play an integral role in the branding process. However there are very few studies available within this area. The existing literature has focused on studies exploring corporate branding and the ways in which higher education institutions create their corporate identity (e.g., Melewar & Akel, 2005; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Atakan & Eker, 2007; Celly & Knepper, 2010) which are not closely related to the function of employees within universities. Recently, the studies by Judson et al. (2006, 2009) on ‘Building the university brand from within’ and Whisman’s (2009) qualitative study, ‘Internal branding: a university’s most valuable intangible asset’ have highlighted the importance of internal branding within universities. However, the concept of internal branding in universities still remains unclear, since the studies are conducted in relation to specific communication tools only. One of the most important concerns, however, is the fact that internal branding in universities is based on knowledge imported from the business sector. Thus, it raises the question of the applicability of the internal branding concept in the context of universities. There is therefore a need for more research to examine the effects of internal branding at the university level.

Employees’ brand support behaviour is considered to be influenced by internal branding (e.g., de Chernatony, 2001; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006, 2009; King & Grace, 2008). However, in the higher education context, the relationship between internal branding and support from the academic staff for the institution’s brand is still unclear. Although a few researchers (e.g., Judson et al. 2006; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Whisman, 2009) have covered internal brand communications in higher education institutions, their studies have mainly focused on administrative staff (Judson et al., 2006, 2009) or on students (Balmer & Liao, 2007) rather than on academic staff, who "should be seen as the primary resource of a university and … [need] to be managed and accounted for with appropriate care and skill" (Jarrett Report, 1985 cited in Barry, Chandler & Clark, 2001, p.89). Therefore, research is required to clarify the relationships between internal branding activities in higher education institutions and the support for their institution's brand on the part of academic staff.

Moreover, the literature suggests that the characteristics of leaders within the organisation are likely to encourage employees' brand commitment (Schein, 1983; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Therefore, leadership (transformational leadership, in particular) is included within the proposed conceptual model of this thesis in order to examine the influence of the leadership characteristics of academic staff leaders on internal branding and academic staff's brand support behaviour. Furthermore, in the literature review of studies conducted on internal branding within the context of universities it seemed that the findings were generated on the basis of Western values and philosophies, since most of the research has come from North America. As a result, the generalizablility of the theory has been limited to countries sharing a similar Western cultural background. Therefore, this study intends to help bridge this gap by selecting Thailand, a country in South-East Asia, as the setting in which to explore the concept of internal branding within universities where Eastern cultural values prevail.

1.4 Research objectives and questions

Given the importance of internal branding to universities, it is worthwhile investigating the concept further, to harmonise the existing research. This doctoral study has two main research objectives. First, it aims to develop a model to explain the relationship between aspects of internal branding in universities and the brand support behaviour of academic staff, and second, it seeks to explain the influence of aspects of internal branding and the transformational leaders of academic staff on employee brand support. This research also proposes to empirically test the model in a non-Western context, allowing researchers to examine the validity and applicability of theories developed in the West in another cultural setting, which includes an assessment of the dimensionality and operationalisation of constructs and the assessment of certain assumptions associated with the findings reported in the existing literature (e.g., the connection between internal branding and employee brand support). In particular, this study wishes to answer the following research questions, from the academic staff perspective:

1) What is the relationship, if any, between internal branding activities (i.e., 1. brand-centred training and development activities; and 2. internal brand communications) and employee brand support?
2) Are the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader determinants of employee brand support?
3) Is the impact of internal branding and leadership characteristics on employee brand support direct? In other words, are there any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between internal branding activities, employee brand support and leadership characteristics?

This doctoral study will, it is hoped, advance current knowledge about building university brands internally and offer practical insights to university managers and public policy makers.

1.5 Rationale for the context

Thailand, a country in Southeast Asia, was selected as the setting for this study, for several reasons. First of all, the higher education institutions in Thailand have recently faced a change in government policies (Sangnapaboworn, 2003; Sinlarat, 2005), which encourage competition in the higher education market (Tooley et al., 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010). In addition, the Thai government has also increasingly recognised the importance of academic staff as strategic tools for these improvements (CHE, 2009). By conducting this research in Thailand, the researcher expects to reveal significant managerial and policy implications for Thai higher education institutions and the Thai government.

Furthermore, the studies on internal branding have so far been conducted in developed Western countries (e.g., the USA and the UK). Very few studies have focused on the internal branding in non-Western countries (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011). This raises the question of the applicability of the internal branding concept in the context of non-Western countries. Several researchers have recommended collecting data in a non-Western country in order to test the validity and applicability of theories developed in the West (e.g., Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Peng, Peterson & Shyi, 1991).

In addition, too little literature focuses on internal branding in a university context, in particular, the context of non-Western universities. These universities, notably in emerging markets, have gradually recognised the importance of the corporate brand, which emphasises the roles of employees in the brand building process (Istileulova, 2010). However, the knowledge of internal branding in a non-Western university context is still vague. Conducting this research in Thailand, a country which has often been referred to as one of top 10 emerging markets in the world (MCWW, 2008), should shed light on university internal branding in the emerging markets of non-Western countries. This is because the employees in Thai organisations exhibit several behaviours which are consistent with what other researchers have found in non-Western countries, above all those in Asia. For example, compared to people in developed Western countries, Thai employees exhibit a very high score of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1984). Employees with a high score of uncertainty avoidance are likely to prefer their job requirements and instructions to be spelled out in detail, letting them know what they are expected to do (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004). In addition, Thai employees exhibit a lower score of individualism than do people in Western countries, implying that group decisions are considered better than individual decisions (Hofstede, 1984). These conditions may alter the outcome of internal branding in the non-Western organisations. Moreover, the values and norms of Thai employees are firmly rooted in Buddhism, unlike those in Western countries, whose populations are mainly Catholic or Protestant Christian (Hofstede, 1984).

Conducting this research in Thailand is likely to test the validity and applicability of theories developed in the West (e.g., Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Peng et al., 1991). More information on the details of the research setting can be found in Section 4.3.1 Research setting.

In addition, the situations of higher education institutions in Thailand are likely to be a suitable setting for research to examine how communication activities affect the behaviours of academic staff. Due to the new public management trend in Thailand in the last twenty years (IRC, 2003; Sangnapaboworn, 2003), government has succeeded in decentralising the provision of higher education institutions in order to stimulate improvements in educational attainment (Tooley et al., 2003). Moreover, in 2006, the Thai government introduced the ranking tables for the nation's universities in order to evaluate their performances and assess budget allocations (CHE, 2009). More than fifty per cent of the indicators are related to academic staff, for instance, the indicators of teachers' ability to produce research which is published in reputable journals (CHE, 2009). The institutions in Thailand have increasingly recognised the importance of internal communications and create various strategies for allocating and managing their academic staff (Sangnapaboworn, 2003). In the present situation of higher education institutions in Thailand, choosing them as the research setting provides a good opportunity for research to examine the effects of the communication activities on the brand support behaviour of academic staff. More information on the details of the situation of higher education institutions in Thailand can be found in Section 4.3.2 The situation of higher education institutions in Thailand.

Because a single area of work is expected to give the study better control over market and environmental differences (Conant, Mokwa and Varadarajan, 1990), this study chose to examine internal branding activities and their effect on employees' behaviour in Thai business schools. This is because business schools tend to be ahead of other academic schools with regard to the implementation of corporate branding activities (Istileulova, 2010). As it appears that business schools generally communicate brand messages within the institution (Balmer & Liao, 2007), their academic staff are expected to be a group of respondents which has experience in receiving brand messages, and consequently has a tendency to be capable of providing information about the communication activities implemented within these schools. Moreover, in a highly competitive environment, the business schools tend to work harder than other academic schools to develop and protect their brand by communicating its brand messages (Melewar & Akel, 2005). The circumstances of business schools, thus, tend to be open to an examination of the way in which brand communications affect the academic staff's brand support behaviour.

The reasons set out above provide a rationale for the business schools in Thailand to be an appropriate research context in which to investigate the relationships between internal branding activities and brand support behaviour among academic staff, as well as their underlying mechanisms (i.e., the mediating effects of internal branding factors). This research is, thus, expected to yield theoretical, managerial and policy contributions. In the next section, the expected research contributions are reviewed.

1.6 Expected research contributions

The researcher expects this research to makes several theoretical, managerial and policy contributions. This section presents the expected research contributions in general. The full details of the contributions of this research can be found in Chapter 7, Section 7.2 (Research Contributions).

This study is first expected to make several theoretical contributions. For example, the research contributes to existing knowledge by extending the findings reported in past studies. Several researchers (Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005) suggest that transformational leadership characteristics (i.e. idealised influence or charisma; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; individual consideration) are positively related to brand support from employees, but they have rarely tested this relationship. Although during the course of the present thesis, a recent study by Morhart, Herzog & Tomczak (2009) was published which found that leaders with transformational leadership characteristics had a positive impact on increasing brand-building behaviours of employees, the study was not conducted in a higher education context. Moreover, it did not consider what impact the factor of internal branding activities had. The present thesis, therefore, extends past studies by investigating the relationship between these constructs in universities, as part of the internal brand building model. Furthermore, this research illustrates the relevant mechanisms underlying the relationships between university internal branding, employee brand support and transformational leadership characteristics in a non-Western context (to be precise, the mediating effects of brand-centred training and development activities on internal branding building process in university). In addition, the research provides further understanding about the dimensionality and operationalisation of the concepts under review (internal branding, employee brand support, transformational leadership characteristics) from the perspective of academic staff. Moreover, the findings of this study should be generalizable to other contexts which have some characteristics in common (e.g., organisational culture, management style and employees' behaviour).

This study is also expected to have several the managerial contributions to offer. For example, the main managerial contribution of this study is that internal branding activities (i.e., internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities) and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders can be managed in the interests of employee brand support, in particular, those of the academic staff in higher educational institutions. As discussed earlier, the internal branding in universities is based on knowledge imported from the other business sectors. Thus, it raises the question of the applicability of the internal branding concept in the context of universities. By recognising, from the academic staff's perspective, the effectiveness of internal branding in universities on employee brand support, the university management team can proceed with their branding and marketing plans more successfully. Hence, in order to create employee brand support, managers can concentrate on particular aspects of management, such as brand-centred training, internal brand communication, and the development of leadership characteristics, which are seen by academic staff as effective tools for creating employee brand support. Moreover, the findings can be used by managers as a guideline for allocating resources effectively. In addition, this research also examines the roles of leadership characteristics which encourage employees to act in support of brand values. Therefore, the findings are likely to be useful to institutional leaders who want to actively encourage their followers to act in a manner which supports the brand. In addition, the set of measurement scales developed in this study could benefit the management of the educational institutions and also that of other organisations, where employees often play a significant role in providing services which are in alignment with the brand. In order to ensure the effectiveness of the internal branding process in building employee brand support, the organisations may employ the measurement scales developed in this study for auditing and monitoring both the operations and consistency of internal branding activities and the transformational characteristics of leaders, together with the brand support behaviour of employees.

Finally, in terms of contributions to policy, the findings of this study are expected to be a guide for policy makers in enhancing the brand support behaviour of academic staff. For example, the information from this research could enable policy makers to make an informed decision about the process in which universities can actively manage their brand and gain support from employees. In essence, this will help policy makers to effectively develop or adopt appropriate policies to facilitate the internal brand building process, such as providing a guideline for universities in allocating their budgets, creating leadership training courses for leaders of universities and funding for internal branding activities.

1.7 Methodology

The research employs a mixed-methods approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003), with a dominant quantitative component involving a main survey as well as semi-structured interviews and a pilot study to collect data for the development of measurement scales (Churchill, 1979). In order to generate the measurement items, the research employed a combination of literature search and a qualitative study, i.e., semi-structured interviews with 19 academic staff in 8 Thai business schools. In addition, the semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to gain a deeper understanding of the topic and the relationship between the studied constructs and also to comprehend the constructs in the conceptual model. Next, a pilot study was conducted in order to gather data for refining the measurement scales. Questionnaires containing all the possible items were distributed to 120 Thai university academic staff members (in 8 Thai business schools). The respondents were asked to point out when they returned the completed pilot study to the researcher any items that they found to be either confusing or difficult to answer. Afterwards, 102[2] returned questionnaires were used for purifying the measurement items. This process enabled the questionnaires for the main survey to be subsequently developed. The questionnaires were given to 700 academic staff members of 20 Thai universities. 355[3] of these returned their questionnaires and their answers were used for testing the proposed conceptual model and the research hypothesises.

1.8.Limitations of the research

The limitations of this research should be noted. For example, this study is conducted in a single setting, to give it better control over market and environmental differences (Conant et al., 1990). However, conducting the research in Thai business schools, a single industry, may limit the generalizability of the findings. In addition, it should also be of concern that the causality of the relationships in this research cannot be proven. Therefore, the results were interpreted with caution in terms of the exact direction of the relationships between the constructs in this research, through the use of the available literature and interview data. Furthermore, given that this study comprehensively examines the relationships between internal branding in universities and employee brand support, it tends, according to several of the variables affecting employee brand support, to be difficult to investigate in detail all the elements affecting the studied phenomena. For this reason, other constructs might be used.

In Chapter 7, full details can be found of the limitations of this research, including some issues associated with the research design and measures, together with issues arising

[2] 95 Usable questionnaires
[3] 347 Usable questionnaires

from things that we do not know from the data and the limitations of using reported behaviour. Suggestions for future research can also be found in this chapter.

1.9 Summary

The researcher presents this thesis in seven chapters, as follows:

Chapter 1 Introduction

Chapter 2 Literature review: a review of the literature on internal branding and its effects is presented. It provides a background to the research by discussing the evolution and influence of marketing and brand management within universities. The concept of internal branding in the service sector in general, as well as in universities, is discussed. In addition, past studies on the effects of internal branding are reviewed. Then the concept of employee brand support is reviewed, before the chapter discusses the influence of the leadership characteristics of leaders on internal branding, and employee brand support in universities. Finally, potential research areas for internal branding studies are presented.

Chapter 3 Conceptual framework and hypotheses: the relationship between internal branding aspects and employee brand support of academic staff from a marketing and communications perspective is discussed first, followed by the effects on employee brand support of the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader. After this, the mediating roles of the internal brand communications factor and brand-centred training and development activities factor are discussed. In the chapter, the research hypotheses are provided, after a discussion of each component of the framework.

Chapter 4 Research methodology: the research philosophy is briefly reviewed. Then two general approaches in theory construction, qualitative and quantitative, are introduced. In addition, the research design, including the research setting and the development of the measurement scales is discussed. In the part on developing the measurement scales, the outcomes of a literature search, semi-structured interviews and a pilot survey (using exploratory factor analysis, EFA) are reviewed in detail. Next, the data collection process for the main survey is described. Finally, issues regarding data analysis are highlighted and explored.

Chapter 5 Research findings: the findings from the quantitative studies (the main survey) are presented in this chapter. This chapter illustrates the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) based on the data from the main survey, where the reliability and validity of the scale are also discussed. In addition, the findings, together with the results of the tests on the model and the hypotheses are presented, using structural equation modelling (SEM).

Chapter 6 Discussion: this chapter contains a discussion of the findings, with support from the literature and some examples acquired from the qualitative study (the semi-structured interviews) conducted at the exploratory stage. Moreover, the research instrument is revisited in order to consider the possible impact of the measures adopted on the revealed relationships. First, an overview of the study is presented. Next, the influence on employee brand support of brand-centred training and development activities is discussed. This is followed by an analysis of the influence of internal brand communications and transformational leadership characteristics on employee brand support. Finally, the mediating effects embedded in the relationship between employee brand support and the antecedent factors of interest (internal branding aspects and the immediate leader's leadership characteristics) are clarified.

Chapter 7 Conclusion: this chapter summarises the study results in which research implications (theoretical, managerial and policy making), research limitations and possible future research directions are discussed in turn.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Developing the organisation brand from inside has been acknowledged as an important area of research in the marketing literature (Judson et al*.,* 2006). From a resource-based perspective, it is suggested that "organisations can gain competitive advantage through their unique combination of resources, with people as the most important asset" (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978 cited in Leberecht, 2004, p.6). Aligning the behaviour of employees with brand values, so-called 'internal branding', has been recognised as a new phenomenon which has become important for universities in the present increasingly competitive markets (Judson et al*.,* 2006; Whisman, 2009). It seems that universities are increasingly employing some kind of marketing activity and branding programme (Ivy, 2001; Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2004; Bunzel, 2007), even though these tend to be unsystematic in nature (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2004; Maringe, 2010). Although corporate branding and the ways in which higher education institutions create their corporate identity have been studied (e.g., Melewar & Akel, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Atakan & Eker, 2007; Whisman, 2009; Celly & Knepper, 2010), studies are not closely related to the academic staff of universities.

The focus of this chapter is a review of the literature on the concepts of internal branding in universities, employee brand support and the characteristics of transformational leadership, as well as the theoretical relationship between the concepts in general. The researcher examines studies in disciplines such as the fields of internal branding, internal communication, higher education management, brand management, corporate identity, organisational identity, organisational culture and behaviour, corporate communication, human resource management, marketing management, leadership and government policy. The chapter first provides a background by discussing the influence of marketing and brand management within universities and then explains further the concept of internal branding. After this, past studies on the effect of internal branding in universities, i.e. employee brand support, are reviewed.

Next, transformational leadership characteristics and the influence of transformational leaders on internal branding and employee brand support are presented. Finally, gaps in the research are identified and discussed.

2.2 What is a university?

Before the concept of internal branding is presented, this section first provides some general information about universities by discussing the general meaning of a university and how it is viewed as an organisation. After this, the influence of marketing and brand management within universities is discussed in the next section.

2.2.1 The general meaning of university

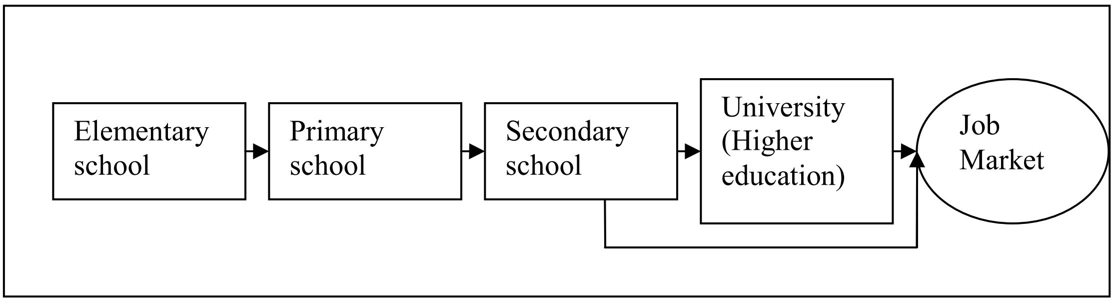
The debate over what constitutes a 'university' is a fairly longstanding and extensive one and it is still ongoing (Dopson & McNay, 1996). A university seems to be known as a place of higher learning where people continue their education after school (Gill & Lashine, 2003). In other words, a university is an institution of higher education, which grants academic degrees at all levels (bachelors' and masters' degrees and doctorates) in a variety of subjects. According to Pelikan (1992), much more discussion about the university has been elicited since 1852, when John Henry Cardinal Newman[4] delivered a series of lectures and essays seeking support from influential Catholics for the university, which were later published as 'The idea of a university'. Pelikan (1992) defines the "business of the university" as:

> "The advancement of knowledge through undergraduate and graduate teaching; training that involves both knowledge and professional skill in the professional programs or schools of the university; preservation of knowledge in libraries, galleries and museums; and diffusion of knowledge through scholarly publication" (Pelikan, 1992, p.76).

4 John Henry Cardinal Newman had major positions at Oxford University and in the Anglican Church; he was asked in 1851 to become rector of a proposed new Catholic University in Ireland.

As such, a university provides both tertiary and post-graduate education where the courses of study on offer help prepare people for professions and careers. Figure 2.1 represents the educational system as a multi-stage input-output system (Gill & Lashine, 2003). In this figure, universities are in the fourth stage of the educational system, where the input is from secondary schools while the output is to the job market. In order to prepare students sufficiently for the job market, universities are advised to arrange the capabilities of their educational system to meet the requirements of the job market (Gill & Lashine, 2003). Basic career skills are developed at the pre-university (secondary school) stage. However, those skills are later concentrated and improved at university level (Gill & Lashine, 2003).

Figure 2.1: A multiple-stage educational system



Source: Gill and Lashine (2003)

2.2.2 Universities as organisations

As said by Etzioni (1964, p.3), "Organisations are social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals". In other words, organisations are official groups of people who work together for the same purposes. Universities are similar to business organisations in having mission statements, employees and management systems (Karol & Ginsburg, 1980).

According to Morgan (2006), different metaphors can be used to describe the nature of organisations and they give rise to different theories of organisation and management. In line with de Boer et al. (2007), the characteristics of the university as an organisation are explained through many models, which can be divided into two groups: traditional and modern. de Boer et al. (2007) note that traditional models for universities which stress the peculiarities of universities as organisations are, for example, that of organised anarchy (Cohen, March & Olsen, 1972); the organisational saga (Clark, 1972) and the loosely coupled organisation (Weick, 1976). These models are seen as 'bottom-heavy' with a low potential for collective action (Clark, 1983). Since the 1980s, alternative models for universities as organisations, which contrast strongly with traditional models, appear in policy-making and in the study of higher education organisations (de Boer et al., 2007), for instance, the service model (Tjeldvoll, 1997; Tjeldvoll & Holtet, 1998; Cummings, 1998a, 1998b) and the entrepreneurial model (Clark, 1998).

Although it is agreed that state regulation has a strong influence on universities, universities have been forced in some ways to become more autonomous (Henkel, 1997). Modern models of universities suggest that academic work can be administered in the same way as any work in any service-providing company (de Boer et al., 2007). In addition, a study undertaken by Henkel (1997) shows that universities are steadily being transformed into corporate enterprises. This study finds that many institutions nowadays demonstrate a movement towards the university as a corporate enterprise (Henkel, 1997). Karol and Ginsburg (1980) also support the idea of entrepreneurship in universities. They note that competition among institutions, as well as an increasing concern about effective management in educational institutions, is part of the main drive to consider universities as enterprises (Karol & Ginsburg, 1980). Managing the university enterprise means managing universities in the same way as managing any other enterprise in the private sector, including both financial factors (income and expenses) and market factors (supply and demand) (Karol & Ginsburg, 1980). With regard to the discipline of the market when applied to the education market, it is said that only high quality institutions will survive in the market, thus increasing competition for universities, among other things (Walford, 1996).

The increased competition in the education market has been seen as one of the key drivers of higher education marketisation across the world (Maringe, 2010), including the USA (Kwong, 2000; Dill, 2003); Europe (Gibbs, 2001; Taylor, 2003; Binsardi & Ekwulugo, 2003; Jongbloed, 2003); Africa (Ivy, 2001; Maringe, 2005a, 2005b); Asia

(Mok, 1999, 2000; Oplatka, 2002; Gray, Fam & Llanes, 2003); Australia (Baldwin & James, 2000); New Zealand (Ford, Joseph & Joseph, 1999); and Russia (Hare & Lugachev, 1999). In this situation, new institutions and different academic programmes have been created in order to meet the growing demand, thus widening the choice for students (Maringe, 2005a). For this reason, it is becoming more challenging for higher education institutions to attract students when the environment is so competitive. Therefore, in order to be chosen by potential students, institutions make known their services through a range of promotional activities which in a business context are called 'Marketing' (Litten, 1980). In the next sections, the literature on marketing and brand management in universities is presented and discussed in more detail.

2.3 Marketing management in universities

During the last twenty years, governments throughout the world have built their strategies "around keywords such as transparency, comparability and consumerism" (Pollitt, 1993 cited in Stensaker, 2005, p.4). At present, state regulation is still the greatest influence on the higher education market (Henkel, 1997). The competition in the higher education market tends to be encouraged by government policies, for example, marketisation policies (Jongbloed, 2003; Tooley et al., 2003), new public management policies (Stensaker, 2005), reformation policies (Hare & Lugachev, 1999), the decline in government funding (Ivy, 2001; Brookes, 2003), the promotion of colleges to become a part of higher education institutions (Ivy, 2001; Oplatka, 2002) and the introduction of variable tuition fees (Adcroft et al., 2010). As a result of the high competition in the higher education market, marketing management is increasingly implemented in them (Kotler & Fox, 1985). The following sections discuss the development of marketing management in universities, which consequently leads to the interest among universities in internal branding.

2.3.1 Marketing in universities

Universities have been facing several changes, for example, the decrease in the number of students (Naude & Ivy, 1999), the intense increase of competition (Jongbloed, 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010), the greater choice of universities (Jongbloed, 2003), with an expansion and diversification of the degree courses offered by other competitors (Naude & Ivy, 1999). The highly competitive environment of higher education is likely to encourage universities to embrace the idea of marketing (Kotler & Fox, 1985; Smith, Scott & Lynch, 1995) in order to differentiate themselves from other competitors (Litten, 1980; Maringe, 2005a). In addition, Caruana, Ramaseshan and Ewing (1998) reveal that the implementation of the marketing concept has positive impacts on the overall performance of departments in universities and the ability of departments to obtain non-government funding.

According to Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka (2006), researchers pay increasing attention to the application and implementation of marketing principles and practices in universities. The applicability of marketing to higher education has been discussed and demonstrated in the higher education marketing literature (e.g., Kotler & Levy, 1969; Jongbloed, 2003; Maringe, 2010) and the non-profit marketing literature (e.g., Kotler & Andreasen, 1991; Lovelock & Weinberg, 1989; Hannagan, 1992). Several authors describe marketing ideas and evaluate their benefits for managing educational institutions. Kotler and Levy (1969), for example, stress that the concept of marketing can be applied to non-profit organisations, including universities. Kotler and Fox (1985) point further to the importance of strategic marketing in higher education institutions. They define marketing in educational institutions as follows:

> "Marketing is the analysis, planning, implementation and control of carefully formulated programs designed to bring about voluntary exchanges of values with target markets to achieve institutional objectives. Marketing involves designing the institution's offerings to meet the target markets' needs and desires and using effective pricing, communication and distribution to inform, motivate and service the markets" (Kotler & Fox, 1985, p.7).

As such, marketing is perceived by universities as a process of selling or informing the public about their services (Maringe, 2005b, 2010). Litten (1980) supports the applicability of marketing in a university. Litten (1980) notes that universities can promote their services and interest through the use of marketing activities, for example, public relations, student recruiting and fund-raising. In addition, a study of marketing in business schools conducted by Hammond et al.(2004) shows that marketing practices tend to be effective in increasing the performance of the school. Furthermore, due to the changes in government policies noted above, marketing can benefit universities in searching of alternative sources of funding (Brookes, 2003). Government persuades the university system to be more market oriented because this allows the quality of the services offered by the universities to be assessed by their customers, which consequently increases the efficiency and effectiveness of the service (Jongbloed, 2003). In addition, through the use of marketing research, universities gain a better understanding of the environment of the institution (Klayton, 1993), both internally and externally (Kotler & Fox, 1985), which therefore improves the institution's capacity to deliver quality educational service which meet customer expectations (Litten, 1980). The market-oriented institution, according to Caruana et al. (1998, p.57), is an institution which "successfully applies the marketing concept". To ensure the success of such applications, Maringe (2005a) suggests that universities should base their marketing on a model called the curriculum centred marketing model (CORD) which recommends universities to identify their core business and develop their curriculum on the basis of the core business itself.

Although it has been suggested that marketing frameworks and procedures should be implemented in educational institutions (e.g., Gray, 1991; Trim, 2003), marketing in educational institutions tends to be unsystematically implemented (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2004). A study conducted by Naude and Ivy (1999) has found that marketing strategies are indeed used in universities. However, the marketing strategies of old universities are not as aggressive as those of new universities (Naude & Ivy, 1999). This is because the old universities are able to rely on "their traditional strengths of faculty, teaching, and research standing" (Naude & Ivy, 1999, p.132), whereas the new universities attempt to reach out to prospective students earlier in their decision-making process through the use of marketing activities (Naude & Ivy, 1999). This, therefore, helps the new universities to provide tangible details about their institutions at an earlier point in the process and influencing prospective students by so doing.

The discussions above reveal to the universities the ideas and benefits of marketing in a highly competitive environment. This environment has led to an emerging interest in the self-profiling of higher education (Stensaker, 2005). Because achieving differentiation has become more and more difficult (Davis & Dunn, 2002), most people in marketing have agreed that success depends crucially on building the brand of an organisation (Davis & Dunn, 2002; King, 2005; Keller, 2007).

2.3.2 Branding in universities

As discussed in the previous section, most educational institutions do employ marketing of some kind, albeit unsystematically (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2004). In addition, it is likely that branding programmes are also increasingly implemented in the whole public sector (Tschirhart, 2008), which includes universities (Chapleo, 2010). The interest in image and branding issues in higher education institutions seems to be a sign that they are being transformed from social institutions into an industry (Gumport, 2000; Stensaker, 2005). The modern model of a university is seen as a new organisation ideal which stimulates the effort to brand (Stensaker, 2005). However, according to Bunzel (2007, p.152), the motivation for applying branding strategy in universities is "to enhance the university's reputation and to have a positive influence on university ranking". In addition, Belanger et al. (2002) note that universities are pushed into branding themselves by the decline in government funding and the increase of competition in the higher education market.

With a successful brand, customers and all stakeholders are likely to have a positive attitude towards the image of the organisation (Kay, 2006). According to Ind (1997), an organisation conveys its image by transmitting messages about itself to its customers, employees and all its internal and external audiences. Therefore, the image of an organisation is "the picture that an audience has of an organisation through the accumulation of all received messages" (Ind, 1997, p.48). Belanger et al. (2002) state that the brand and image of a university have great power to affect the number of students and promising staff, as well as to attract money from research clients and donors .

The benefits of a strong brand are extolled in the literature. In line with McClure, Laibson, Loewenstein and Cohen (2004), consumers' awareness of a brand has a substantial impact on their consumption experience. That is, when customers have a positive attitude towards a brand, their awareness of the brand tends to positively influence their consumption experience. In addition, Hoeffler and Keller (2003) argue that the advantages of a strong brand arise when consumers are purchasing a product/service for the first time. In this case, customers are uncertain of or unfamiliar with the choices of the product/service. Keller (2007) agrees, saying that the main roles of branding strategy are 1) to 'clarify brand-awareness' by improving consumer understanding and communicating similarities and differences between individual products and 2) to 'motivate brand-image' by providing general guidelines to management about which brand elements to apply across its product. Davis and Dunn (2002) note that brand can drive an organisation's success. They stress, however, that the most effective way to deliver brand to customers and stakeholders is to ensure that all employees should "work in a cohesive and consistent way to support the brand and its promise to guarantee that customers and other stakeholders are always satisfied and even delighted with their brand experience" (Davis & Dunn, 2002, p.4).

Several authors note that branding becomes a strategic managerial decision for higher education because it impacts upon the institution's capacity to recruit students (Stensaker, 2005) and staff (Ivy, 2001; Belanger et al., 2002). According to Mark (2006), strong brands can be created by connecting products/services to activities which create meaningful associations or representations of the brand. In order to attract students, staff and research clients, a study by Jevons (2006) suggests that universities should employ branding by creating and communicating their meaningful brand, one which differentiates their service from other universities. Kotler and Fox (1985) maintain that the products and services of educational institutions can be branded by a given name, term, sign, symbol, design, or some combination of these, which identifies them with the institution and differentiates them from competitors' offerings. According to a study by Gray et al. (2003), university publications and websites are effective media for a university to communicate brand messages to target students. Nevertheless, for successful branding, Chapleo (2010) suggests that universities should pay more attention to internal brand engagement.

It is likely that when consumers decide to purchase a product/service, the organisation's brand often influences their decision. According to Simoes and Dibb (2001, p.221), "brands allow the consumer to identify the product that best serves his/her physiological and physical needs". A case study conducted by Simoes and Dibb (2001) shows that an organisation (e.g., the LEGO brand) can gain customer loyalty by developing the organisation's brand through the use of communication activities in order to differentiate the organisation's brand from that of competitors and enhance the position of the brand in the market. Moreover, according to Morsing (2006), an organisation which enables employees to coherently deliver the organisation' brand tends to maintain customer satisfaction, in particular when the organisation introduces moral issues and ethics into the brand. Schultz and de Chernatony (2002) assert that if the brand of an organisation is developed on the basis of aligning organisational cultures across functional and geographic boundaries, the brand can benefit the organisation for global recognition. Moreover, the organisation's brand not only influences consumers in deciding to purchase a product/service, but also seems to have a positive impact when new products/services are introduced (Keller & Aaker, 1992). A university's brand is, therefore, very important to the university when new courses are introduced.

With regard to the benefits of an organisation's brand, Hatch and Schultz (2003) note that organisations tend to reprioritise their efforts from product/service brands to corporate branding. As in the private sector, studies on corporate branding have increasingly been conducted in universities (e.g., Balmer & Liao, 2007; Atakan & Eker, 2007; Celly & Knepper, 2010). This can be seen as a sign of the increasing interest in corporate branding from universities, which is further discussed in the next section.

2.3.3 Corporate branding in universities

In parallel with an increasing number of companies discussing corporate branding as an important management strategy, there is also a growing field of research on corporate branding (Morsing, 2006). Studies on corporate branding and the way in which higher education institutions create their corporate identity have recently been conducted (e.g., Melewar & Akel, 2005; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Celly & Knepper, 2010). Before the literature on corporate branding in higher education institutions is discussed, this section first discusses the concept of corporate branding in general

2.3.3.1 Corporate branding

Originally, corporate branding emerged from the notion of 'trademarks', which facilitate brand awareness and recognition, leading consumers to have particular expectations of a brand, such as a special quality, unique experience, or personal identity (Schultz, Antorini & Csaba, 2005). Morsing (2006, p.99) notes that the idea of corporate branding is "to make the entire corporation the subject of the branding effort rather than the individual product". van Riel (2001 cited in Einwiller & Will, 2002, p.101) defines corporate branding as:

> "a systematically planned and implemented process of creating and maintaining a favourable reputation of a company with its constituent elements, by sending signals to stakeholders using the corporate brand".

According to de Chernatony (2002), corporate branding seeks to incorporate an organisation's activities into a consistent strategic framework, which presents the company's values, both emotional and functional. The movement towards corporate branding can be described as a shift from classic branding. There is a number of stages in the continuum between classic branding (product/service branding) and corporate branding (Schultz et al., 2005) which are summarised in Table 2.1(overleaf). One of the key issues when moving towards corporate branding is to build the relationship between strategic vision, organisation culture and stakeholder image. However, the difficulty is to align the internal and external stakeholders and to involve different subcultures (Schultz et al., 2005).

Table 2.1: Differences between classic branding and corporate branding

	Classic branding	Corporate branding
Foundation	• Individual products are the foundation for most brands	• Company or organisation is the foundation for the brand
Conceptualisation	• Marketing • Outside-in thinking	• Cross-disciplinary • Combines inside-out with outside-in thinking
Stakeholders	• Consumers and customers	• All stakeholders
Responsible for branding	• Marketing and communication functions	• All functions driven by top management
Time perspective	• Short; product lifecycle	• Long; organisation lifecycle
Core process	• Marketing and communication decide brand promises and marketing/communication mix	• Managerial and organisational processes align the company behind brand identity
Key issues	• Brand architecture • Brand positioning • Brand identity	• Brand as a strategic force • Relationship between strategic vision, organisation culture and stakeholder image • Brand alignment
Difficulties	• Difficult to build and sustain product differentiation • Restricted involvement of employees and use of cultural heritage • Limited involvement of stakeholders in communication efforts	• Difficult to align internal and external stakeholders • Difficult to create credible and authentic identity • Difficult to involve different subcultures and shifting stakeholders

Source: Schultz et al. (2005)

The current models of corporate branding have been identified by Balmer (2001). He divides them into two distinct types – macro and micro. The macro models of the 1980s and early 1990s noted by Abratt (1989) and Dowling (1993) incorporate into their models various constructs, such as corporate personality, identity and image, while the more recent micro models (from the organisation and marketing fields) are likely to capture more readily the challenges faced by organisations in managing and aligning multiple identities across different stakeholder groups (Knox & Bickerton, 2003). For instance, Hatch and Schultz (1997, 2001) point to the need for managers to build the relationship between strategic vision, organisation culture and stakeholder image, and to check on the alignment of these three key aspects of corporate branding.

The increasing number of writers on corporate branding reflects the growing interest in elements of the corporate marketing mix. Corporate brand management, according to Balmer (2008), is part of the corporate marketing mix which consists of: corporate identity (character); corporate communications (communications); marketing and stakeholder management (constituencies); corporate reputation (conceptualisation); organisational identity (culture) and corporate brand management (covenant). Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) also register the importance of corporate brand management, where the activities take into account the other elements in the corporate marketing mix, internal stakeholders in particular.

Corporate branding may be perceived as the means by which a company communicates its identity (Kay, 2006). A strong identity is crucial for conveying a consistent image to stakeholders (Simoes & Dibb, 2001). Although the terms 'corporate brand' and 'corporate identity' are used interchangeably in the literature, Balmer (2008, p.44) argue that corporate identity tends to provide "the platform upon which the corporate brand emerges". In other words, corporate brand is characterised by corporate identity, which is generally shaped by, for example, organisation structure and business activities as well as the range and quality of produces/services offered (Balmer & Greyser, 2002).

In a university context, studies on corporate branding and the way in which universities create their corporate identity have also been conducted. The studies on corporate branding in the university context are discussed in the next section.

2.3.3.2 University corporate branding

As stated earlier, studies on corporate branding and the way in which universities create their corporate identity have already been conducted (e.g., Melewar & Akel, 2005; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Celly & Knepper, 2010). An empirical study by Atakan and Eker (2007) indicates that one of the motives which have led universities to manage their corporate identities is the intention to differentiate themselves from other universities. Melewar and Akel (2005) suggest that the management of corporate identity in universities should be designed to take hold of the multidisciplinary character of corporate identity in order to control the institution's identity. Furthermore, Kay

(2006) suggests that a corporate brand should be directly related to a common corporate identity. However, Celly and Knepper (2010) note from their study that the challenge faced by a multi-campus university to build its brand is the lack of common identity between the university's main campus and the other campuses. As a result, when students from the small campus go to study in the larger campus (or a main campus), they do not feel that they are really part of the university's larger system (Celly & Knepper, 2010).

In order to encourage students to feel that they are a part of the institution's prestige, reputation and history, effective corporate brand management is needed (Balmer & Liao, 2007). A study on student brand identification conducted by Balmer and Liao (2007) suggests that a communications management approach and a brand values/promise management approach tend to produce high brand identification. According to Lawlor (1998 cited in Judson et al., 2006, p.57), brand identity for universities is "the essence of how you would like alumni, prospective students, legislators and the public to perceive your institution". Therefore, corporate brand identification can be seen as a process which generates distinctiveness and represents what a university stands for.

Studies (e.g., Baker & Balmer, 1997; Celly & Knepper, 2010) support the view that a university can build its brand through the use of corporate visual identities, for example, logos, symbols and websites. Baker and Balmer (1997) also value the consistent use and design of the institution's visual identities. However, for a multi-campus university, as stated earlier, it can be a challenge to avoid the inconsistency of the institution's visual identity (Celly & Knepper, 2010). According to Celly and Knepper (2010, p.53), a university should therefore be concerned about "negotiating, persuading, and informing groups of how much better it is for them to participate in the larger branding effort, so they [the campuses]can take advantage of the equity we have built in the brand and become a part of the larger system".

As stated earlier, the move towards corporate branding is driven by various factors. Kay (2006), for example, notes that strong corporate brands attract more loyal and less price-sensitive customers. In addition, Keller and Aaker (1992) also highlight the positive impact of the corporate brand on new product introductions and product brand extensions. Therefore, if a university has a strong corporate brand, it has more advantage when it introduces new faculties and academic programmes. However, in order to build a strong corporate brand, an organisation should connect stakeholders to the representation of the organisation in its actions, concerns and symbols, showing what the organisation stands for (Mark, 2006) and the organisation's central idea (Schultz et al*.,* 2005).

Moreover, when corporate brands are successful, their customers and stakeholders usually tend to have a positive attitude towards the image of the company (Kay, 2006). An issue of corporate branding which should be considered is whether representations of the organisation are connected to the people in the organisation (Kay, 2006; Cornelissen, 2007). Moving from branding towards corporate branding requires the behaviour of corporate members to be aligned to the brand values (Schultz et al., 2005), regarding which van Rekom (1997) notes that employees may oppose or dissociate themselves from corporate branding activities, for example, advertising campaigns. In addition, corporate branding may operate in opposition to employee values, but this eventually causes conflict (Kay, 2006). To defuse such conflict, the entire organisation should perform in harmony with the desired brand identity (Harris & de Chernatony, 2001). Furthermore, employees and other stakeholders should be seen as the first audience of corporate branding activities, in order to represent what the brand has promised to give its customers (Kay, 2006). In organisations which have highly explicit codes of behaviour, such as educational institutions, it may be risky for employees to try to adapt their idea of self to their day-to-day operations (Ind 2007). Stensaker (2005) notes that the university brand will not be trustworthy if the employees do not display brand characteristics. This can be seen as a sign of the increasing interest in internal branding from universities, which is further discussed in the next section.

2.3.4 Internal branding in universities

Internal branding is still a young research field in its literature (Burmann & König, 2011). Thus, the concept of internal branding in higher education institutions is recognised in the literature as a new phenomenon (Whisman, 2009). Before going further to the literature on internal branding in higher education institutions, internal branding in service sector in general should first be discussed.

2.3.4.1 Internal branding in service sector in general

In a service organisation where there is interaction between contact employees and customers (the service encounter), aligning the behaviour of employees with the organisation's brand values, the so-called activities of internal branding, is as important as the activities of external branding (Punjaisri & Willson, 2011). According to Keller (2007), a brand is used by a company to identify and differentiate its products and services from those of competitors. However, Schultz and de Chernatony (2002) stress that the success of branding largely relies on employees' behaviours in delivering the brand to external stakeholders. de Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) also suggest that a service brand is more likely to succeed when its own employees believe in organisation brand values and act accordingly.

Internal branding is generally implemented in service sectors, e.g., charity organisations (Hankinson, 2004), financial service organisations (de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006), hospitals (Gapp & Merrilees, 2006), airlines (Chong, 2007), hotels (Punjaisri & Willson, 2009, 2011) and shared-service call centres (Burmann & König, 2011). Internal branding is about aligning employees' behaviour with brand values by promoting and educating them about the brand values (Aurand et al., 2005). Burmann and König (2011, p.376) note that what is perceived behind internal branding is the significant role of employees in building the brand. A study on internal brand management in shared-service call centres conducted by Burmann and König (2011) suggests that communicating brand messages via the communication media, training activities and leaders can encourage employees to feel that they are part of the brand. Moreover, these brand-oriented communication activities were found to be "more important than empowerment and promotional prospects" (Burmann & König, 2011, 374). Morhart et al. (2009) conducted a study with 269 customer-contact employees. Leaders may influence internal branding by, for example, persuading employees to support the brand (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005); facilitating behavioural changes consistent with the desired brand (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006) and being responsible for defining and driving a corporate brand's identity (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2009). The study shows that communicating brand value through leaders' characteristics can build employee actions to even go beyond the brand representative roles assigned by their organisation.

Internal branding in a service sector pays particular consideration to the role of customer-contact employees (e.g., Gapp & Merrilees, 2006; Punjaisri & Willson, 2011). A study on internal branding in the hotel industry by Punjaisri and Willson (2011) found that communicating the brand through training and communication activities has a positive impact on the attitude and behaviour of customer-contact employees in their delivery of the brand promise. The study shows that internal branding activities (e.g., training programmes, daily briefings, group meetings and notice boards) encourage employees' sense of belonging to the brand and the alignment between employees' delivery of the brand and the brand promise (Punjaisri & Willson, 2011). Furthermore, in the healthcare case study of Gapp and Merrilees (2006), positive impacts of internal branding activities on employees' behaviour were found. The study shows that employees view the organisation as a quality or healthy environment and delivery these values to patients as the result of internal branding activities. However, the study suggests that an organisation's brand must be specifically communicated to each group of employees in a simple and convincing way, which is easy for the employees to understand and believe in (Gapp & Merrilees, 2006). Moreover, Gapp and Merrilees (2006) stress that an organisation must not over-promise the brand in order to ensure that its employees are capable of fulfilling the promise.

Overall, the discussion above suggests that internal branding is generally implemented in service industries in order to communicate, express and embed brand values among employees. The existing studies have found that internal branding activities have positive impacts on employees' behaviour. That is, when internal branding activities are implemented in service organisations, employees are likely to behave in alignment with the brand of their organisation.

2.3.4.2 Internal branding in universities

Although the concept of internal branding in higher education institutions is recognised in the literature as a new phenomenon (Whisman, 2009), Judson et al. (2006, 2009) found that when internal branding activities are implemented, employees are better able to reflect the brand values in their day-to-day operations.

The delivery of the brand promise to the employees of an institution has been recognised as having the same importance as delivering it to people outside the institution (Whisman, 2009). As introduced in Chapter 1, university employees are heavily influential in representing higher education institutions to the public (for example, in terms of staff reputation, research output and top quality teaching) (Naude & Ivy, 1999; Ivy, 2001). Baker and Balmer (1997, p.367) also concern the fact that "individual members of a university are, by definition, experts in their own right and so consider that they are the best judge of how to fulfil this role". Thus, if staff members do not clearly understand the institution's brand values, their acts may reflect their own values more than the university's brand values (Jevons, 2006). Besides, if they do not present an institution's brand characteristics, the brand of the institution becomes unreliable (Stensaker, 2005). This is also emphasised by Schiffenbauer (2001 cited in Judson et al., 2006, p.99): that the brand message will lose its credibility if it is not supported by aligned employee behaviour. Boone (2000) also notes:

> "Many companies do a brilliant job of advertising and marketing to customers. Then comes the part: delivering. While they put millions of dollars into marketing, most companies invest little to ensure that employees transform brand messages into reality in terms of the customer's experience. It's one thing to tell customers who you are and quite another to show them who you are. Employees have to be engaged to make the brand come alive. Therefore, the messages sent to employees about the brand are just as important as the one sent to customers" (Boone, 2000, p.36).

Hence, there is a need for universities to align employee behaviour with brand values. Stensaker (2005) supports the view that universities need to align employee behaviour with brand values. He states:

> "Branding should rather be viewed as a process of mobilising the best marketers there are – the staff and students of the institution. For these to buy into the branding process, the image sought to be created must be rooted in the distinctive institutional characteristics staff and students think are important. If they don't feel part of this process, even the most creative branding will not be trustworthy" (Stensaker, 2005, p.16).

It is noted that employees' beliefs and actions may not match the externally generated brand image (Mitchell, 2004; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Ind, 2007); hence, universities need to ensure the alignment of employees' attitudes and behaviour with the corporate brand values. The alignment of employees' attitudes and behaviour with the values of the corporate brand is viewed by Judson et al. (2006) as the main task of internal branding in universities. The concept of internal branding is recognised as a new phenomenon which has become important for universities in the increasingly competitive markets (Judson et al*.,* 2006). Although very few studies have been undertaken on internal branding in universities, according to Judson et al. (2006, 2009) and Whisman (2009), internal branding is applied in the business environment as well as in the university environment. In the empirical research of Judson et al. (2006) on 'building university brands from within', the internal branding concept is applied to the university environment. As noted above, the study finds that "when internal branding efforts are implemented in universities, staff have a clearer understanding of their respective universities' brand values and are subsequently better able to use these brand values in their everyday work" (Judson et al., 2006, p.105). In addition, from the administrators' perspective, these activities positively affect: their behaviour in performing their job; how they manage their staff and how their staff uses the brand in everyday work (Judson et al., 2009). Therefore, the internal brand building process is likely to be very important for universities.

In the following section, the overview and focus of the study are discussed in order to clarify the scope of the present research.

2.3.5 Overview and focus of the study

The studies on marketing and branding in universities discussed above have shown that marketing activities in higher education have increasingly recognised the value of a strong corporate brand and the importance of stakeholder and employee (corporate) brand identification; see also Table 2.2 (Characteristics of 4 perspectives in university marketing studies, page.39-41) at the end of this section. Although state regulation is a strong influence on universities, universities are also encouraged to become more autonomous (Henkel, 1997). Moreover, from the modern models of a university (e.g., Tjeldvoll, 1997; Clark, 1998), it seems that academic work can be administered in the same way as any work in any service-providing company (de Boer et al., 2007). In addition, significant moves have been made towards conceiving the university as a corporate enterprise (Henkel, 1997).

Drawing on a similar review of the previous studies, researchers have been paying attention to the application and implementation of market-oriented principles and practices. As discussed in the previous section, branding has become a strategic managerial decision for higher education, because it impacts upon the institution's capacity to recruit university staff and students and to introduce new facilities and programmes. Stensaker (2005) views branding as an activity which is increasingly undertaken by institutions of higher education. However, Stensaker (2005, p.9) further notes that "when entering the branding game, there should be a good match between the image exposed and the organisational identity of a given institution". Therefore, a question which has been raised is how this can be done in practice (Stensaker, 2005).

As stated in Section 2.3.1, in order to build and deliver a strong corporate brand, internal stakeholders must play an important role (Hatch & Schultz, 2003). Within the branding field, the delivery of the brand promise to the employees of an organisation is, as noted above, as important as the brand promise delivered to customers (Judson et al., 2006; Boone, 2000). The connection between employees' commitment and performance and the customers' perceptions of the service brand is also related to service marketing and branding (Karmark, 2005). Schultz (2006) notes that the employees become key actors in delivering the brand promise in corporate branding.

In a university context, the internal stakeholders are: (1) students, (2) academics and (3) non-academics (Melewar & Akel, 2005). This study focuses mainly on academic staff, hereafter called 'employees'. According to the Jarrett Report (1985 cited in Barry et al., 2001, p.89), "academic staff should be seen as the primary resource of a university, [needing] to be managed and accounted for with appropriate care and skill". Therefore, academic staff are also considered to be an important key to building an institution brand. Melewar and Akel (2005, p.50) note that "academic staff have different motives for working in a university from administrative staff, who use a different value system from their own".

Employees may not support or represent their company's branding effectively (Mitchell, 2004; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Ind, 2007). For this reason, employees need to understand the brand values, in order to align their attitudes and behaviour in support of the corporate brand (Karmark, 2005). This is noted by Judson et al. (2006) as the task of internal branding in universities. Hence, the internal branding concept seems to be important in this situation; Collins and Porras (1995 cited in Mosley, 2007) also claim that:

> "The companies with consistent, distinctive and deeply held values tended to outperform those companies with a less clear and articulated ethos" (p.128).

Although internal branding has become important for universities in increasingly competitive markets, it is still recognised as a new phenomenon (Judson et al., 2006; Whisman, 2009), see Table 2.2 (overleaf). Therefore, for the sake of clarity, the concept of internal branding will be outlined in the next section.

Table 2.2: Characteristics of 4 perspectives on university marketing studies

Main characteristic	Author(s)	Author's comments
Marketing in universities This approach generally highlights the fact that marketing can improve the institution's capacity to develop and deliver educational services which meet customer expectations. Studies give consideration to the understanding, application and implementation of marketing principles and practices in order to meet customer expectations. The studies mainly aim to examine marketing ideas in universities; marketing activities in universities; and the advantages and disadvantages of marketing and international marketing in universities.	Kotler and Levy (1969) expand the concept of marketing to non-profit organisations.	Marketing can and should be implemented in non-profit organisations, including higher education institutions (HEIs).
	Litten (1980) comments on the benefits and risks of implementing marketing in higher educational intuitions in the USA, and offers ideas for maximising the benefits and minimising the risks of implementing marketing in educational institutions.	In order to maximise the benefits and minimise the risks of implementing marketing in educational institutions, coordination between the marketing profession, the market research industry and higher education is required for creating appropriate marketing techniques.
	Kotler and Fox (1985) provide an implementation guideline for employing marketing in educational institutions	Strategic marketing is important for education institutions to develop and deliver educational services which meet customers' expectations.
	Klayton (1993) examines the application of marketing research in a HEI.	HEIs can improve their programmes by using marketing research in order to target potential students; to create data bases on current, former, and potential students and to design new programmes.
	Naude and Ivy (1999) examine the implementation of marketing strategies in old and new UK HEIs.	Although marketing activities were found to be implemented in HEIs, the marketing strategies of old HEIs are not as aggressive as new HEIs.
	Ford et al. (1999) examine the use of performance analysis as a marketing strategic tool, using a sample of business students in New Zealand and USA.	Performance analysis can be used as a marketing strategic tool to assess customer-perceived service quality in order for an HEI to differentiate its services from the services of competitors.
	Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003) examine the applicability of international marketing in UK HEIs.	Pricing, product and promotion play central roles in the international marketing strategy for HEIs.
	Trim (2003) reviews the literature on the partnership arrangements in HEIs and proposes a marketing framework for managing the partnership arrangements.	A marketing framework for HEIs is proposed for the HEIs to audit, evaluate and manage partnership arrangements. An institution should establish a centre of entrepreneurship which makes it easier to link academia and industry in order to gain additional revenue from marketable ideas.
	Brookes, (2003) examines the need for marketing approach in US and UK HEIs in order to satisfy the changes in government policies	Marketing management in HEIs helps the institutions to comply with the changes in government policies by, for example, increasing the opportunities to attract alternative sources of funding and to provide a better quality of services to meet students' expectations.

	Hammond et al. (2004) examine the relationship between business school performance and marketing planning activities in US HEIs. Then, Hammond et al. (2007) extend the previous study of Hammond et al. (2004) in order to further investigate the applicability of marketing planning activities in these HEIs, and to cross-index the results to the organisational characteristics of the responding institutions.	There is a positive impact of marketing planning activities on university business school performance (Hammond et al., 2004, 2007). However, the study of Hammond et al. (2007) shows that too many business schools assume that the initiation of marketing in the institutions would not significantly improve their performance.
	Maringe (2005a) explores the problems of marketing implementation using evidence from HEIs in Zimbabwe and propose a marketing framework for interrogating the problem in higher education marketing.	To avoid the problems of marketing implementation, HEIs should identify their core business, develop their curriculum based on the core business and base their marketing on a curriculum centred marketing (CORD) model because it is a tool for interrogating the problem in higher education marketing.
	Maringe (2005b) examines marketing perceptions and practices of marketing in HEIs in developing world, from the perspectives of students, institutions' marketers and vice chancellors in Zimbabwe HEIs.	From the internal people's point of view, marketing activities are implemented in HEIs. However, from the customers' (students)' point of view, HEIs still communicate inadequate information about product, price, place, promotion, physical evidence and people. In addition, the elements of product, price and people are seen by the students as the most important elements to influence their decision where to study.
	Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka (2006) review the literature on marketing in HEIs in an international context in order to establish the scope of higher education marketing, to identify gaps in the research literature and to make recommendations for further research in this field.	The literature on marketing in HEIs ought to be more coherent. In addition, the theoretical models should reflect the nature of the education services.
<u>Brand and image building in university</u> This approach highlights the view that branding can help institutions to differentiate themselves from competitors' offerings. In addition, branding becomes a strategic managerial decision for universities because it impacts upon the institution's capacity to recruit university staff and students. The interest in image and branding issues in higher education seems to be a sign that universities are being transformed from social	Ivy (2001) investigates how marketing is used by HEIs in UK and South Africa to create and differentiate their image in higher education market	Old HEIs, new HEIs and polytechnic colleges convey their image through the use of marketing tools in different ways in order to create their unique position in the market.
	Belanger et al. (2002) examines the relationships among the image of a HEI (in Canada), students' expectations and students' actual experience after spending one year on campus	Students' expectations depend on the institution's image as absorbed by students. Moreover, the students' experience which is congruent with that image can increase the likelihood of student retention. Thus, institutions should ensure congruence between the institutional image and the actual experience of students.
	Gray et al. (2003) investigates the media used by students in Malaysia, Singapore and	University publications and websites are effective media for a HEI to communicate brand messages to their target students.

institutions into an industry. Studies aim to examine how higher education institutions profile themselves with a view to differentiation; the advantages and disadvantages of branding in universities and the importance of aligning university identity and the university's desired image	Hong Kong to acquire information of overseas HEIs.	
	Jevons (2006) discusses the HE's situation and stresses on the need for HEIs to develop and communicate their brand.	HEIs should employ branding by creating and communicating a meaningful brand which differentiates their service from other HEIs in order to attract not only potential students, but also potential staff, together with research clients.
	Stensaker (2007) addresses the benefits and dangers of using branding as a strategy for managing HEI and comments on the potential relationship between branding and organisational change.	Institutions should view their staff and the students of the institution as the best marketers. In order for them to buy into the branding process, the brand should be rooted in the distinctive institutional characteristics. Branding can enhance institutional development and stimulate organisational change by linking organisational identity and the external image of the organisation. However, through the institution's development and organisational change, the institution should maintain the social responsibility of HEI.
	Bunzel (2007) discusses the trend of HEIs to engage in marketing and branding programmes, as the activities are expected to enhance the university's reputation and to have a positive influence on university ranking.	Although it is unclear that marketing and branding activities cause significant changes in a university's ranking, rankings still rely on reputation assessment which can be enhanced by marketing and branding activities.
	Chapleo (2010) investigates the factors which define successful university brands in UK	For the success of branding, university should pay more attention to internal brand engagement.
<u>Corporate branding in university</u> This approach concentrates on the way that institutions would like alumni, prospective students, legislators and the public to perceive them through corporate brand and identity. Studies concentrate on the way in which universities create their strong corporate identity, for instance, by corporate visual identification, student identification and socially responsible identification. * Corporate brand identification is seen as a process which generates distinctiveness and represents what a university stands for. The corporate brand should	Baker and Balmer (1997) describe the development of a corporate identity/visual identity programme, using a major UK university as a case study.	A strong visual identity has a positive impact on leading the university's internal stakeholders to be loyal to the institution. A weak visual identity may occur due to weaknesses in corporate strategy, corporate culture and/or formal corporate communications policies.
	Melewar and Akel (2005) analyse the strategic intent behind a UK university's corporate identity programme based on the four components of the corporate identity model developed by Melewar and Jenkins.	The university's new corporate identity management strategy moves from a decentralised towards a more centralised management style. The management of corporate identity in universities should take hold of the multidisciplinary character of corporate identity in order to control the institution's identity.
	Balmer and Liao (2007) investigate student corporate brand identification towards the brand in a UK HEI, the business school of the institution and the overseas collaborative partner institute of the institution in Asia.	In order to produce high brand identification, senior managers should seek to employ the management of brand values and brand promise by ensuring alignment between brand promise and corporate identity and employing all the elements of the corporate marketing mix.
	Atakan and Eker (2007) analyse a Turkish	'Philanthropy' is one of the main elements of the institution's corporate

be directly related to a common corporate identity.	HEI's corporate social responsibility management using concepts from the Corporate Identity and Corporate Social Responsibility literature.	identity programme. The university should be seen to have altruistic motives for its social responsibility initiatives.
	Celly and Knepper (2010) describe the process of developing a corporate visual identity system in a US multi-campus university and analyse the key issues in developing this system in order to build the university brand.	A challenge for a large multi-campus university in building the brand is the lack of common identity between the university's main campus and its small campuses. As a result, when students from the small campus go to study in the larger campus (or a main campus), they do not feel that they are really a part of the larger university's system.
<u>Internal branding in universities</u> This approach emphasises the use of internal brand communications management and brand values management with the purpose of aligning employees' attitudes and behaviour with the university's brand values. Research focuses on the ways in which universities build their brand from their employees and methods for turning employees' attitudes and behaviour into brand supporters. The use of internal communication activities is also investigated.	Judson et al. (2006) investigate the impact of brand communication activities of US HEIs on internal recipients' behaviours from the sport coaches' perspectives.	Internal brand communication activities have a positive impact on employees' understanding and incorporating the brand into their work activities.
	Whisman (2009) examines case studies from businesses and HEIs, as well as reviews of the literature and research, in order to inspect the essential role which internal branding plays in successful university settings.	Internal branding helps an institution overcome internal resistance to branding efforts. It helps the institution take an identity-development strategy beyond traditional approaches (e.g., new logos and advertising campaigns) in order to take an embedded cultural approach which guides the ways in which the institution should run its activities (e.g., communications, fund-raising, marketing, enrolment management and programme development).
	Judson et al. (2009) investigate the internal promotion of the brand within a US higher education industry from the administrators' perspectives.	A university's brand image has a strong impact on leading university administrators to do their job, but less of an impact upon how they manage their staff and how their staff reflect the brand in their everyday work. Moreover, private university administrators are likely to have a greater brand clarity than public university administrators.

Source: developed by the researcher

2.4 What is internal branding?

According to Churchill (1979), a theoretically meaningful definition must precede construct development and theory testing. This section first describes the concept of internal branding in general. According to Hatch and Schultz (2001), a branding programme which aligns with corporate vision, corporate culture and corporate image could build a strong corporate brand. In addition, several authors (e.g., Ind, 1997, 2007; Tosti & Stotz, 2001; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2004) mention the importance of coordinating internal and external branding programmes. Ind (2007, p.123) advises organisations to use the "internal marketing of external campaigns" in order to ensure that branding campaigns can be supported easily by their employees. In addition, the idea of 'inclusive branding' (Schmidt & Ludlow, 2002, p.204) suggests that the management of branding activities which pays attention to both internal and external stakeholders can reduce the risk of treating any group of stakeholders in "an unacceptable, unproductive or neglectful way". Moreover, in accordance with LePla and Parker (1999), if all the actions and messages of a company which are based on their brand values are consistently conveyed to both customers and people inside the company, the company will be able to produce products and services which match its strengths more precisely. Consequently, the company will be able to establish greater levels of trust and build stronger customer loyalty (LePla & Parker, 1999). Tosti and Stotz (2001, p.30) support the view that "external marketing and advertising efforts can attract customers, but it takes an entire company working together to keep those customers". They therefore advise that 'internal branding' should also be applied (Tosti & Stotz, 2001). According to Vallaster and de Chernatony (2004), internal branding programmes can facilitate brand-supportive behaviour by aligning employees' behaviour with the brand messages (brand promise) communicated to customers.

Although, as discussed previously in section 2.3.4, internal branding activities are found to be increasingly operated in the service industries, Burmann and König (2011) claim from the internal branding literature in this particular area that it is still a young research field. Terms such as 'internal branding', 'employee branding', 'internal marketing' and 'relationship marketing' are often used in marketing literature and these terms pay attention to the engagement of internal stakeholders in organisation missions and planning. These concepts view employees as one of the important target groups in the audience for marketing communication activities. However, relationship marketing, according to Gronroos (1994), is a process of establishing, maintaining, and enhancing long term relationships with customers and other stakeholders. Therefore, relationship marketing is likely to pay attention to a variety of audience groups (both internal and external stakeholders), i.e., “influencers (such as the EU, Government or financial bodies), those referring customers (such as brokers and advisers), employment agencies, suppliers and internal workforce” (Dibb & Simkin, 2000, p.492). Internal branding, in contrast, focuses on communicating the main corporate brand value to the employees (Tosti & Stotz, 2001). Punjaisri and Wilson (2007, pp.58-59) agree that “internal branding has emerged as a key process to align the behaviours of employees with the brand values”.

From the relationship marketing point of view, Miles and Mangold (2004) use the term “internal relationship management” in order to connect the concepts of employee branding, internal marketing, and relationship marketing. Miles and Mangold (2004, p.68) define the term ‘employee branding’ as “the process by which employees internalise the desired brand image and are motivated to project the image to customers and other organisational constituents”. Therefore, the similarity between the concepts of internal branding and employee branding is that employees are expected to behave in alignment with the brand. Employee branding uses the organisation’s system and internal marketing activities in order to motivate employees to support the brand (Miles & Mangold, 2004). Rafiq and Ahmed (1993, p.221) also stress that “the best way to get motivated employees is to use marketing techniques in the internal marketplace”.

Papasolomou and Vrontis (2006) insist that internal marketing activities can be used to build the corporate brand. According to Ahmed and Rafiq (2002), the term ‘internal marketing’ appeared to have been first used by Berry, Hensel and Burke (1976). Rafiq and Ahmed (1993, p.221) highlight that “the concept of internal marketing is based on the idea of employee as a customer”. Moreover, internal marketing focuses staff attention on changing internal activities in order to improve an organisation’s performance (e.g., Ahmed & Rafiq, 2002; Mosley, 2007). Employees must be effectively trained and motivated in customer contact in order to provide customer satisfaction (Mosley, 2007).

Internal branding is seen by Hankinson (2004) as a consequence of the increasing interest in internal marketing. However, Mosley (2007) writes on what makes internal marketing different from internal branding (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Differences between internal marketing and internal branding

Internal branding	Internal marketing
Resource-based management	Customer-based management
Communicates brand values to employees, in order for them to understand those values which lead to appropriate actions and behaviour.	Communicates the customer brand promise and the attitudes and behaviour expected from employees to deliver on this promise by ensuring that they understand their role in delivering a customer experience.
Reinforces a common value-based culture, typically attached to some form of corporate mission and vision.	Trains and effectively motivates customer-contact employees in order to provide customer satisfaction
"The companies with consistent, distinctive and deeply held values tended to outperform those companies with a less clear and articulated ethos" (Collins & Porras, 1995 cited in Mosley, 2007, p.128).	Focuses staff attention on the internal activities which need to be changed in order to enhance marketplace performance
Inside-out approach	Outside-in approach
Note Internal branding is seen as a consequence of increasing interest in internal marketing (Hankinson, 2004)	

Source: based on the literature review and categorisations by Mosley (2007)

As stated in Table 2.3, Mosley (2007) notes that internal branding tends to adopt an inside-out (resource based) approach, while internal marketing tends to be absorbed with an outside-in approach. Mosley (2007) argues that internal marketing is a kind of customer-based management. The management of internal marketing focuses on communicating the customer brand promise, as well as the attitudes and behaviour expected from employees to deliver on this promise by ensuring that the employees understand their part in delivering an on-brand customer experience (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2002; Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006; Mosley, 2007). Davis and Dunn (2002) describe the brand promise as foreseeing how the customer will expect the company to act, with regard to what organisations have widely communicated through, for example, advertising and the use of mass media. Therefore, internal marketing activities may make employees feel that they are only 'a channel to market' resulting in inconsistent behaviour in delivering on its promise (Mosley, 2007). In contrast, internal branding is seen as a value-based approach and more 'inside-out' (e.g., Mosley, 2007; Whisman, 2009). In order to ensure that employees can deliver brand promise, internal branding activities convey and communicate to employees the brand values which, according to Urde (2003), consist of: 1) the values inherent in the brand mission (of commitment to the overarching task) and vision (as an inspiration and challenge for organisation members). These direct the ways in which organisation members should act in order to support the organisation's brand; 2) organisation values which enable employees to understand 'what we are', 'what our organisation stands for' and 'what it is that makes us who we are' (which will therefore enable internal stakeholders to act in a way that supports the brand); and 3) core values which sum up the brand and reveal the deepest values reinforcing the brand's essence. Mosley (2007) concludes that internal marketing, compared to internal branding, tends to be an outside-in approach which lacks the brand values communicated to employees. Therefore, internal marketing can be seen as a form of customer-based management, while internal branding can be seen as a resource-based form of management, which reinforces a common-value-based culture (Mosley, 2007).

As a result of the growing literature on internal branding (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011), the concept has now been defined in several ways. Nevertheless, the focus of internal branding is to reduce the difference between the desired corporate brand and that perceived by the company's stakeholders (Mitchell, 2002; Urde, 2003; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011). Internal branding, according to Mitchell (2002, p.100), is about clearly communicating "what makes the company special". Moreover, internal branding is the term used by Urde (2003) to sum up the relationship between the organisation and the brand, including ways of ensuring that the organisation lives up to its branding. Punjaisri and Wilson (2011, p.2) state that "internal branding is about ensuring that the brand promise is transformed by employees into reality, reflecting the espoused brand values that set customers' expectations" In addition, internal branding is explained by Tosti and Stotz (2001) as a process of promoting the main corporate brand to the employees in such a way that they understand the connection between brand delivery and brand promise. Tosti and Stotz (2001) claim that brand promise can win customers. However, to satisfy customers, it is crucial for an organisation to deliver what the brand promises to its customers (Tosti & Stotz, 2001; Schultz & de Chernatony, 2002). Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) also state that the success of corporate branding "largely [relies] on employees' attitudes and behaviour in delivering the brand promise to external stakeholders" (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, p.58). de Chernatony (2002) asserts that when employees deliver the brand promise spontaneously, it makes better performance more likely. However, in order for employees to deliver the brand promises, Davis and Dunn (2002) suggest that organisations should ensure that their employees understand 'what the brand stands for' and 'why it is special and unique'. This shows that the representation and the distinctiveness of the brand can be used to describe the brand values (Urde, 2003). Therefore, to enable people on the inside to deliver what the brand has promised to customers, the values of the brand need to be clearly understood (Urde, 2003).

Internal branding can also be seen as a process of aligning employees' behaviour with a corporate brand's identity (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). Burmann and Zeplin (2005) present a holistic model for internal brand management, derived from identity-based brand management, focusing on the role of employees in ensuring the consistency of brand identity. They note that a brand is "just like a person – [it needs] to have a consistent and continuous identity in order to be trusted" (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.279). From the corporate behaviour perspective, van Riel and Balmer (1997) argue that "identity is about the ethos, aims and values that present a sense of individuality that can help to differentiate the organisation within its competitive environment". According to Urde (2003), brand identity is likely to be inferred from brand values; it is developed in order to fulfil the organisation's values, overall mission and vision.

As noted in the previous section, internalising brand values and communicating brand values to employees in order to align their understanding of these values is mainly what the internal branding literature stresses. Vallaster and de Chernatony (2004), for example, define the term 'internal branding' as the alignment of employees' behaviour with brand values. Aurand et al. (2005, p.164) describe internal branding as "promoting the brand to employees and educating them about brand values". According to Ind (2007), brand values define "the beliefs of the organisation. They are connected to a way of thinking and behaving" (Ind, 2007, p.126). Tosti and Stotz (2001) also claim that values can describe an ideal way of behaving. Moreover, Vallaster and de Chernatony (2004, p.3) suggest that "employees must be informed about the core values of the brand and ideally understand them, in order to live and reproduce the value in any of their actions and interaction". As discussed in the previous section, internal branding activities communicate the brand values, which are: 1) the values inherent in the brand mission and vision; 2) organisation values and 3) core values (Urde, 2003). Urde (2003) notes that all these values will repeatedly recall the brand identity. From an empirical study undertaken by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), it seems that the greater the match between brand values and employees' values, the more likely it is that the attitudes and behaviour of employees will be consistent with the brand promise. In order for employees to behave consistently with the external branding efforts, Aurand et al. (2005) state that internal branding is vital in organisations because its intention is to educate the employees and to train them to promote the brand values. According to Punjaisri and Wilson (2009, p.210) the belief that "internal branding could shape employees' behaviour is largely based on the assumption that when employees understand and are committed to the brand values … they will perform in ways that live up to customers' brand expectations". Hence, organisations need to realise the importance of their values and enable their employees to understand these values in order to deliver the services appropriately.

As discussed above, several authors (e.g., Urde, 2003; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2004; Aurand et al., 2005; Mosley, 2007) agree that internal branding is about aligning employee behaviour with brand values. However, in order to embody the values of the brand, Ind (2007, p.1) explains that "the organisation's purpose and values by themselves are not enough. Organisations need to build meaning into the ideas so that employees can genuinely live the brand in their day-to-day lives". Nevertheless, Ind (2007, p.1) claims that "values are not created – they exist – [the] issue is how well they are articulated and embedded". Urde (2003) states that the goal of an internal branding process is "to get the organisation to live its brands" (Urde, 2003, p.102). According to Karmark (2005), living the brand relates to the values of the brand and organisation. 'Living the brand' suggests that the employees will internalise brand values, thus enabling them to deliver the brand promises to consumers in a natural manner (Karmark, 2005). However, a universal definition of the concept of internal branding has not yet been proposed (Punjaisri & Wilson,2011). Based on the discussion above, internal branding in this study is taken to mean *a way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations.*

As mentioned earlier, Ind (2007) claims that values are not created but rather already exist in an organisation; the important question is how well they are expressed and embedded. Therefore, the emphasis of the present study is to understand the effects of the internal communication tools which higher educational institutions use to communicate, express and embed brand values among employees, in order to ensure that these people behave in alignment with the desired brand. In line with Karmark (2005), internal branding can be seen from two perspectives: 1) a marketing and communications based perspective and 2) a norms and values communications based perspective. In the following section, the literature on the perspectives of internal branding and their effects is presented.

2.4.1 Perspectives of internal branding

As mentioned in the section above, in order for employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation, it is clear that organisations tend to operate internal branding activities by means of two approaches: 1) a marketing and communications based perspective and 2) a norms and values communications based perspective (Karmark, 2005). The differences between these perspectives are listed in Table 2.4 (overleaf).

Table 2.4: Differences between a marketing and communications based perspective and a norms and values communications based perspective

Marketing and communications based perspective: internal brand communication, training and development, brand books and manuals	**Norms and values communications based perspective**: fostering brand identification through culture-embedding mechanisms, storytelling and events
Communication and implementation	Values-based management
Relying on the brand values as guidelines for the employees to live by when at work	Builds on the premise that the personal values of employees become congruent with the brand values
Direct control – top-down management: a formal socialisation process	Normative control: an informal socialisation process
Vertical communications, formal communications, work-related communications up and down the organisational hierarchy (Postmes, Tanis & de Wit, 2001)	Horizontal communications, informal interpersonal and socio-emotional interaction with close colleagues and others at the same level in the organisation (Postmes et al., 2001)
Corporate identity perspective: anchored in a strategic and visual perspective with a focus on identity as corporate communication; top management has an explicit role in the formulation of corporate identity and decides how the organisation is made to appear to external audiences (Riel, 1995)	Organisational identity perspective (e.g., Hatch & Schultz, 1997): anchored in the cultural perspective with a focus on the way in which organisational members make sense of issues relating to the question of 'who we are as an organisation' in the context of the organisational culture and history, a collective shared understanding of the organisation's distinctive values and characteristics (Albert, Ashforth & Dutton, 2000)

Source: based on literature review (the categorisations were adapted from Karmark, 2005)

From the Marketing and communications based perspective, as stated by Karmark (2005), employees are seen as the target audiences for the company's brand communication. Leaving brand values open for employees to interpret by themselves may entail considerable risk (Kunde, 2000; Karmark, 2005). Hence, brand values need to be communicated to them carefully and efficiently. Kunde (2000, p.171) also suggests that organisations should "carefully [ensure] that people are committed and understand and accept both the whys and hows of brand delivery". The primary ways for employees to understand and deliver the brand are internal communications, a brand book and other manuals and training and development (Karmark, 2005; Ind, 2007). A recent study conducted by Punjaisri and Willson (2011, p.17) has found that organisations use training and communication activities, i.e. briefings; group meetings; orientation and training, in order to ensure that a "set of customer's expectation is enacted and delivered by employees". In addition, organisations can communicate values through corporate visual identity, e.g., a university's name, slogan and symbol (Melewar & Akel, 2005). The task for management is to formulate the brand values and communicate them to employees (Karmark, 2005). This perspective tends to be based on the corporate identity position (Karmark, 2005), anchored in a strategic and visual perspective which focuses on identity as a corporate communication (van Riel, 1995). The management has an explicit role in the formulation of corporate identity and decides how the organisation is made to appear to external audiences (van Riel, 1995).

From this perspective, the brand values are diffused throughout the organisation from the top down (Karmark 2005). In other words, the brand values are vertically communicated in a formal communication style through work-related issues (Postmes et al., 2001). Therefore, internal communications should be ongoing, continuous and connected to training (Wilson, 2001). Karmark (2005) notes that internal branding from a marketing and communications based perspective emphasises the issue of formal control because leaving the brand values open to interpretation may be considered risky. However, the problem with this perspective is that brand values which are communicated through, for example, a brand book are unlikely to relate to employees' day-to-day operations (Karmark, 2005).

The Norms and values communications based perspective, in contrast, "builds on the premise that the personal values of the employee become congruent with the brand values" (Karmark, 2005, p.106). That is, the employees' attitudes and behaviour should be aligned with the organisation's values (de Chernatony, 1999). The mechanisms involved in an internal branding programme are more closely linked to fostering employee identification through the use of 'cultural tools', such as storytelling and events (Karmark, 2005) which may bring about emotional attachment (Kunde, 2000). Moreover, the employees' identification is fostered through sponsorships which serve both to build the brand's image among consumers and also to foster identification among employees (Ind, 2007).

Furthermore, this perspective tends to be based on the organisational identity perspective (Karmark, 2005) which focuses on the way in which organisational members make sense of issues relating to the question of "who are we? or who am I?" as employees of an organisation in the context of the organisational culture (Albert et al., 2000, p.13) and a collective shared understanding of the organisation's distinctive values and characteristics (Hatch & Schultz, 1997). A strong corporate culture within the organisation will support employees' identification with the brand (Kunde, 2000;

Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Morsing, 2006). The organisational culture includes the vision and the strategies of the company (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). They can encourage people at all levels of the organisation to commit themselves to the brand (King & Grace, 2005).

From this perspective, brand values are likely to be communicated to employees in a horizontal communication style (Karmark, 2005), which relies on informal interpersonal and socio-emotional interactions with colleagues in the organisation (Postmes et al., 2001). Therefore, when it comes to the issue of control, it is clear that the norms and values based perspective is less concerned with direct/formal control than is the marketing and communication based perspective. Control, however, can also take the form of normative control, whereby management attempts to influence and guide employees' behaviour by controlling the underlying experience, thoughts and feelings which influence behaviour (Kunda, 1992 cited in Karmark, 2005, p.115).

Nevertheless, the problem with this perspective, noted by Karmark (2005), is that it risks building a brand culture which is isolated from external influences and internal criticism to the extent that it ends in vanity and self-seduction (Hatch & Schultz, 2002; Karmark, 2005). In addition, brand values may be understood only by employees who are very close to the origin of the values, e.g., the employees who work in the company's headquarters (Karmark, 2005). Therefore, there is a high possibility that new employees will find themselves excluded from the values commonly held by the organisation. Moreover, this also implies that "brand values, as they are held by organisational members, are cut off from the perceptions held by external stakeholders such as consumers" (Karmark, 2005, p.116). Besides, in order to replace direct/formal managerial control, this approach seeks to influence and direct employees' actions by controlling the feelings which influence behaviour (Karmark, 2005, p.116). However, the perspective is focused on the result of strong brand values (Ind, 2007), which is essentially impossible to operate without any direct/formal managerial control because, as several authors agree, organisations need top management to adhere to and control these values (Karmark, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006, 2009).

Since the literature on internal branding from both perspectives is presented in the above sections, the potential effects of internal branding from both perspectives is next discussed, in the section below.

2.4.2 Effects of internal branding

As discussed in the previous sections, a company operates internal branding in order to persuade its employees to support the company brand. According to Schultz (2003), getting employees to support the company brand translates into getting the employees to deliver on what the brand promises to the consumer. Employees often play a crucial role in the success of corporate branding (Karmark, 2005; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) because they are responsible for reducing the gap between the desired corporate brand identity and that perceived by the company's stakeholders (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006). In the branding literature, the relationship between the brand and the employee is conceptualised as *living the brand* (e.g., Ind, 2007; Karmark, 2005; Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). The roles which an employee plays as a living brand (Karmark, 2005) are, in the examples, those of delivering the brand (Kunde, 2000), brand champion (Ind, 2007) and brand ambassador (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001), co-creator of the brand (Schultz, 2005) and brand citizenship (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). In order for employees to live a brand, they have to want to do it, i.e., management cannot force them to do it (Schultz, 2003; Mitchell, 2004). According to Karmark (2005), living the brand is linked to the values inherent in the brand and the organisation. When employees live the brand, they will internalise these values, enabling them to deliver the brand promises to the consumer in a 'natural' way (Karmark, 2005).

In the literature, several authors pay attention to employees' behaviour as an outcome of internal branding (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011). It is generally concluded that the more internal branding is applied by management, the higher the likelihood that their employees' behaviour will support the brand (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006). In line with a study conducted by Judson et al. (2006), internal branding activities are likely to assist an employee to have a clear understanding of her/his respective university's brand values and use these brand values in her/his everyday work. However, there are several terms which were used to refer to employees' behaviour as an outcome of internal branding. Burmann and Zeplin (2005), for example, use the term 'brand commitment' in order to refer to employees' behaviour as an outcome of internal branding. The term 'brand commitment' can be defined as "the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert extra effort towards reaching the brand goals" (Burmann & Zeplin (2005, p.284). King and Grace (2008, p.9) explain how internal branding impacts on employees' relationship with the brand, such that "if employees perceive the relationship with the organisation to be a positive one, worthy of maintaining, then employees have a high level of commitment to the organisation. In addition, Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) use the term 'brand adequate behaviour' to refer to the brand related behaviour of an employee if it is an effect of internal branding. Contrariwise, Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) argue that internal branding activities will lead to employees' brand identification, commitment and loyalty which will, in consequence, create brand performance. Brand performance, according to Punjaisri and Wilson (2009), is employees' brand-supporting behaviour, which is the ability of a committed employee to understand brand values and enable him/her to deliver on the customers' brand expectations set by the brand promise.

Nevertheless, Karmark (2005) points out that when brand values are communicated to employees, the latter tend to demonstrate behaviour which supports the corporate brand ('living the brand'), including, 1) understanding the brand, 2) delivering the brand, 3) representing the brand and/or 4) being the brand. From the norm and value based perspective, through culture control, employees can be expected to communicate the brand wholeheartedly by representing the brand and/or being the brand. In contrast, from a marketing and communication based perspective, as a result of communication activities, employees are only expected to understand the brand and to be able to deliver the brand (Karmark, 2005). In the following paragraphs, the consequences of internal branding from a marketing and communication based perspective and from a norm value based perspective will be reviewed and discussed.

From the Marketing and communication based perspective, the role of the employee is "to deliver the brand's values to key stakeholders, primarily by following brand guidelines that specify the meaning of the brand values to the employees" (Karmark, 2005, p.109). It is agreed that employees become key actors in delivering the brand content and promise (Schultz, 2005). Karmark (2005) notes that when brand values are communicated to employees, they tend, from this perspective, to understand the brand and/or they can deliver the brand (i.e. by living the brand). As a result of internal branding and given the need for employees to live up to the brand (Urde, 2003), it is stated that the brand can go through a process of anthropomorphising, of being a non-living object which becomes humanised or personalised (Fournier, 1998; Karmark, 2005), for example, 'brand as a person' (Karmark, 2005). This includes the idea that an organisation's brand and identity can have emotions (Aaker, 1996), personalities (Davies & Chun, 2003; Duboff, 1986) and unique characteristics/features (Balmer & Greyser, 2002) which give it specificity, stability and coherence (Cornelissen, 2006). It is noted that metaphors do not only directly bring to mind a simple comparison between a term and a concept, but also "generate inferences beyond the similarities required for their comprehension" (Cornelissen, 2005, p.754). In addition, "metaphors are often embedded in the deep structure of a text, rather than stated overtly" (Amernic, Craig & Tourish, 2007).

Henkel, Tomczak, Heitmann and Herrmann (2007) note that the theory of marketing control is an appropriate theoretical framework to clarify how an organisation controls its employees, in order to ensure that they understand the brand and can consistently act in alignment with it. According to the theory of marketing control (Jaworski, 1988), control devices are designed to affect individual action (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Jaworski, 1988; Jaworski, Stathakopoulos & Krishnan, 1993). As a result of controls, employees are more likely to behave in ways consistent with "organisational goals", the "true aims of the organisation" and/or the "best interests of the organisation" (Jaworski, 1988, p.23). Formal control activities can be described as "written, management-initiated mechanisms that influence the probability that employees or groups will behave in ways that support the stated marketing objectives" (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). In contrast, informal controls are "unwritten, typically worker-initiated mechanisms that influence the behaviour of individuals or groups ... This informal control may or may not be supportive of the stated marketing objectives" (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). Based on the descriptions of control, internal branding from the marketing and communication based perspective, consisting of internal brand communications and brand-centred training activities, can be seen as formal control activities which can therefore influence the probability that academic staff will behave in ways which support the institution's brand (Jaworski, 1988). Moreover, in line with the social identity approach to organisations (e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Haslam, 2001), the communication tools of internal branding from the marketing and communication based perspective (internal communication and training and development), which tend to be less concerned with interpersonal relations and more with organisational and work-related issues, seem to be powerful determinants of commitment. This is because they are relevant to employees' self-definition as members of the organisation (Postmes et al., 2001).

However, some authors (e.g., Mitchell, 2004; Karmark, 2005) note that internal corporate branding may not be able to make individual brand-supportive behaviour consistent. Based on an observation by Edgar H Schein, Mitchell (2004) shows evidence that:

> "A few people convert, but their effect is pretty much cancelled out by an equally small number of fanatical resistors. That leaves the vast majority with their heads firmly below the parapet, going through only those motions that are necessary for them to survive until the storm has passed. So the net result of all those carefully crafted, expensive events, away-days, workshops, storytelling, sessions, dramatisations, cascading programmes, internal videos and newsletters? Once the initial excitement has died down, it's a big round number: zero" (Mitchell, 2004, p.30).

In addition, Mitchell (2004) suggests that the problem is that organisations may focus insufficiently on translating brand value into real-life experiences, whilst concentrating too much on changing employees' actions. Moreover, as noted by Karmark (2005), brand values which are communicated through the communication media, for example, brand books, are unlikely to relate to employees' day-to-day operations.

From the Norm value based perspective, conversely, an employee's actions are directed by controlling the underlying experiences and feelings which influence behaviour (Kunda, 1992 cited in Karmark, 2005, p.115). Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006, p.764) note that "the norms enable employees to justify their behaviour". As discussed in the previous section, internal branding, from this perspective, fosters employee identification through the use of culture-embedding mechanisms, e.g., storytelling and events. (Karmark, 2005). Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006, p.768) also support the view that "corporate culture is the carrier of stories and gossip that spread information about valued behaviour and 'heroic myths' around the organisation". Through the use of culture tools, internal branding can therefore influence the brand related behaviour of an employee, called 'brand adequate behaviour' (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006).

As presented in Table 2.4 (Page 49), the norm and value based perspective is likely to be based on the organisational identification theory (e.g., Albert et al., 2000). Informal communication channels which are generally related to the organisational identity tend to influence the behaviour and attitudes of staff (Stuart, 2002). In addition, as stated in the previous section, this perspective is the approach to commitment in organisations and teams which assumes that commitment stems from interpersonal relations (Postmes et al., 2001). Employees are expected to identify with the organisation brand. In other words, an employee's values are congruent with the organisation's brand values. Therefore, the behaviour of employees who support the organisation brand can be expected to not only represent the brand wholeheartedly (as in 'brand ambassador') and to become the co-creator of the brand, but also to 'be the brand' (Karmark, 2005). As de Chernatony (2002) explains:

> "If the values are deeply rooted and coherently interlinked, then the relevance of the brand's values and the connections staff make with the brand enable them to deliver the brand promise in a more natural manner, with passion and commitment. This, in effect, brings the brand to life and enhances the likelihood of a better performance" (de Chernatony, 2002, p.122).

According to the case study of Nike and Patagonia by Ind (2007), employees are required to *be the brand.* However, in order for this to occur, their "attitudes and behaviour at work as well as their entire lifestyle must be compatible" (Karmark, 2005, p.115). This can be achieved through company recruitment communications. Ind (2007) gives the example of Greenpeace, which in its interview process adopts a confrontational stance on environmental action and chooses the candidate whose goals and beliefs match most closely with the organisation's own. In this way, the organisation tends to recruit employees who are able to embody the brand, since they have compatible attitudes and behaviour at work and in their life as a whole.

As discussed above, the marketing and communications based perspective and the norms and values communications based perspective both have some limitations. Therefore, Karmark (2005) suggests that organisations use a combination of both perspectives. However, the present study seeks to examine internal branding and its consequence, in a university context, from a marketing and communication based perspective only. In the following sections, the researcher will explain why it is necessary to examine internal branding in universities from marketing and communication based perspective.

2.4.3 Internal branding in higher education institutions: the focused perspective

The literature on internal branding and its potential effects from both perspectives is presented in the above sections. It can be concluded that internal branding can build employees' behaviour to support their organisation brand in different ways, depending on the way in which internal branding activities operate. In addition, Karmark (2005), as we have seen, suggests a combination of the two perspectives for use in organisations. However, the focus of this study is to examine internal branding and its consequence, in a university context, from a marketing and communication based perspective. This section explain why internal branding in universities from such a perspective should be examined.

Within a higher education context, according to a study undertaken by Henkel (1997), higher education institutions are being transformed into corporate enterprises. This transformation tends to emphasise direct control over employees (Henkel, 1997). It is noted that the security of academic tenure, a simple career structure, independence of working (e.g., teaching and research) and an emphasis on equal values in the allocation of work, all of which represent deeply held academic values, tend to be no longer applied (Henkel, 1997). The roles and responsibilities of academics seem to be increasingly well-defined (Henkel, 1997). Higher education institutions are adopting strategies to enhance institutional performance in the form of function differentiation. For example, "research only contracts for 'star performances', teaching only contracts for those still on the edges of the profession (or those who do not publish)" (Henkel, 1997, p.138).

de Boer et al. (2007) further support the argument that a higher education institution as a corporate actor is being transformed from a loosely coupled system – "with autonomous units" (Weick, 1976, p.8) – into a more tightly coupled system, in which freedom of choice is likely to be limited (Weick, 1976, p.8). In addition, according to Ind (2007), in an organisation which has highly explicit codes of behaviour, such as the army, religious institutions and educational institutions, it may be risky if those who work in these institutions adapt their idea of self to their day-to-day operation. Therefore, it seems that the norms and values communications based perspective, which emphasises the (indirect) control of the underlying experience, thoughts and feelings which influence behaviour (Karmark, 2005), may not be applicable in this context.

From the marketing and communications based perspective, brand values tend to be diffused throughout the organisation from the top down by formally communicating the brand values through internal communications, training and development activities (Karmark, 2005). The study of Postmes et al. (2001) suggests that vertical communications (i.e., formal communications) are more closely related to levels of commitment than are horizontal communications (which depend on informal interpersonal relations). In addition, the study shows that vertical communication from leaders is the best predictor of organisational commitment (Postmes et al., 2001).

Furthermore, Postmes et al. (2001) note that people tend to have different foci of identification and commitment. Therefore, formal communications can better create commitment (Postmes et al., 2001). Moreover, it seems that employees' interpersonal relations tend to be most relevant to an employee's personal identity and less relevant to social identity and social identification (Tajfel, 1978). Thus, the types of communication which are less concerned with interpersonal relations and more concerned with organisational and work-related issues tend to be more powerful as determinants of commitment because they are more relevant to one's self-definition as a member of the organisation (Postmes et al., 2001).

With regard to the discussion above, the marketing and communications based perspective which focuses on using direct controls, internal communications, training and development, used carefully to ensure that people are committed and understand the whys and hows of brand delivery (Karmark, 2005), tends to be more appropriate for a study on internal branding in the higher education context. In addition, from the marketing and communication based perspective, brand values are diffused throughout the organisation from the top downwards (Karmark, 2005), which is similar to the management styles which universities in most parts of the world significantly experience (Tsai & Beverton, 2007). Hence, this study examines internal branding in universities and its consequences from a marketing and communication based perspective, together with its relevant underlying mechanisms (i.e. the mediating effects of internal branding factors). In the following section, for the sake of clarity, the concept of internal branding from the marketing and communications based perspective will be outlined.

2.5 Internal branding: the marketing and communication based perspective

The previous section has explained why internal branding in universities should be examined from the marketing and communication based perspective. This section clarifies the concept of internal branding from such a perspective. As discussed in the previous section, from this perspective, employees are seen as target audiences for the company's brand communication (Karmark, 2005). The perspective is described by Karmark (2005) as follows:

> "Employees should first and foremost understand the brand values as … defined by the brand organisation. The primary means for attaining this understanding are internal communications, branding, training and development. Here the role of employees is to deliver the brand's values to key stakeholders primarily by following brand guidelines which are often presented in the form of a brand book or other types of manuals that specify the meaning of the brand values to the employees" (Karmark, 2005, p.108).

Since internal branding from this perspective values direct control, the brand values need to be communicated to employees carefully and efficiently, because leaving brand values open to interpretation by employees tends to be detrimental to the brand (Kunde, 2000; Karmark, 2005). As Kunde (2000) states:

> "If employees in the front-line are left to themselves to find the best way of doing things, the results will be highly variable. Some do fantastically well, others less well. It's not so surprising – a brand's values contain many possibilities, like so many different facets around the brand itself. But for a brand to become a success, its values must be communicated identically" (Kunde, 2000, p.166).

From the marketing and communication based perspective, the task of management is to formulate the brand values and communicate them to the employees (Karmark, 2005). The mechanism of these perspectives is designed to communicate brand values through 1) brand-centred training and development activities and 2) internal communications (Karmark, 2005; see also Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011). In the next section, the features of internal branding from a marketing and communication based perspective are discussed.

2.5.1 Brand-centred training and development activities

Training is "a planned and systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge/skill/attitudes through learning experience, to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities" (Pinnington & Edwards, 2005, p.185). Miles and Mangold (2004, p.72-73) stress a crucial rule of training and development activities that:

> "Training and development are … important in terms of the messages employees receive. Training helps employees to master skills and glean knowledge required for their immediate job, while development is geared toward increasing employees' skills, knowledge, or behaviours, with the goal of improving their ability to meet changing job requirements … For example, training and development activities that focus on developing the organisation's brand image as it relates to customer orientation may send various messages about the customer service behaviour the organisation expects employees to exhibit."

Therefore, brand-centred training is a good opportunity to build understanding about brand values and to align employees to its principles (Aurand et al., 2005; Ind, 2007). As brand values can help the organisation achieve its overall objectives, brand-centred training processes should focus on creating such programmes as are defined by the values (Aurand et al., 2005; Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006; Ind, 2007). According to a study conducted by Punjaisri and Wilson (2011), training activities make employees appreciate the value brand and know how to deliver the brand. Miles and Mangold (2004, p.72) stress that "during the recruiting and staffing phases, employees start to gather information about the organisation and job in which they are interested". Furthermore, in order to ensure that employees understand the brand's values from the first moment they start working in the organisation, brand-centred training and development programmes should be operated (Wilson, 2001; Karmark, 2005; Ind, 2007). Ind (2007) further explains why employees need a predisposition towards that brand:

> "People can sometimes uncover suppressed aspects of their character on these occasions but it is likely that if they possess contradictory beliefs, the whole experience will be uncomfortable" (Ind, 2007, p.118).

In addition, training and development activities are prone to be incorporated in HR activities (Miles & Mangold, 2004). It is generally agreed that employees' brand support behaviour may vary as a result of HR activities (e.g., Gotsi & Wilson 2001; Aurand et al., 2005). Empirical studies by several authors show that HR activities, for example, performance evaluation (Aurand et al., 2005); training (Gotsi & Wilson 2001); development courses (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011) and orientation programmes (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011), can develop employees' behaviour so that it reflects brand values, so long as these activities are aligned with brand values. It has been noted that HR professionals have developed HR activities which support internal branding efforts (Aurand et al., 2005). According to the empirical research by Aurand et al. (2005, p.163), "employees seem to have a more positive attitude toward the brand and [are] more likely to incorporate this image into their work activities when there is some degree of HR involvement in the internal branding process". Aurand et al. (2005, p.163) show that "there is a strong relationship between HR involvement in internal branding and the incorporation of the brand into work activities".

Moreover, according to Gotsi and Wilson (2001), it is agreed that communicating brand values internally can encourage staff behaviour in support of the brand organisation. However, the study shows that organisations should consider aligning human resource management activities with brand values in order to reinforce the staff's behaviour in support of the brand. They further explain that "if recruitment policies, performance appraisal, training and remuneration structures are not aligned with the brand values, conflicting messages will be sent about which behaviour is really important for the organisation" (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001, p.102). Ind (2007) also argues that the behaviour of employees to support the brand in different organisations can vary, depending on the way in which the organisation's brand values are related to human resource activities. Miles and Mangold (2004, p.73) comment that "compensation is another powerful tool for aligning employee interests with organisational goals. Pay influences employee attitudes and behaviours, and it influences the kinds of individuals who are attracted to and remain with an organisation". However, an empirical study conducted by Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) shows that training activities were the only activity which was mentioned by managers and employees as likely to develop and reinforce employees' behaviour to conform to the organisational brand (other HR activities, e.g., the recruitment and reward system, were not mentioned). I

Apart from conveying brand messages through orientation programmes and development courses (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011), e-learning can also be used as a brand-centred training tool to develop employees' understanding of the brand vision and value (Ind, 2007). E-learning, as a wide set of applications and processes (e.g., web-based learning, computer-based learning, virtual classrooms and digital collaboration), conveys information through, for example, graphics, videos, audios, animations, models, simulations and visualisations (Federico, 1999; de Rouin, Fritzsche & Salas, 2004). de Rouin, Fritzsche and Salas (2005) also support the view that e-learning should be leveraged within organisations. The benefits of e-learning are, for example, consistency of delivery standard (Ind, 2007), preparation for main training (Ind, 2007) and less cost than formalised classroom-based training (Goodridge, 2001). However, e-learning programmes can have limitations in terms of low completion rates and lack of interactivity (Ind, 2007).

In conclusion, from the marketing and communication based perspective, the brand messages sent through training and development activities inform employees what the organisation's brand values are and how important these values are. These activities help employees to understand how the organisation expects them to behave. The next section, on internal communication activities, aims to clarify the other aspects of internal branding from the marketing and communication based perspective.

2.5.2 Internal communications

From the marketing and communication based perspective, in order to ensure that employees deliver brand values to key stakeholders, these values should also be communicated to employees' internal communication activities (Karmark, 2005). Conveying the benefit of the brand idea and encouraging involvement is the role of internal communications in building employees' commitment to the brand (Ind, 2007).

Internal communication tools are used for internal branding in many organisations, such as hotels (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011), call centres (Burmann & König, 2011) and universities (Judson et al., 2006). The example of such tools are: internal publications; e-mail messages; memos; group meetings; daily briefings; direct contract; e-mail; newsletters; brand books and intranet (Judson et al., 2006; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011). An organisation can use these communication media to influence its brand targeting not only to customers but also to employees (Miles & Mangold, 2004). Miles and Mangold (2004) suggest that "internal public relations efforts can also be enhanced when organisations target employees with their advertising. Advertising messages can enable employees to better understand the product brand image and increase their emotional connection to that image" (p.74).

In addition, organisations communicate values through their corporate visual identity, for example, by invoking the organisation's name, slogan and symbol (Melewar & Akel, 2005; Whisman, 2009). Ind (2007) agrees that internal communications are available if organisations wish to keep repeating the importance of the brand. An interesting example was a company which Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) found:

> "There is no salary statement distributed without a company letter that states the brand claim or some brand-related information. The reappraisal of a company's history, the continuous use of the same pictures, the same logo or the same claim not only allows employees to acknowledge and recognise the brand promise, but also to internalise its values and identity" (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006, p.769).

It is noted that the company intranet can be used in the process of maintaining interest in the brand among employees, because it enables the brand to become a focus for discussion, rather than something employees merely hear about (Davis & Dunn, 2002; Ind, 2007). The study by Davis and Dunn (2002) supports the finding that, in order to maintain healthy brand-employee relationships in the internal branding of many successful companies, companies' intranets are used to help employees to talk about the brand. The intranet sites contain best practices as guidelines for trademarking, naming, communication elements, brand valuation and tool kits (Davis & Dunn, 2002;

Tschirhart, 2008), which not only effectively help employees to talk about the brand, but also help employees to apply it in business decision-making as well as in their day-to-day operations (Davis & Dunn, 2002). In addition, brand books and manuals are included in internal communications. Brand books and other types of manual (e.g., games and videos) can specify the meaning of the brand values to the employees (Karmark, 2005). According to Ind (2007), the purpose of a brand book is to present the brand and its context in order to strengthen brand values and the brand's relationship to other activities and strategies within the organisation, with the expected benefits. Similarly, from a corporate design perspective (e.g., Napoles, 1988; Wheeler, 2006), by containing the vision of a company and the meaning of a brand, the brand book will inspire, teach and build brand awareness. However, what should be noted is that a brand book is a guide to attitudes and behaviour, not a rule book (Ind, 2007). In addition, although organisations can communicate values through their corporate visual identity (Simoes & Dibb, 2008) – for example slogan, symbol, logo and organisation name (Melewar & Akel, 2005) – a brand book should be something more than a visual identity manual which provides detailed instructions on the use of the logo or typography, because this may persuade people that brands are only about logos and not behaviour (Ind, 2007).

As discussed in the previous section, the problem with this perspective is that the brand values which are communicated through a brand book are unlikely to be related to employees' everyday work (Karmark, 2005) and are hard to memorise in full (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). In order to be a more practical and effective mechanism, it is suggested that a brand book can be published on the intranet in the form of an online brand centre (Ind, 2007; Tschirhart, 2008). Wheeler (2006, p.164) notes that "intranet and online brand sites are beginning to juxtapose the fundamental, i.e., 'Who we are' and 'What our brand stands for' in addition to standards, templates and guidelines". Moreover, an online brand book would create the capacity to update brand details (Wheeler, 2006). Ind (2007, p.110) further comments that "the updating element is partly connected to the opportunity to allow the words themselves to evolve but, more importantly, it provides the means of sharing best practice and keeping the brand in people's minds". However, a brand book may become only a reference source, something which employees may consult rather than engage with. It is suggested that there are other manuals and media available in the form of brand-based games, performances and videos to teach and prepare employees to engage with brand values in their day-to-day operations (Kunde, 2000; Ind, 2007). This kind of internal brand communication tool provides an opportunity for repetition, which can take employees to a deeper level of understanding and shapes employees' minds to follow certain desired ways of working (Ind, 2007).

In conclusion, from the marketing and communication based perspective, it seems that organisations can encourage employees' behaviour to match with their desired image by communicating their brand values to their employees (through internal brand communications media as well as brand-centred training and development), in order to ensure that the employees will understand the brand and be able to deliver the brand values to external stakeholders. From this perspective, organisations should seriously consider employees as an audience to communicate with; hence, Ind (2007) suggests that organisations should get their employees involved in the research process and construct the campaign idea consciously, not waiting to show the campaigns after they have been created, as a way of informing employees. This is to ensure that advertising and marketing campaigns can be supported by employees who understand and are involved in the intended message (Mitchell, 2002; Ind, 2007; Tschirhart, 2008).

The present research is conducted in order to examine the relationships between internal branding activities and employee brand support in universities. The literature on internal branding and its consequence in general has been reviewed in the previous sections. The following sections, therefore, present the literature on employee brand support in universities.

2.6 Employee brand support in universities

An institution's members should have the same or at least similar values to those of their institution (Trim, 2003). The institutions, therefore, need to base their activities on the organisation's brand values in order to encourage employees to support the brand in their behaviour. In the following sections, the literature on employee brand support in universities is reviewed and presented. First, the definitions of employee brand support in this study are given. Next, the literature on employee brand support among academic staff in universities is discussed.

Within the field of branding, as Judson et al. (2006) and Boone (2000) recall, the delivery of the brand promise to the employees of an organisation is as important as the brand promise delivered to customers. The connection between employees' commitment and performance and the customers' perceptions of the service brand is also related to service marketing and branding (Karmark, 2005). Schultz (2006) notes that in corporate branding the employee becomes a key factor in delivering the brand promise.

In the branding literature, as discussed in the previous section, the relationship between the brand and the employees is conceptualised as their *living the brand* (e.g., Ind, 2007; Karmark, 2005; Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). The previous section names several authors who list the roles which an employee plays as a living brand (Karmark, 2005), such as delivering the brand (Kunde, 2000), being brand champion (Ind, 2007) and brand ambassador (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001), co-creator of the brand (Schultz, 2005) and brand citizenship (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). Gummesson (1987 cited in Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.282) also coins the term 'part-time marketers' for:

> "those employees outside of marketing or sales [who] emphasise that they have a major indirect influence on the customer brand experience through their responsibility for the quality of the company's products and services and through their roles as internal supplier/service provider for those employees with customer contact."

In addition, Burmann & Zeplin (2005) define the kind of employee behaviour that supports the organisation brand as brand citizenship behaviour. They find that if employees are asked to 'live the brand', the employees do so, representing a brand citizenship behaviour which entails:

> "[i]ndividual voluntary behaviours outside of role expectations (non-enforceable functional extra-role behaviours) that are not directly or explicitly acknowledged by the formal reward system and which, in aggregate, enhance the performance of the organisation" (Organ, 1988 cited in Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.282).

In terms of brand commitment as part of employee brand support, training programmes and internal communications which convey an organisation's brand values can create brand commitment (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005), implying that "employees perceive the relationship with the organisation to be a positive one [and] worthy of maintaining" (King & Grace, 2008, p.9), However, as stated in Section 2.4.2, Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p.284) define the term 'brand commitment' as "the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert extra effort towards reaching the brand goals". Morhart et al. (2009) also refer to the extra role brand building activities as 'employee brand-building behaviour'.

Karmark (2005) notes that employees demonstrate behaviour which supports the brand, including 1) understanding the brand, 2) delivering the brand, 3) representing the brand and/or 4) being the brand. Karmark (2005) further argues that an employee's brand support behaviour can be seen from at least two perspectives, namely, 1) the norm and value based perspective and 2) the marketing and communication based perspective (Karmark, 2005). From the norm and value based perspective, through culture control, employees are expected to represent the brand wholeheartedly, that is, to represent the brand and/or to be the bran;. whereas, from the marketing and communication based perspective, as a result of communication activities, employees are expected only to understand the brand and be able to deliver it (Karmark, 2005). As the focus of this study is to examine internal branding in universities and its effect on employees' behaviour from the marketing and communication based perspective, employee brand support in this study is, therefore, defined as *staff's understanding and incorporation of brand values into work activities.*

In a university context, according to the study by Judson et al.(2006, 2009), the studies finds that an employee who demonstrates behaviour which supports the university's brand is an employee who has a clear understanding of her/his university's brand values and uses these brand values in her/his everyday work. It is noted that if academic staff do not clearly understand the institution's brand, their acts may reflect more their own values than the university's brand values (Baker & Balmer, 1997; Jevons, 2006; Whisman, 2009).

Moreover, as previously discussed, if they do not present an institution's brand characteristics, the brand of the institution becomes unreliable (Stensaker, 2005). For that reason, universities would do well to align employee behaviour with brand values. Without the support from employee behaviour, the brand message loses its credibility (Schiffenbauer, 2001 cited in Judson et al., 2006, p.99). In addition, as noted by Boone (2000), the messages sent to employees about the brand are quite as important as the one sent to customers. Apart from investing the money in external advertising and marketing, it is very important to ensure that employees have been engaged in such activities in order to make the brand "come alive" (Boone, 2000, p.36). Stensaker (2005, p.16) also supports the view that universities need to align employee behaviour with brand values, for if the staff and students of an institution do not feel that they are part of branding process, "even the most creative branding will not be trustworthy".

An institution's brand is built through the experience which people have of it (Belanger et al., 2002; Stensaker, 2005). The organisational culture of credence goods, such as educational services, is knowledge driven, demanding high quality staff skilled in teaching, as well as deep and wide-ranging knowledge (Moorthi, 2002). Moreover, other elements which need to be addressed are those related to service personnel, such as their appearance, attitudes and social skills. (Kotler & Andreasen, 1991). Empirical studies (e.g., Naude and Ivy, 1999; Ivy, 2001) show that in old and/or well-known higher education institutions, the employees are highly influential in representing the institutions to the public (as a result of staff reputations, research output and top quality teaching, for example). Whisman (2009, p.370) also stresses that the role of employees in a university is to be the university's "biggest fans".

Marketing and branding activities occurring in higher education institutions seem to be the result of a movement towards a corporate university enterprise and rapidly increasing competition (see e.g., Henkel, 1997; Gumport, 2000; Belanger et al., 2002; Brookes, 2003; Stensaker, 2005). However, Barry et al. (2001) suggest that there should be more concern about how far management in higher education institutions has taken hold and what response it is having. As it remains unclear how internal branding affects the working lives in higher education institutions, this study seeks to examine the relationship between internal branding in these institutions and the brand support from academic staff, together with the relevant underlying mechanisms (the mediating effects of internal branding factors). The concepts of internal branding and brand support from academic staff have been reviewed and presented in this chapter. In the next chapter, the work addresses the relationships between internal branding activities and employee brand support in the higher education context from the marketing and communication based perspective, based on past empirical studies and relevant literature.

In the literature, Baker and Balmer (1997) indicate that communications are crucial for managing academic staff's brand support behaviour in higher education institutions. However, several studies on internal branding (e.g., Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2003, 2006; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Morhart et al., 2009) also pay attenstion to leaders of organisations as an important factor in persuading employees to support the brand in their behaviour. In the next section, the influence of leaders on internal branding is reviewed, on the basis of the literature.

2.7 Leaders' influence on internal branding in universities

Leaders are those who are able to influence a group of individuals towards the achievement of a particular goal (Drouillard & Kleiner, 1996). They are the group of stakeholders who provide the organisation with time, skills and human capital commitment (Hill & Jones, 1992). Leaders tend to play a critical role in shaping an organisation's value and orientation (Jordan, 1973; Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Several authors note the likely effect of the leaders' values (Webster 1988), demographics and characteristics (Smith, Smith, Olian, Sims, O'Bannon & Scully, 1994) as well as their capability and experience in planning and organisation (Felton, 1959) on their ability to effectively manage organisation activities. Kotter (1990a, 1990b) argues that leaders are different from management because leaders are expected to manage and deal with changes within the organisation better. To ensure effective implementation of marketing plans, effective leadership is one of the most important foundations to establish in an organisation (Dibb & Simkin, 2000).

The studies on internal branding note that the leadership characteristics of leaders are likely to influence internal branding (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2009). Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p.292) state that "there are two brand-relevant levels of leadership to be distinguished: the macro level refers to the role of the CEO and executive board in the brand management process, while the micro level deals with the personal leadership of executives throughout the organisation". According to Vallaster and de Chernatony (2009), leaders throughout the organisation play a crucial role in internal branding by being responsible for defining and driving a corporate brand's identity while encouraging the connection between employees' behaviour and the desired brand identity. Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) note that leaders can influence internal brand building through initiating and facilitating behavioural changes consistent with the desired brand.

Leaders are likely to influence behavioural changes which are consistent with brand-supportive behaviour (Mosley, 2007; Kunde, 2000). As communications from leaders can be the best predictor of organisational commitment (Postmes et al., 2001), the leaders, thus, tend to play an active role in ensuring that employees deliver services appropriately aligned to the brand. The leaders can communicate the brand messages through their behaviour (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005), provide the meaning of the brand to employees and encourage the employees to work together as a team (Ind, 2007). Gad (2003) supports the view that there are many cases of very communicatively skilled leaders who create the communication concept which gives employees an ideal to work towards.

Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005, p.187) suggest that “leaders encourage brand supporting employee behaviour by providing a clear brand vision and by facilitating social interaction”. In addition, Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006, p.777) argue that “leaders facilitate employee brand commitment by acting as a role model, communicating in a manner supporting the desired brand identity”. Furthermore, according to Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p.292), it is likely that the organisation’s members will take internal branding efforts seriously only if they are supported by the words and actions of the organisation’s leaders. Moreover, a study by King and Grace (2005) reveals that leadership is one of the key factors affecting employees’ behaviour in support of a brand. Thus, in order to ensure consistency in the employees’ brand support behaviour, Henkel et al. (2007) suggest that leadership training should be provided to the leaders of an organisation.

In the literature, the characteristics of leaders within an organisation are likely to encourage employees’ brand commitment by influencing the culture of the organisation (Schein, 1983; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). According to the types of control defined by Jaworski (1988, p.26), this situation may occur because of the informal control mechanisms. Informal controls are “unwritten, typically worker-initiated mechanisms which influence the behaviour of individuals or groups ... This informal control may or may not be supportive of the stated marketing objectives” (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). However, informal controls are characterised by personal interaction between leaders and employees, which can be seen as “social control” and/or “culture control”[5] (Jaworski, 1988; Henkel et al., 2007).

In a higher education institution context, educational institutions are more concerned with the quality of leadership and the need to develop organisational leadership (Dearlove, 1995; Askling, Bauer & Marton, 1999). Moreover, it has been concluded that leadership is needed for higher education institutions if they are to perform

[5] The three types of informal control are self-control, social control and cultural control (Jaworski, 1988)

Jaworski (1988, p.27) explains that: “by self-control an individual establishes personal objectives, monitors their attainment and adjusts behaviour if off course”. According to the internal branding literature, *self-control* is sometimes called ‘*ongoing individual behaviour’* (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006).

effectively (e.g., Jarrett Report, 1985 cited in Barry et al., 2001, p.89; Cohen & March, 1986; Pounder, 2001). According to Dearlove (1995, p.167), academics tend to prefer being left alone to do their own work, typically teaching and research. For this reason, "they may be prepared to trust empathetic leaders to do their organisational thinking for them" (Dearlove, 1995, p.167). Moreover, higher education institutions should pay more attention to the quality of leadership, due to the changes in government policies which give universities more responsibility and authority (Askling et al., 1999) and the increase of competition in the higher education sector, which encourage universities to act in a more business-like manner (Davies, Hides & Casey, 2001).

The institutions which are interested in the capacity to change should also be concerned about the quality of their leadership (Dearlove, 1995). Ramsden (1998) agrees that the use made of leadership in higher education institutions is its ability to produce change and also to align and motivate followers. In the higher education context, Ramsden (1998, p.8) argues that "leadership is about tensions and balances". He goes into the concept of leadership in higher education institutions:

> "We must trust people; but not everyone can be trusted. We must focus on traditional academic values; but we must also respond to new demands from employees, companies, governments and students. We must look outwards to the strategic advantage of our work unit; but we should never neglect internal processes and relations. We must listen and consult; but we must have the wisdom to know when the advice received is correct … We must mentor our staff; we must also address our performance. … we must ensure the scholarly productivity of our colleagues. And we need to decide the degree to which our careers as academics are to be traded against our careers as academic managers" Ramsden (1998, p.9).

The focus of leadership studies is to find how leaders attempt to persuade group members to achieve the group's goals (Bargh, Bocock, Scott & Smith, 2000). House (1971), for example, considers the motivational functions of the leader – for instance, making personal rewards both intrinsic (e.g., work satisfaction) and extrinsic (e.g., promotions and salary increases), as well as ensuring that each person's work has the necessary direction and support to attain its goals. However, in order to be successful a leader may need a particular style of leadership, depending on the situation and which style will enables them to exert influence over the group members (Fiedler, 1967).

Several authors (e.g., Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Morhart et al., 2009) agree that transformational leadership characteristics tend to be the most effective in influencing employees' brand support behaviour. In addition, transformational leadership has primarily been identified by those leadership characteristics which produce greater changes in educational institutions (e.g., Leithwood, 1992; Pounder, 2001; Fink, 2005). According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership tends to be concerned with the process of encouraging one's followers to accomplish great work (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2004). Transformational leadership results in employees' performance which goes well beyond what is expected (den Hartog, van Muijen & Koopman, 1997; Northouse, 2004). This type of leadership is concerned with the performance of followers and with developing followers to their fullest potential (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Avolio, 1999). According to Burns (1978, p.4):

> "The transformational leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower, but, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs and engages the full persons of followers".

In addition, Northouse (2004, p.171) provides a good conclusion to Burns' transformational leadership theory (1978): that "[transformational leadership] refers to the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower".

However, the characteristics of transformational leadership have been identified as follows (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Northouse, 2004): 1) idealisation influence or charisma is an attribute of leaders who act as strong role models for their followers and provide them with a clear vision and sense of mission. The followers identify with these leaders and want to imitate them; 2) inspirational motivation is attributed to leaders who communicate high expectations to their followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision within the organisation; 3) intellectual stimulation comes from leaders who stimulate their followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values and those of the leaders and the organisation; and 4) individual consideration is given by leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers and act as advisers trying to assist specific ways of working. In line with Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p.293) note that "transformational leadership with regard to the brand can be described as leaders' behaviours that influence the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and induce them to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the brand."

The definitions of transformational leadership as discussed above suggest that a transformational leader is likely to motivate employees' brand support by providing a supportive climate, i.e., being a role model, acting as an adviser and giving positive and constructive feedback. As Berry and Parasuraman (1991 cited in Simoes & Dibb, 2001, p.219) state:

> "Internalising the brand involves explaining and selling the brand to employees. It involves sharing with employees the research and strategy behind the presented brand. It involves creative communication of the brand to employees. It involves training employees in brand-strengthening behaviours. It involves rewarding and celebrating employees whose actions support the brand. Most of all, internalising the brand involves *involving* employees in the care and nurturing of the brand."

Along with the studies on internal branding (e.g., Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Morhart et al., 2009), transformational leadership characteristics tend to be the most effective ones in influencing employees' brand support behaviour. However, a qualitative study conducted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) found that the characteristics of 'charisma' and 'inspiration' were mentioned, unprompted, several times in their interviews as success factors for internal branding, while the characteristics of intellectual stimulation and individual consideration were not mentioned. Therefore, the relevance of the transformational leaders for internal branding still remains to be specified (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). Still, a recent study conducted by Morhart et al. (2009) finds that leaders with transformational leadership characteristics have a positive impact on an increase in the brand-building behaviours of employees.

In order to hypothesise potential relationships between the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders and the concepts of interest (i.e. internal branding activities and academic staff's brand support), such relationships are discussed in some detail in the next chapter, on the basis of a combination of marketing control theory (Jaworski, 1988), transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and Lewin's change theory (1947).

To sum up, in these sections, a review of the literature on internal branding was presented, touching on employee brand support and transformational leadership characteristics from the marketing and communication based perspective. In addition, the literature on the possible relationship between the studied concepts was reviewed and discussed above. In the following section, the potential research areas noted from the review of the literature are discussed.

2.8 Potential research areas for internal branding studies

In the previous sections, the concepts of internal branding, employee brand support and transformational leadership characteristics are clarified, mainly on the basis of a review of the literature on brand management, higher education management, corporate communication and human resource management. This review reveals several directions for further research. The potential research areas for internal branding studies which this thesis addresses are described in the following paragraphs.

First, most previous studies on internal branding (e.g., Urde, 2003; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2004; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011) are conducted within the private sector. Therefore, an important concern for the present thesis is that internal branding in higher education is likely to be based on knowledge imported from the business sector. Consequently, it raises the question of the applicability of the marketing concept to higher education (Maringe, 2005a, 2005b). Although researchers (e.g., Judson et al., 2006; Whisman, 2009) have studied internal branding in universities, their research tends to focus only on classic internal communication tools (e.g., university brochures; campus meetings; e-mail messages and university memos), while training and development, tend to be ignored. As a result, there is a need for research to examine the effects of internal branding tools in the context of higher education.

Second, it can be concluded that internal branding in higher education institutions has emerged since the need arose to align employees' behaviour to comply with market mechanisms by supporting a desired image (Marginson, 1996; Ivy, 2001; Brookes, 2003; Stensaker, 2005; de Boer et al., 2007). Employees' behaviour which supports the brand values is considered to be a consequence of internal branding (e.g., de Chernatony, 2001; Keller, 1999; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006, 2009; King & Grace, 2008). The literature also acknowledges that several stakeholders, such as students, academic staff and non-academic staff, are involved in supporting the institution's brand from the inside (Pitman, 2000; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Melewar & Akel, 2005). However, the present research focuses on the employee brand support of the academic staff because they are among the most important resources of higher education institutions (Barry et al., 2001; Jackson, 2001). Nevertheless, there are very few empirical studies on employee brand support and its determinant factors in a higher education institution context. In addition, in the higher education context, the relationship between internal branding and the way in which academic staff support the institution's brand still remains unclear.

Although a few researchers (e.g., Judson et al. 2006; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Whisman, 2009) cover internal branding in higher education institutions, their studies focus on administrative staff (Judson et al., 2006) or students (Balmer & Liao, 2007) but not on academic staff who “should be seen as the primary resource of a university and … [need] to be managed and accounted for with appropriate care and skill” (Jarrett Report, 1985 cited in Barry et al., 2001, p.89). Empirical research has not investigated the relationships between internal branding activities in higher education institutions and the way in which academic staff support their institution’s brand.

Third, internal branding activities, from the Marketing and communications based perspective (Karmark, 2005), consist of two important aspects (i.e., the brand-centred training and development activities factor and the internal brand communications factor). Therefore, research is needed to clarify the relationships between employees brand support and the above internal branding activities. In addition, the mechanisms underlying the relationships between internal branding activities and employees’ brand support still remains vague. Hence, researchers should be concerned with the underlying mechanisms embedded in the relationships between internal branding activities and employees’ brand support. This research, therefore, examines not only the relationships between internal branding activities and employees’ brand support, but also the relevant underlying mechanisms embedded in the relationships: i.e., the mediation roles of brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the investigation of mediation effects is likely to help researchers to better understand the underlying mechanism of the relationships being study.

Fourth, it has been concluded that leadership is needed for higher education institutions (e.g., Dearlove, 1995; Askling et al., 1999; Davies et al., 2001; Pounder, 2001). In addition, past studies (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006) have argued that transformational leaders could initiate and create internal branding and employee brand support. However, the studies on internal branding in universities have not considered the role of transformational leaders in influencing internal branding’s activities and effects. In addition, the roles of the immediate leaders of academic staff’ should not be ignored, because good immediate leaders can energise employees to work hard and be committed to their jobs (Tronc, 1970; Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001); while poor immediate leaders can equally exert a negative influence, causing employees to be depressed and leave (Jablin, 2001). This study, therefore, investigates the possibility that the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders may influence internal branding in higher education institutions and employees' brand support for it.

Furthermore, leadership theories mostly mirror Western organisational culture (House & Aditya, 1997). House and Aditya (1997, p.409) note that most of the empirical evidence is rather distinctly based on American characteristics, which are, for example "individualistic rather than collectivistic, stressing follower responsibilities rather than rights, assuming hedonism rather than commitment to duty or altruistic motivation, assuming centrality of work and democratic value orientation and emphasising assumptions of rationality rather than asceticism, religion, or superstition". In addition, most studies on internal branding have been conducted in the private sector and/or in Western countries (e.g., Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Urde, 2003; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2004; Aurand et al., 2005; de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006; King & Grace, 2008). Few studies have been carried out in other regions (e.g., Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) and/or the public sector (e.g., Hankinson, 2004). Moreover, very few researchers (e.g., Judson et al., 2006, 2009; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Whisman, 2009) have researched on internal branding in the higher education sector. These theories should therefore be tested in different settings (i.e., industries and regions) to gauge their generalisability.

Given the research gaps discussed above, this study is, therefore, conducted in order to examine the relationships between internal branding, employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders, together with the relevant underlying mechanisms (i.e., the mediation effect) from the academic staff's perspective in the context of Thai universities. This study attempts to answer the following research questions, from the academic staff perspective:

1) What is the relationship, if any, between internal branding activities (i.e., 1. brand-centred training and development activities; and 2. internal brand communications) and employee brand support?

2) Are the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader determinants of employee brand support?
3) Is the impact of internal branding and leadership characteristics on employee brand support direct? In other words, are there any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between internal branding activities, employee brand support and leadership characteristics?

2.9 Summary

In this chapter, the internal branding in universities has been evaluated, mainly on the basis of a review of the literature in marketing and brand management, higher education management, corporate communication and human resource management. In addition, the concepts of internal branding and employee brand support have been discussed, in order to review the development of research on this topic.

According to definitions by Urde (2003), Ind (2007) and Karmark (2005), internal branding is a way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in brands and organisations so that they can spontaneously deliver the brand promises to consumers in their day-to-day operations. However, as Ind (2007) claims, values are not created but already exist in organisations; thus the important question is how well they are embedded and expressed. This study, therefore, draws attention to understanding the effects of the tools which universities use to communicate, express and embed brand values to their employees in order to ensure that these people will behave in alignment with the desired brand.

Employee brand support has been referred to as an outcome of the process of internal branding. However, the nature of the relationship is still unclear between brand support from academic staff and internal branding activities as potential antecedent factors of employee brand support in universities. Moreover, according to the review of the literature, the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders could affect the brand support behaviour of the academic staff. This study therefore investigates the relationship between employee brand support, the antecedent factors of interest, i.e. the internal branding activities factors (1. the internal brand communication factor and 2. the brand-centred training and development activities factor) and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders.

This study chooses the marketing and communications based perspective for its investigations because this perspective focuses on carefully ensuring that people are committed and that they understand the whys and hows of brand delivery under direct controls. In addition, from this perspective, brand values become diffused through the organisation from the top down, like the management styles of which universities in most parts of the world have significant experience.

In the next chapter, the conceptual model of the study will be described on the basis of the research hypotheses. The development of the hypotheses will be traced, with supporting theories. The relationships between internal branding activities and employee brand support are discussed, as is the influence on internal branding of the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader.

Chapter 3 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the literature on internal branding activities, employee brand support and transformational leadership's characteristics and also the possible relationships between the concepts. Findings from the literature review suggest an opportunity for further research. Employee brand support is seen by several researchers as an outcome of internal branding activities. Nevertheless, one of the most important concerns is that the knowledge of internal branding and employee brand support in higher education institutions is based on knowledge imported from the business sector. As a result, there is a need to examine the specific relationship between internal branding activities and employee brand support in higher education institutions. In addition, the review of the literature indicates the possibility that the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders could affect the internal branding and brand support behaviour of the academic staff. Hence this study will investigate the relationships between all these concepts.

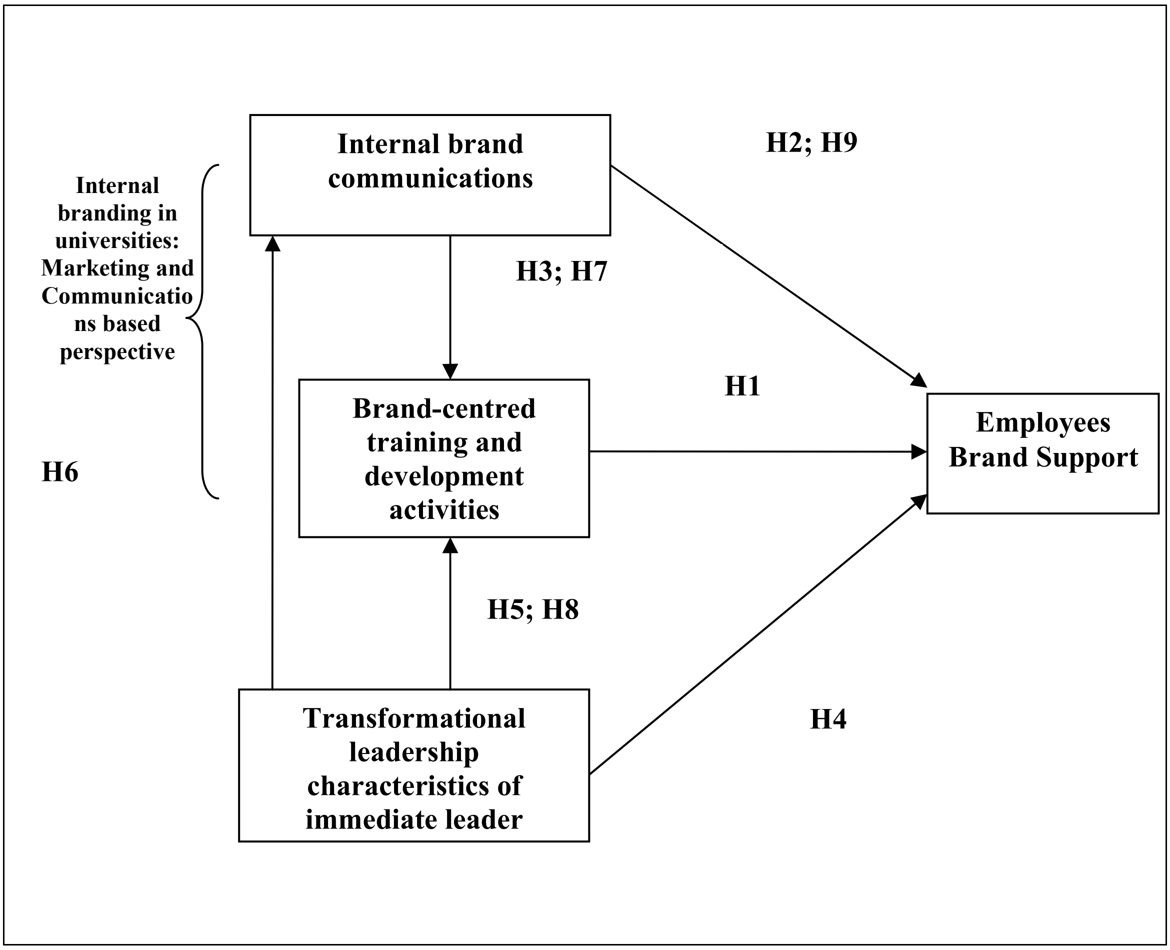
In this chapter, such relationships are hypothesised, with support from the literature, in the form of a conceptual model of the relationships between internal branding activities (i.e. internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities), academic staff's brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders based on a combination of marketing control theory (Jaworski, 1988), transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and Change theory (Lewin, 1947).

Marketing control theory (Jaworski, 1988) is employed mainly in order to trace the relationships between internal branding activities, the academic staff's brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader. The theory is chosen because it is noted by Henkel et al. (2007) that this theory is an appropriate theoretical framework to clarify how an organisation directs its employees in order to ensure that they understand the brand and are able to act in consistent alignment with it. According to the theory of marketing control, control devices are designed to affect individual action (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Jaworski, 1988; Jaworski et al., 1993). As a result of controls, employees are more likely to behave in ways consistent with "organisational goals", the "true aims of the organisation" and/or the "best interest of the organisation" (Jaworski, 1988, p.23).

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977),which argues that people learn new attitudes and behaviour by observing the behaviour of other people, is used to account for the relationships between the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders and the staff's brand support. Existing research and reviews (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006; Mosley, 2007) suggest that employees will more easily apply an organisation's values into their day-to-day operation if they can be exemplified in the leader's behaviour. In line with Social learning, employees, therefore, learn about an organisation's norms and values by observing and learning from the behaviour of their leader (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). Additionally, in order to connect transformational characteristics of leaders with employee brand support in universities, Lewin's field theory (1947), the classical theory of social change, is employed. Lewin's field theory is perceived to be a top-down approach to change management (Dawson, 1994; Kanter, Stein & Jick, 1992), which is similar to the management styles familiar to universities in most parts of the world (Tsai & Beverton, 2007).

Figure 3.1 (overleaf) illustrates a proposed conceptual model which demonstrates the links between employee brand support to 1) internal branding and 2) the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders, as proposed antecedent factors of employee brand support. The model also considers the role of the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders in influencing internal branding activities. Moreover, the mediation roles of brand-centred training and development activities as well as internal brand communications are also proposed as factors in the model. The relationships in the model and the research hypotheses (see Table 3.1, overleaf) will be further discussed in this chapter. In addition, a table of the hypotheses showing the relationships between the research questions and the relevant hypotheses can be found at the end of this chapter (Table 3.2).

Figure 3.1: The relationships between internal branding in universities and employee brand support, and the influence of the academic staff leader's transformational leadership characteristics



Source: developed by the researcher for this study

The next section will discuss literature related to employee brand support and its relationships to internal branding aspects in universities, i.e., brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications. Then, the research hypotheses will be proposed. From there on words, the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders and the brand support of the academic staff will be discussed. After that, further research hypotheses will be proposed. Finally, mediation roles of the brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications will be discussed, followed by the research hypotheses.

Table 3.1: List of research hypotheses

Hypotheses	Major references
H1: Brand-centred training and development activities are positively related to employee brand support.	Gotsi and Wilson (2001), Ind (2003), Aurand et al. (2005), Mosley (2007), King and Grace (2008), Ind (2007), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007)
H2: Internal brand communications are positively related to employee brand support.	Mitchell (2002), Vallaster and de Chernatony (2003, 2006), Burmann and Zeplin (2005), Aurand et al. (2005), Judson et al. (2006, 2009), Mosley (2007), King and Grace (2008), Ind (2007); Whisman (2009)
H3: Internal brand communications are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.	Wilson (2001), Burmann and Zeplin (2005), Karmark (2005), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007)
H4: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to employee brand support.	Vallaster and de Chernatony (2003, 2006), Burmann and Zeplin (2005), Morhart et al. (2009)
H5: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.	Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006), Jaworski et al. (1993: A theory of marketing control)
H6: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to internal brand communications.	
H7: The relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.	
H8: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.	
H9: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by internal brand communications.	

Source: developed by the researcher for the study

3.2 Antecedent factors of academic staff's brand support: Internal branding and transformational leadership characteristics of immediate leader

In order to account for the relationship which seems to exist between employee brand support and the antecedent factors of interest (i.e. brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders), marketing control theory is applied. According to the theory, control devices are designed to affect individual action (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Jaworski, 1988; Jaworski et al., 1993). As a result of controls, employees tend to behave in ways consistent with "organisational goals", the "true aims of the organisation" and/or the "best interest of the organisation" (Jaworski, 1988, p.23). Studies which consider the effects of control mechanisms on, for example, role clarity (Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1988), role ambiguity (Argyris, 1953) and job performance (e.g., Hopwood, 1972, Argyris, 1953). Dalton (1971 cited in Jaworski, 1988, p.31) defines 'control' as making sure that "(1) a standard has been set; (2) the standard is monitored; and (3) corrective action is taken when a deviation from the standard is deemed significant". However, a standard does not need to be quantitative. It can be, for example, a social norm. Jaworski (1988), therefore, distinguishes two types of control: formal and informal. Formal control activities can be described as "written, management-initiated mechanisms that influence the probability that employees or groups will behave in ways that support the stated marketing objectives" (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). Conversely, informal controls are "unwritten, typically worker-initiated mechanisms that influence the behaviour of individuals or groups .... This informal control may or may not be supportive of the stated marketing objectives" (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). The informal control mechanism can be characterised by personal interaction between leaders and other employees (Jaworski, 1988; Henkel et al., 2007). In the descriptions of control, internal branding in universities, which is made up of internal brand communications and brand-centred training activities, can be seen as formal control activities which influence academic staff behaviour to behave in alignment with the institution's brand. On the other hand, through personal interaction between employees and their leaders, informal control can be exercised, thereby affecting employees' behaviour (Jaworski, 1988; Henkel et al., 2007).

The following sections discuss, on the basis of the literature, the relationships between the academic staff's brand support to 1) both aspects of the internal branding activities and 2) transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders. Afterwards, the relationships between the constructs are proposed.

3.2.1 Internal branding and employee brand support in universities

In order to encourage a coherent brand, employees should share the same perceptions of the values embedded in the brand (de Chernatony, 2002). As presented in the previous chapter, the internal branding consists of aligning employee behaviour with brand values (e.g., Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2004; Hankinson, 2004; Aurand et al., 2005). Therefore, several authors (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) consider employees' behaviour as an outcome of internal brand building.

According to the study by Burmann and Zeplin (2005), the internal communications and training programmes which convey an organisation's brand values are likely to stimulate brand commitment. Brand commitment, as a part of employee brand support, is defined by Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p.284) as "the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert extra effort towards reaching the brand goals". Iverson, McLeod and Erwin, (1996, p.36) also note that employees committed to the organisation's values show their "willingness … to exert additional effort to achieve the goals of the organisation". In addition, Iverson et al. (1996) state that employee commitment refers to "employees' adoption of values, attitudes and beliefs of the organisation". Moreover, the empirical study conducted by Abbott, White and Charles (2005) shows that values-based organisational commitment implies that employees are able to perceive and understand the organisation's values.

From a marketing and communication based perspective, the role of the employee is "to deliver the brand's values to key stakeholders, primarily by following brand guidelines that specify the meaning of the brand values to the employees" (Karmark, 2005, p.109). As presented in Chapter 2, studies in private sector have found positive relationships between employees' brand delivery and internal branding activities, i.e., brand-centred training and development activities (e.g., Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) and internal communications (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; King & Grace, 2008). Besides, in non-profit organisations, where salaries are often relatively low, communication, training and employee involvement are used to create the effective delivery of services (Alatrista & Arrowsmith, 2004).

In the context of higher education, when internal branding has been implemented, university staff members tend to have a clearer understanding of their institutions' brand values and are able to reflect these brand values in their day-to-day operation (Judson et al., 2006; Whisman, 2009). However, empirical research has not investigated the relationships between internal branding in higher education and the brand support behaviour of academic staff. In the present study, internal branding activities in universities are assessed as possible antecedent factors of the academic staff's employee brand support.

As mentioned earlier, internal branding activities are formal control activities which can ,therefore, influence the probability that academic staff will behave in supportive ways towards the institution's brand (Jaworski, 1988). In line with Zeithaml et al. (1988), *role clarity* is a consequence of communication and control activities operate in service organisations. The previous chapter reveals that when brand values are communicated to employees, employees tend to demonstrate behaviour which supports the brand ('live the brand'); such as: delivering the brand (Kunde, 2000), brand champion (Ind, 2007) and brand ambassador (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001), co-creator of brand (Schultz, 2005) and brand citizenship (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). According to the work by Judson et al. (2006) and Karmark (2005), employee brand support can be defined as the actions of employees which deliver the brand's values to stakeholders. From a marketing and communication based perspective (Karmark, 2005), employees tend to support their organisation's brand by means of understanding the brand and incorporating the brand values in their day-to-day-operation (Karmark, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Ind, 2007). This study therefore defined Employee brand support as the academic staff's behaviour when *they understand the brand and incorporate the brand values in their day-to-day-operations* (Karmark, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Ind, 2007).

The following sections discuss, on the basis of the literature, the relationships between the academic staff's brand support to internal brand communications as well as brand-centred training and development activities. After that, the relationships between the constructs are proposed.

3.2.1.1 Brand-centred training and development in universities: An antecedent of academic staff's brand support

Building the brand image of an organisation depends on the people within the organisation (Moorthi, 2002). As presented in the previous chapter, reviews (e.g., Mosley, 2007; Ind, 2007) and studies (e.g., Aurand et al., 2005; King & Grace, 2008; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011) insist on the important role of training and development activities in communicating brand values to employees. The studies show that HR activities, in service sector in general, such as, performance evaluation (Aurand et al., 2005); training (Gotsi & Wilson 2001); development courses (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011) and orientation programmes (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2011), can encourage employees to reflect brand values in their behaviour if these activities are aligned with brand values.

Brand-centred training and development is a set of internal branding tools which higher education institutions are inclined to implement. The organisational culture of credence goods, for example, educational services, is knowledge driven, demanding high quality staff with teaching skills and staff with deep and wide-ranging knowledge (Moorthi, 2002). However, knowledge is not the only element related to people in organisations. Other elements also need to be addressed, including those related to service personnel such as their appearance, attitudes and social skills (Kotler & Andreasen, 1991), for which training and development activities are also required. In higher education, training and development are used for "ensuring that the workforce has the necessary skills to adapt to the changing needs of the organisation" (Warner & Palfreyman, 1996, p.91). In non-profit organisations, as in higher education institutions, when new employees go through a training programme, employees will be trained in the appropriate skills for their work (Kotler & Andreasen, 1991). For example, workshops can be provided to help introduce the institution's brand to staff.

Trim (2003) observes that an institution's member need to have the same or at least similar values to those of their institution. The institutions, therefore, need to plan those activities based on the organisation's brand values in order to encourage employee' to support the brand in their behaviour (e.g., Judson et al., 2006; Whisman, 2009). Training and development activities in higher education institutions are likely to be incorporated in human resource (HR) activities (Warner & Palfreyman, 1996; Karol & Ginsburg, 1980). As stated above, if the HR activities are aligned with brand values, they can be expected to encourage employees' brand support behaviour (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Aurand et al., 2005).

According to marketing control theory (Jaworski, 1988), the mechanisms of formal control help organisations in encouraging employees to behave in alignment with the desired goals. Formal controls are divided into three sub-categories, namely, "1) inputs control (i.e., training programs); 2) process control (i.e., standard operating procedures) and 3) output control (i.e., performance standards)" (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). However, it is likely that brand-centred training and development activities can be categorised into the types of formal control in line with the sub-categories above. The brand-centred training and development activities include, for example, performance evaluation, training activities, the setting of standard procedures and the provision of the necessary skill sets to deliver an institution's values. Training programmes, for example, can be seen as input control activities, because they are measurable actions taken by the firm to implement an activity (Jaworski, 1988). In addition, by setting standard procedures and/or providing the skill sets necessary to deliver an institution's values, these activities can be seen as process control activities. Providing process control activities focuses attention on the behaviour and/or activities of employees rather than the end results (Jaworski, 1988).

In organisational commitment studies, training and development programmes are likely to drive employee commitment (Stum, 2001). Furthermore, according to an empirical study by Nijhof, de Jong and Beukhof (1998), training programmes and informative meetings have been included in the 'most popular' activities and have the highest impact on commitment. Moreover, an empirical study by Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) also shows that training activities are cited by managers and employees as processes which help to develop and reinforce employees' behaviour in alignment to the organisational brand (other HR activities, e.g., recruitment and reward systems, are not mentioned in by the managers and employees). Furthermore, as discussed earlier, several researchers note that communicating brand values through human resource activities can encourage the staff to support the organisational brand (e.g., Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Aurand et al., 2005; Ind, 2007). Taking into account the explanations above, it is proposed that:

> *H1: Brand-centred training and development activities are positively related to employee brand support.*

3.2.1.2 Internal brand communications in universities: An antecedent of academic staff's brand support

Several authors (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Postmes et al., 2001) note that communication is an antecedent of employee commitment. Internal brand communication tools are used by higher education institutions to communicate brand messages to employees (Judson et al., 2006; Whisman, 2009). Also, in order to convey institutions' unique characteristics to their stakeholders, some institutions have implemented corporate identity programmes (Melewar & Akel, 2005; Balmer & Liao, 2007; Celly & Knepper, 2010). In a higher education context, internal communication that is likely to promote identification with the institution (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996). The institutions communicate values to their employees through corporate visual identity, for example, the university's name, slogan and symbol (Baker & Balmer, 1997; Melewar & Akel, 2005; Whisman, 2009).

According to a study conducted by Judson et al. (2006), internal brand communication tools, based on Ind's (1997) internal communications umbrella, can be listed. The internal brand communication tools are divided into three forms of communication: 1) 'one-to-one' communication; 2) 'segment' communication; and 3) 'all' or internal mass communication (Ind, 1997; Judson et al*.,* 2006). The study reveals that the 'one-to-one' type (daily interacting, briefings and meeting) is the most personal form of communication, while the 'all' (newsletters, memos and brochures) is the least personal type (Ind, 1997; Judson et al*.,* 2006). However, the media common to higher education's forms of institutional communication are, for instance, university brochures, campus meetings, e-mail messages, university memos and university intranet (Judson et al*.,* 2006). It is noted that higher education, like as other non-profit-organisations, uses websites to deliver brand messages to employees, or, at least, to inform them of the institution's academic programme (e.g., Melewar & Akel, 2005; Tschirhat, 2008). The study by Judson et al. (2006) shows that employees think that these particular communication tools are effective. Besides, internal publications (e.g., university brochures) tend to be the most effective method of delivering internal branding messages to staff in higher education institutions (Judson et al*.,* 2006).

With formal control tools (Jaworski, 1988), in order to ensure that employees are producing the desired results for attaining the organisation's goals, the organisation may not need to communicate specific working processes to its employees. Rather, the organisation may communicate only its goals – for example, its mission and vision – without specifying the process. This type of formal control is called an 'input control' (Jaworski, 1988). Internal brand communication activities in universities (i.e. university brochures, campus meetings, E-mail messages and university memos) can be seen as 'input control' activities, which guide their employees towards the institutional values and the expected brand support behaviour.

Judson et al. (2006) also highlight that when internal brand communication tools listed above have been implemented, university staff tend to have a "clearer understanding of their respective universities' brand values and are subsequently better able to use these brand values in their everyday work". Taking into account the explanations above, the relationship between internal brand communications in universities' departments and employee brand support is proposed as follows:

> *H2: Internal brand communications are positively related to employee brand support.*

Additionally, in order to create employee brand support, several authors (Wilson, 2001, Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) suggest that internal communications should be ongoing, continuous and connected with training. Moreover, from the marketing and communication based perspective (Karmark, 2005), it is always emphasised that the values should first be communicated to employees in order to ensure that employees deliver brand values to key stakeholders. This means, for an employee to behave in alignment with the organisation's values, he/she may need some initial or fundamental information about the organisation's brand values. Thus, the internal brand communication activities will help an employee to better perceive and understand the values attached to the brand centred-training and development activities, thereby creating employee brand support. Hence, employees' perceptions of brand-centred training and development activities tend to be related to their perceptions of internal brand communication. Therefore, the relationship between internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities in universities is proposed as follows:

> *H3: Internal brand communications are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.*

3.2.2 Transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support

Regarding the characteristics of leadership, it is agreed by several authors (e.g., Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005) that the kinds which tend to be most effective in influencing employees' brand support behaviour are those of transformational leadership. In addition, Northouse (2004, p.175) notes that leaders "who exhibit transformational leadership often have a strong set of internal values and ideals and they are effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good rather than their own self-interests".

An empirical study conducted by Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996) shows that transformational leadership has significant effects on organisational commitment. Moreover, it has also been suggested that transformational leaders enhance organisational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) which is supposed to similarly encourage brand commitment based on identification (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). In addition, Morhart et al. (2009) finds that leaders with transformational leadership characteristics have a positive impact on an increase in the brand-building behaviours of employees. The following section discusses how these transformational leadership characteristics may influence employee brand support in universities. This is followed by further research hypotheses.

3.2.2.1 Transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders: An antecedent of employee brand support

Higher education institutions have a need of transformational leadership characteristics (Ramsden, 1998; Pounder, 2001). The study conducted by Leithwood (1992) shows that transformational leaders help the institution's members to develop and maintain a collaborative, professional collegiate culture and to foster academic development, as well as to help academics resolve their problems more effectively. Empirically, leaders in education institutions who determine the climate and level of interpersonal support, the communications and reward systems in order to encourage changes in the employees' behaviour, appear to best influence the commitment of these employees (Sergiovanni, 1990). Transformational leaders facilitate collective actions based on the institution's values, i.e. their mission and vision (Leithwood, 1992; Roberts, 1985). Therefore, the transformational characteristics of leaders may possibly influence the level of support for internal branding generated by employees within higher education institutions.

In addition, transformational leadership has been, for several authors, the primary means of making changes in educational institutions (e.g., Leithwood, 1992; Bargh et al., 2000; Fink, 2005). Bass and Avolio (1990, p.241) note that "transformational leaders motivate followers to do more than they originally expected". Bargh et al. (2000) note in their study that transformational style of leadership has been more broadly applied by vice-chancellors. Sergiovani (1990, p.26), illustrates that a transformational leader can develop in an educational institution "a new identity built upon a sense of purpose and shared values". The transformational leadership style in an institution tends to be effective for encouraging academics to continuously perform and be committed beyond all expectation (Sergiovani, 1990).

In line with Burns' (1978) transformational leadership theory and the supporting literature, the present research further discusses how the four characteristics of transformational leaders can influence internal branding activities and employee brand support in the following section.

Idealisation influence characteristic or charisma: As discussed in the previous chapter, the type of leadership which tends to be most effective in influencing employees' brand support behaviour is transformational leadership (Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Morhart et al., 2009). The qualitative study conducted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) finds that interviewees mentioned '*charisma* (or *idealisation influenc*e)' and *'inspiration motivation'* leadership characteristics as success factors for internal branding. Insights from social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) may explain this phenomenon. Social learning theory can clarify human behaviour in terms of "a continuous reciprocal interaction among cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants" (Latham & Saari, 1979, p.1). Social learning theory is based on behaviourism and likely to fill many of the gaps in an account of sophisticated human learning. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) argues that people learn new attitudes and behaviour by observing the behaviour of other people, such preceding behaviour being a source of learning. As Bandura explains (1977, p.23):

> "Most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action because if people can learn from example what to do, at least in approximate form, before performing any behaviour, they are spared needless errors"

The process of learning through modelling is an important part of social learning theory. Based on the approach to leadership in this theory, "organisational leaders typically have a unique opportunity to influence employees through modelling" (Sims & Manz, 1982, p.56). In line with the social learning analysis of behaviour, when people evaluate the reliability of their reasoning before they behave/do not behave in a certain manner, they often apply a certain rule of assumption (Decker, 1982). The rules of assumption which people acquire are supported not only by information gained from direct experience of the effects of their own actions, but also by the explicit experience of observing the effects of someone else's actions and of the judgements voiced by others (Decker, 1982). The leaders or managers can, therefore, develop their followers' behaviours by presenting themselves as a model and being perceived as an expert (Decker, 1982).

Regarding internal branding, Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p.292) state that "employees will only take internal branding efforts seriously if they are supported by the CEO's words and actions." Therefore, the characteristic of charisma, which is ascribed to leaders who act as strong role models for their followers, could influence brand support from employees.

Inspiration motivation characteristic: Apart from being a key role model (the characteristic of idealistic influence), a transformational leader communicates high expectations to his/her followers of what they could and should do (the characteristic of inspiration motivation). A leader with the characteristic traits to inspire and motivate will demonstrate to followers an appealing image of what they might do.

In line with the social learning theory, Bandura (1977, p.18) states that "anticipatory capacities enable humans to be motivated by prospective consequences. .... By representing foreseeable outcomes symbolically, people can convert future consequences into current motivators of behaviour". Therefore, actions are likely to be under anticipatory control. According to Bandura (1977), anticipatory control is seen as a type of incentive function which is very useful in increasing the possibility of behaviour change in humans. A leader can bring future consequences to bear on current behaviour by anticipatory thought which encourages future-focused behaviour because it is a way of providing both a stimulus for appropriate action and sustaining incentives (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, a leader with the characteristic of inspiration motivation is likely to influence the employees' behaviour in support of the brand.

Intellectual stimulation characteristic: As discussed earlier, the qualitative study conducted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) finds that the characteristics 'charisma' and 'inspiration' were spontaneously included several times in their interviews as success factors for internal branding, while the 'intellectual stimulation characteristic and individual consideration characteristic' were not mentioned.

In order to connect the characteristics of 'intellectual stimulation' and 'individual consideration' of leaders with employee brand support in universities, Lewin's field theory (1947), the classical theory of social change, should be employed. Lewin's field theory is perceived as a top-down approach to change management [6](Dawson, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992). According to Lewin (1947, p.200), a social field is an "ecological setting", of "coexisting social entities, such as groups, subgroups, members, barriers, [and] channels of communication". A group's resistance to change is largely internal **(**Lewin, 1947). The resistances are outcomes of "the well-established social habits that are grounded in the social value of the individuals who make up the group" **(**Lewin, 1947 cited in Ho, 2000, p.33). For this reason, in order to facilitate change, it is argued

[6] A successful change has three main aspects: 1) Unfreezing; 2) Moving; 3 Freezing (Lewin, 1947).

that organisational leaders need forces to 'unfreeze' the original values and habits – to challenge and weaken their power and influence (Lewin, 1947 cited in Ho, 2000, p.33). Therefore, it is likely that a leader with the characteristic of intellectual stimulation is needed, because he/she stimulates followers to challenge their own beliefs and values, together with those of the leaders and even the organisations, in order to be innovative and creative (Northouse, 2004).

Straker (2008) states that unfreezing is a stage where people are taken from a position of being not ready to change, to being ready and willing to change, while Ho (2000, p.33) suggests that unfreezing is "a process of clearing up the pre-existing prejudice". Lewin (1947, p.229) notes that "to break open the shell of complacency and self-righteousness, it is sometime necessary to bring about deliberately an emotional stir-up". Hence unfreezing is about undermining and striking at the foundations of the original values and habits (Lewin, 1947; Parchoma, 2006). Therefore, a leader with the characteristic of intellectual stimulation is important, because he/she usually encourages followers to think about old problems in new ways (Northouse, 2004).

When followers are encouraged to think, they seek a context in which they have relative safety and feel a sense of control, in line with basic human tendencies (Straker, 2008). In establishing themselves, the followers attach their sense of identity to their environment. This will, therefore, create a comfortable stasis compared with any alternative. In addition, it is noted that employees who are given more freedom seem to commit themselves more to the brand than those without freedom (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). This pattern matches the intellectual stimulation characteristic. Hence, with this characteristic, a leader of academic staff is likely to affect the brand support of these staff. This is because he/she allows academic staff to establish themselves in the institution/department, thus building up the academic staff to a state where they can deliver the brand promises in a natural and comfortable way.

Individual consideration characteristic: Apart from 'unfreezing', in order to facilitate change, Lewin (1947) argues that an organisational leader needs to identify and evaluate the relative strengths of forces within a social field, consider the available options and initiate incremental change, called 'moving'. This is the stage where new beliefs, attitudes, values and habits are built (Parchoma, 2006). In this process, a leader who provides followers with some form of advising, counselling or other psychological support is often very helpful (Straker, 2008). In regards to the characteristics of transformational leadership, it seems that the leadership characteristic of individual consideration is also needed. This is when a leader provides a supportive climate in which he/she listens carefully to the individual needs of followers and acts as an adviser trying to assist specific ways of working (Northouse, 2004). A leader with individual consideration characteristic will also help followers to develop themselves, know how well he/she thinks they are doing and gives personal attention to followers who seem to be rejected (Northouse, 2004). In order to change humans' behaviour, psychological support is vital (Straker, 2008). Psychological support is very helpful for reinforcing the willingness of employees to behave with regard to the roles which their organisation expects of them (Straker, 2008). Podsakoff et al. (1996, p.290) put it this way: "employees who perceive their leaders to provide individualised support generally trust their leaders more and are better sports, more satisfied, productive, altruistic, conscientious, courteous, experience more role clarity and less role conflict and exhibit more civic virtue, than are employees who perceive their leaders to provide less support".

In addition, regarding the informal control mechanism which can be characterised by personal interaction between leaders and other employees (Jaworski, 1988; Henkel et al., 2007), it is likely that the individual consideration characteristic of leadership which is found in leaders who provide a supportive climate and act as advisers trying to assist specific ways of working (Northouse, 2004) is important in endorsing employee brand support behaviour within the organisation. Furthermore, the qualitative research on internal branding conducted by Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005) shows that leaders encourage employees' brand support behaviour by facilitating social interaction through verbal and non-verbal communications. Hence, leaders with the characteristic of individual consideration are likely to affect employee brand support.

The discussion above points to the possible ways in which transformational leaders can influence employee brand support. However, multiple leaders can be found in a higher educational institution. This research focuses on the immediate leaders of academic staff, in order to understand the relationship between their transformational characteristics and the brand support of their academic staff. This is because the immediate leaders "[are] a central source of information related to job and organisation ... and [are] pivotal in the newcomer's ability to negotiate his or her role" (Jablin, 2001, p.778). In addition, as presented in the previous section, good immediate leaders can energise employees to work hard and be committed to their jobs (Tronc, 1970; Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001); while poor immediate leaders can equally exert a negative influence, causing employees to be depressed and leave (Jablin, 2001). Therefore, it can be inferred that, with transformational leadership characteristics, academic staff's immediate leaders may directly create brand support among academic staff. Taking into account the explanations above, it is proposed that:

> *H4: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to employee brand support.*

Additionally, leaders in an institution may act as a manager, as well as an academic leader, who therefore is responsible for academic staff management within the department (Jarrett Report, 1985, cited in Barry et al., 2001, p.89). Besides, from the marketing and communication based perspective, the task of management is to formulate the brand values and communicate them to the employees (Karmark, 2005). Judson et al. (2006) note that leaders within the institution influence internal branding. Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) also support that leaders manipulate internal branding by transferring corporate brand to internal and external stakeholders through corporate communication activities. Therefore, a transformational leader may initiate and/or facilitate internal branding activities. Hence, the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader tend to be positively related to the level of brand-centred training activities and internal brand communications activities. Thus, the relationships between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and internal branding activities in universities are proposed as follows:

H5: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.

H6: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to internal brand communications.

3.3 Mediating effects on the relationships between internal branding activities and employee brand support in universities

The previous sections propose that the factors of 1) internal brand communications, 2) brand-centred training and development activities and 3) the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are antecedent factors of employee brand support. Additionally, the relationships between the studied antecedent factors are also proposed. In accordance with the aims of this thesis, the underlying mechanisms of the relationship between employee brand support and the antecedent factors of interest are discussed and examined in this section.

The proposed relationships presented in the previous sections point to the possibility that brand-centred training and development activities factor and internal brand communications factor may also function as mediators in the proposed model. The following sections discuss the possible mediating effects of the internal branding factors on the proposed relationships in the model. The proposed relationships of the mediation effects are then hypothesised**.**

3.3.1 A mediating effect of brand-centred training and development activities on the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support:

The proposed relationships between brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and employee brand support indicate the possibility that the factor of brand-centred training and development activities is likely to be a mediator of the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support. That is, internal brand communication activities may partly affect employee brand support through the effect of the brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support.

Based on the types of formal control (Ouchi, 1978; Jaworski, 1988), internal brand communications can be seen as input control activities, which are used by organisations to communicate their brand messages, for example, performance standards, organisational goals, mission and vision statements and/or values, without specifying the process. As a result, employees lack details of the hows and whys of brand delivery. Therefore, they may be confused or misinterpret the messages. Zeithaml et al. (1988, p.43) state that "when employees do not have the information necessary to perform their jobs adequately, they experience ambiguity". Consequently, they may behave in ways inconsistent with the best interest of the organisation (Jaworski, 1988). The training and development activities, on the other hand, are types of formal control (input control, process control and output control) which focus on behaviour, actions and/or activities, as well as end results (Jaworski, 1988). Therefore, employees will be in a position to be effective brand supporters, because they will understand the hows and whys of brand delivery by attending brand-centred training and development programmes. However, the brand messages which employees perceive from the internal brand communication activities can enhance their understanding of the brand messages and values which training and development activities communicate.

As stated earlier, for employees to behave in alignment with the organisation's values, they need some initial information about the organisation's values. Internal brand communication activities will help employees to better understand the values attached to the brand centred-training and development activities, thereby creating employee brand support. In other words, the effect of internal brand communications on employee brand support may partly present itself through the effect of the brand-centred training and development activities on this support. Hence, brand-centred training and development is likely to function as a partial mediator on the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support. According to the discussion above, the relevant underlying mechanisms of the relationship between the internal branding factors (internal brand communication activities factor, brand-centred training and development activities factor) and employee brand support are proposed as follows:

H7: The relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.

3.3.2 Mediating effects of internal branding aspects on the relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader and employee brand support

It is agreed that the transformational leaders not only directly affect employee brand support, but also influence and/or initiate internal branding activities, thereby creating employee brand support (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006). By this means, the effects of transformational leaders on employee brand support are partly presented through the effects of the brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications on employee brand support.

In an educational administration context, according to Jordan (1973, p.3), leadership concerns "the shaping of present actions in terms of what the system might become in the future, thereby guaranteeing that the institution or system itself makes a perpetual 'creative advance into novelty,' and releases its potentialities as a system, or 'collectivity' ". In short, the task of leadership is to establish 'novelty' and 'change' by shaping the present institution's actions in such a way as to enable new actions to be created in the future (Jordan, 1973). In addition, as discussed earlier, leaders in an institution may not only act as an academic leader, but also act as act as a manager who is responsible for communication activities within the department (Jarrett Report, 1985, cited in Barry et al., 2001, p.89). Furthermore, with regard to internal brand building, according to their study, leaders exhibiting leadership skills are those:

> "who adopt a holistic understanding of the corporate brand, considering it as the total sum of the organisational signs that are transferred to its audiences: through the core values for which the organisation stands, the behaviour of employees, all symbolic representations regarding graphic designs and finally, via all corporate communication for internal and external stakeholders" (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006, p.775).

The discussion above signifies the fact that a transformational leader may initiate and/or facilitate internal branding activities; thereby creating employee brand support. In other words, the transformational leaders may partly affect employee brand support through the impact of internal branding activities which are created by the leaders. This therefore points to the possibility that the internal branding factors (i.e. that of brand-centred training and development activities and that of internal brand communications) are likely to mediate the relationship between the factor of the transformational leadership characteristic possessed by the academic staff's immediate leader and employee brand support. According to the discussion above, the relevant underlying mechanisms of the relationship between employee brand support and its antecedent factors are proposed as follows:

> *H8: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.*

> *H9: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by internal brand communications.*

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, a conceptual framework and set of hypotheses based on the research questions (see Table 3.2, overleaf) are discussed and developed. As depicted in Figure

3.1, it is proposed that, in higher education institutions, internal branding and transformational immediate leaders lead to brand support from academic staff, who is an important resource of educational institutions. However, the proposed conceptual framework also suggests that a relationship between internal branding and employee brand support may not be straightforward.

Table 3.2: List of research hypotheses based on research questions

Research questions	Hypotheses
RQ1) What is the relationship, if any, between internal branding activities (i.e., 1. brand-centred training and development activities; and 2. internal brand communications) and employee brand support?	H1: Brand-centred training and development activities are positively related to employee brand support.
	H2: Internal brand communications are positively related to employee brand support.
RQ2) Are the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader determinants of employee brand support?	H4: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to employee brand support.
RQ3) Is the impact of internal branding and leadership characteristics on employee brand support direct? In other words, are there any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between internal branding activities, employee brand support and leadership characteristics?	H3: Internal brand communications are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.
	H7: The relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.
	H5: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.
	H6: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to internal brand communications.
	H8: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.
	H9: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by internal brand communications.

Source: developed by the researcher for the study

There are three hypothesised mediating effects in the framework. First, it is proposed that the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities. Second, it is proposed that the relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by the brand-centred training and development activities. Third, it is proposed that the relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by the internal brand communications.

In the next chapter, the research methodology employed for testing the hypotheses and answering the research questions is elaborated. Additionally, the research design, including the research setting and development of the measurement scales is also discussed. In the section regarding the development of measurement scales, the outcomes of a literature search, semi-structured interviews and a pilot study is reviewed in detail . Following this, the data collection process for the main survey is presented before highlighting and explaining some issues concerning the data analysis.

Chapter 4 Methodology and Research Design

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapters reviewed the available literature and showed the development of a conceptual framework; this chapter goes on to outline the methodological foundations, philosophical stance, research strategies and design of the present study in terms of data collection, as well as the methods and process of developing the scale. In this chapter, the research methodology and choice of method, including the philosophical foundation of the research, are briefly reviewed. In addition, the chapter discusses qualitative and quantitative methods as general approaches to the construction of theory. The research design, including the research setting and unit of analysis, is described before the development of the scale and the validation of the method. In the part on the development of measurement scales, the processes and outcomes of a literature search, semi-structured interviews and a pilot study are reviewed in detail. Finally, the data collection process for the main survey and issues regarding data analysis techniques are presented.

4.2 Research methodology and method selection

In order to develop research, Crotty (1998) suggests two questions for researchers to answer at the outset: 1) what methodologies and methods will be employed in the research; and 2) what justification does this choice of methodologies and methods have? Generally, researchers use the terms ‘research methodology’ and ‘research method’ interchangeably. However, research method refers to “the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data related to some research question or hypothesis” (Crotty, 1998, p.3). In social research, the research method is a technique used for identifying research questions, collecting and analysing data and presenting research findings (Payne & Payne, 2006). Methodology, for its part, is “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes" (Crotty, 1998, p.3). The research methodology is employed to "indicate a set of conceptual and philosophical assumptions that justify the use of particular methods" (Payne & Payne, 2006, p.148). The philosophical foundation of the research must justify the choices of research methodologies and methods.

4.2.1 Philosophical foundation of the research

Crotty (1998) argued that the philosophical foundation of a piece of research sheds light on the research methodology. The presentation of this philosophical assumptions is important as it helps researchers to explain why they have chosen a particular research methodology or method which are shaped by the researcher's assumptions about the knowledge acquisition of a piece of research, or its 'knowledge claims': 'Knowledge claims', according to Crotty (1998), are assumptions about what a researcher will learn during her/his investigation. Some examples of these claims are: (1) 'paradigm'; (2) 'epistemology'; and (3) 'ontology' (Denscombe, 2002; Creswell, Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003). The 'paradigm' is "a set of assumptions consisting of agreed upon knowledge, criteria of judgement, problem fields and the way to consider them" (Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.136; see also Deshpande, 1983; Burrell & Morgan, 1992). In addition, researchers generally make claims about *what knowledge is*, in other words 'research epistemology'; and *how they know it,* also known as 'ontology' (Crotty 1998). Although several assumptions are possible concerning 'knowledge claims' (Creswell et al., 2003), the two perspectives which have been most used in marketing and social research context are: *positivism* and *interpretivism* (Hussey & Hussey, 1997 cited in Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.139; Crotty, 1998; Corbetta, 2003).

Malhotra and Birks (2003) state that positivism is "a philosophy of language and logic consistent with an empiricist philosophy of science" in other words, the positivist position is based upon the school of thought that the study of human behaviours and social phenomena should aim to be scientific. Hence researchers adopting a positivist position will select a framework similar to those found in natural sciences when explaining a particular phenomenon (Payne & Payne, 2006; Malhotra & Birks, 2003).

Therefore, by testing assumptions in relation to the evidence or findings of the study, theories can be refined and enriched through the processes that allows for an objective conclusion to be extrapolated from reality.

Interpretivism, in contrast, stresses "the dynamic, respondent-constructed position about the evolving nature of reality, recognising that there may be a wide array of interpretations of reality or social acts" (Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.193). Therefore, the meaning of an individual's behaviour needs to be elicited through interactions by using observation and questions to suit individual respondents (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). In order to build an understanding of interpretivism, more detail about the differences between the characteristic features of positivism and interpretivism is presented in Table 4.1. The perspective of both epistemologies implies a philosophical difference in the ways of researching and of presenting the research outcome. Table 4.2 presents some ways of describing these paradigms.

Table 4.1: Paradigm features

Issue	**Positivist**	**Interpretist**
Reality	Objective and singular	Subjective and multiple
Relationship of research and respondent	Independent of each other	Interacting with each other
Values	Value-free= unbiased	Value-laden=biased
Researcher language	Formal and impersonal	Informal and personal
Researcher/research design	Simple determinist Cause and effect Static research design Context-free Laboratory Prediction and control Reliability and validity Representative surveys Experimental design Deductive	With free will Multiple influences Evolving design Context-bound Field/ethnography Understanding and insight Perceptive decision-making Theoretical sampling Case studies Inductive

Source: Creswell (1994 cited in Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.139)

Table 4.2: Alternative paradigm names

Positivist	**Interpretivist**
Quantitative	Qualitative
Objectivist	Subjectivist
Scientific	Humanistic
Experimentalist	Phenomenological
Traditionalist	Revolutionist

Source: Hussey and Hussey (1997 cited in Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.138)

In addition, researchers often build and test theories using the following approaches: 1) the deductive approach; and 2) the inductive approach. While the positivists seek to establish the legitimacy of their approach through deduction, the interpretivists seek to establish the legitimacy of their approach through induction (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). In the deductive approach, researchers begin by identifying an area of enquiry, set in the context of a well-developed theory and then move towards concrete empirical evidence. In the inductive approach, in contrast, researchers begin by identifying an area of enquiry but with little theoretical framework and move towards more abstract generalisations and ideas (Malhotra & Birks, 2003; Neuman, 2003). Researchers taking the inductive perspective develop their theory on the basis of the combination of events which they have observed (Malhotra & Birks, 2003).

The deductive approach is employed in this study. By employing the deductive approach, the researcher seeks to incrementally develop existing theory, by testing it in a new context (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). In addition, the researcher tests the theory by accepting or rejecting hypotheses (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Besides, this research is also based on positivism, which relies on empirical data that can be observed and measured (Malhotra & Birks, 2003), so that various components can be compared for relative frequency. Nevertheless, from the positivist perspective, qualitative methods can be applied in the initial stages of research in order to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of the research problem and also to improve the primary research model and hypotheses (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Therefore, by employing a mixed method approach, with a quantitative basis but using some qualitative techniques in the early stages of the research, it is possible to generate law-like regularities which can later be generalised to broader situations.

According to Corbetta (2003), the process of this research tends to be related to the *post-positivist* perspective. The post-positivist and positivist perspectives are similar in that they both believe in an autonomous social reality (Corbetta, 2003). Both perspectives seek to clarify and foresee what occurs in this social reality (Burrell & Morgan, 1992; Corbetta, 2003). However, post-positivist researchers argue that social reality is predictable only in an imperfect and problematic manner (Corbetta, 2003).

From the post-positivist perspective, some qualitative techniques need to be employed as a minor part of the research, because it seeks to explain not only what happens in social reality, but also ‘how and why’ differences occur between individuals/things in this social reality (Thomas & Brubaker, 2000)

To conclude, taking the positivist’s perspective, this research is conducted in order to verify the model hypothesised in Chapter 3, as well as to explain the relationships between internal branding in universities, employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristic of immediate leaders, together with the generative mechanism underlying such relationships. By employing research methods from the natural sciences (e.g., correlation analysis and hypotheses testing), this investigation is expected to provide results which can be used to identify regularities, which in turn can be generalised to broader fields.

4.2.2 Mixed-methods research

In the previous section, a philosophy of social research has been discussed. It can be concluded that, the approach which is used by a researcher to construct theories depends on the researcher’s perceptions about the social world. Based on the philosophical foundation of this research, the key methodology employed in this research is qualitative/quantitative – what Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) call ‘Mixed methods’.

A mixed methodology is applied as the research strategy to incorporate both qualitative and quantitative strategies within a single study (Morse, 2003). This approach to social research is widely applied (Smith, 1983; Payne & Payne, 2006; Bryman, 2006). Although mixed methodology research is variously defined by several authors (e.g., Morse, 2003; Newman, Ridenour, Newman and deMarco, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), there is strong agreement that mixed methodology research involves both qualitative and quantitative study (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007).

As mentioned above, the research epistemology and methodology direct the choice of research methods. While a quantitative approach can be argued to correspond to positivism, a qualitative approach is likely to correspond to interpretivism (Crotty, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003; Deshpande, 1983). Qualitative approaches are specifically related to "how ordinary people observe and describe their lives" (Siverman, 1993, p.170). Where an individual may present a superficial explanation of events to themselves and to others, qualitative methods dig deeper and penetrate the superficial (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). These methods can gain access to individuals' subconscious and/or unconscious levels in order to understand and capture the nuances of individuals' behaviours (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Qualitative techniques consist of, for example, participant observation, informal interviews and formal interviews (Malhotra & Birks, 2003; Morse, 2003). Qualitative approaches do not rely on representative sampling; the findings are usually based on a single case or only a few cases (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Qualitative researchers try to understand the meaning of an individual's behaviour, rather than to explain any regularity or statistical patterns (Malhotra & Birks, 2003; Payne & Payne, 2006).

Quantitative researchers, in contrast, seek "regularities in human lives by separating the social world into empirical components called variables which can be represented numerically as frequencies or rate, whose associations with each other can be explored by statistical techniques and accessed through researchers' introducing stimuli and systematic measurement" (Payne & Payne, 2006, p.180). In general, quantitative techniques include questionnaire surveys and quantitative observation techniques, for example, recording and counting the behavioural patterns of people, objects and events systematically to obtain information about the phenomena of interest (Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.766). For more details about the differences between the quantitative approaches and qualitative approaches, a comparison between important aspects of the qualitative and quantitative approaches is presented in Table 4.3(overleaf).

Table 4.3: Comparison between qualitative and quantitative approach

	Quantitative Research	**Qualitative Research**
Purpose	Deductive: verification and outcome oriented Precise measurement and comparison of variables Establishing relationships between variables Interface from sample to population	Inductive: discovery and process oriented Meaning Context Process Discovering unanticipated events, influences and conditions Inductive development of theory
Research questions	Variance questions Truth of proposition Presence or absence Degree or amount Correlation Hypothesis testing Causality (factual)	Process questions How and Why Meaning Context (holistic) Hypotheses as part of conceptual framework Causality (physical)
Research methods		
Relationship	Objectivity/ reduction of influence (research as an extraneous variable)	Use of influence as a tool for understanding (research as part of process)
Sampling	Probability sampling Establishing valid comparisons	Purposeful sampling
Data collection	Measures tend to be objective Prior development of instruments Standardisation Measurement/testing-quantitative/categorical	Measures tend to be subjective Inductive development of strategies Adapting to particular situation Collection of textual or visual material
Data analysis	Numerical descriptive analysis (statistics, correlation) Estimation of population variables Statistical hypothesis testing Conversion of textual data into numbers or categories	Textual analysis (memos, coding, connecting) Grounded theory Narrative approaches
Reliability/Validity	Reliable Technology as instrument (the evaluator is removed from the data)	Valid Self as instrument (the evaluator is close to the data)
Gerneralisability	Generalisable The outsider's perspective Population oriented	Ungeneralisable The insider's perspective Case oriented

Source: Maxwell and Loomis (2003) and Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird and McCormick (1992)

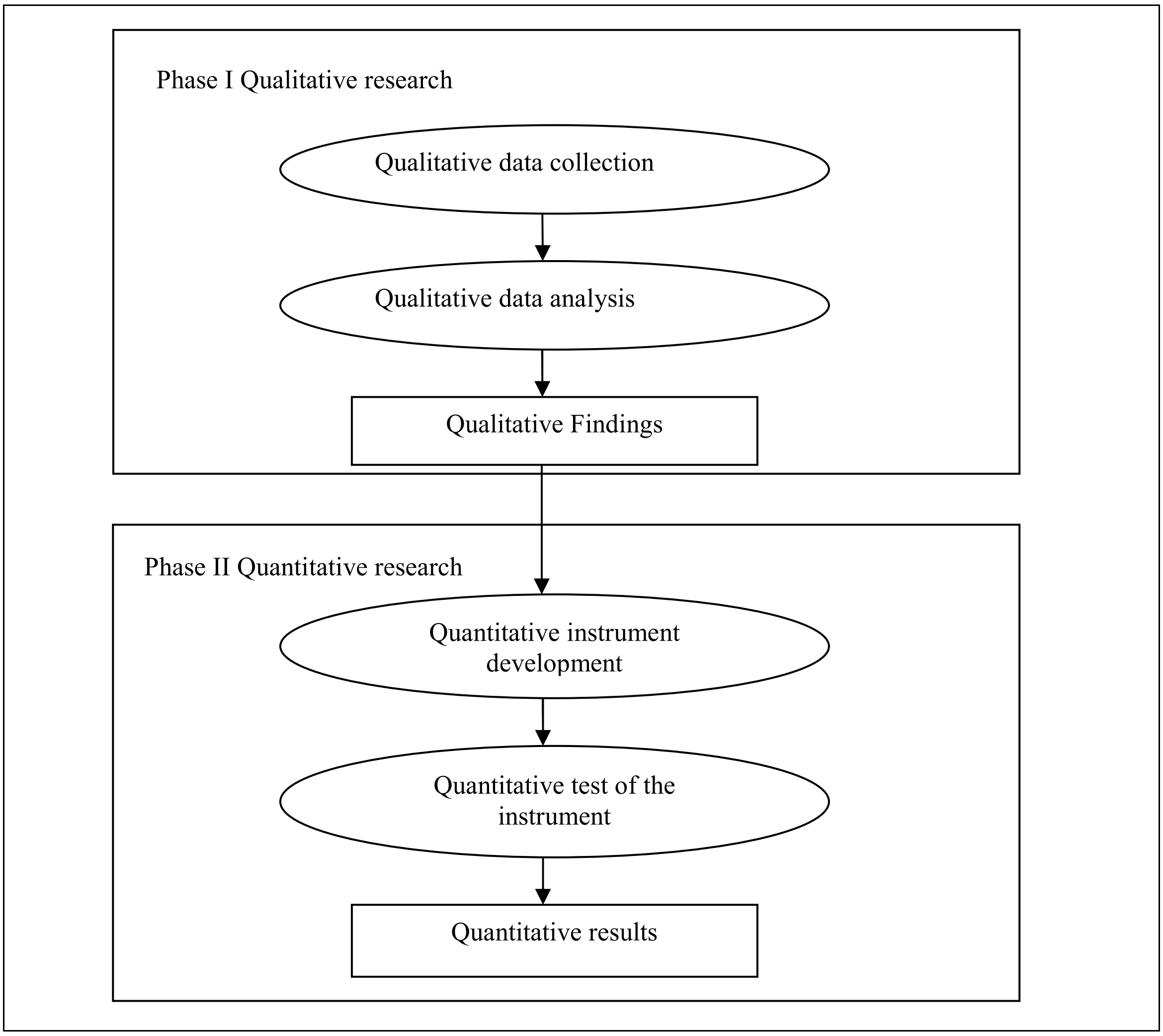
There are, then, great differences between the quantitative and qualitative approaches to studying and understanding respondents' behaviours (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). The quantitative approaches are based on the philosophical assumption that social processes exist outside the individual's comprehension, whereas the qualitative approaches are based on considering the individual as part of an overarching social process. Quantitative studies concentrate on testing theoretical hypotheses and generalise the results to a broader population, while qualitative studies focus on the details of social interaction and the specificity of the reality which social actors generate (Corbetta, 2003).

Quantitative approaches and qualitative approaches have different strengths and weaknesses. For example, quantitative methods are unlikely to be sensitive enough to capture the nuances of respondents' attitudes and behaviours (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). In addition, quantitative methods tend to be very poor at tapping the subjective dimension of behaviour (Marsh, 1982). Conversely, qualitative methods are vulnerable because the methods are unlikely to give objectively valid findings (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Qualitative approaches tend to ignore representative sampling since their findings are based on a single case or only a few cases (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Qualitative methods are argued to be "unscientific and a-theoretical ..., open to subjective bias by the individual researcher ... and not open to inspection or replication" (Payne & Payne, 2006, p.177).

To address these issues, several authors suggest that qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complementary and could be used together in a research project (e.g., Baker, 2001; Teddlie & Tashakkori , 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2003; Payne & Payne, 2006). In order to draw from the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of both methods in a single research study, mixed methods were employed in the present research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). However, in regards to the stance of the positivists and the discussion about mixed methodological issues, this study mainly employed the quantitative method, in particular a self-administered questionnaire survey, to investigate the relationship between employee brand support, brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff members' immediate leader from the academic staff's perspective. Qualitative research was conducted at first in order to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of the research problem and the concepts of interest (Malhotra & Birks, 2003) and to generate additional measurements by which to develop the questionnaire for the main survey (Churchill, 1979; Steckler el al., 1992; Creswell et al., 2003). The qualitative tool used in the study was semi-structured interviews. The qualitative research was conducted in the hope that the information acquired during the interviews would give the researcher not only a better understanding of the research phenomenon, but also additional measurement items regarding the research setting.

This form of research design can be named 'sequential explanatory design' (Creswell et al., 2003). The main approach here is quantitative, while the subordinate method is qualitative. This is particularly similar to an example given by Creswell et al. (2003) where the main approach was a quantitative study based on testing a theory but with a short qualitative interview component in the data collection phase (see Figure 4.1, overleaf). A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods allows for the construction of more sensitive survey instruments as well as a better and broader understanding of the phenomenon of interest (Creswell et al., 2003). In addition, it helps to avoid the risk if bias in the qualitative research and supplies more information to the quantitative part of the overall research (Baker, 2001)

Figure 4.1: Mixed methods procedures



Source: Creswell et al. (2003, p.235)

4.3 Research design

The foregoing sections presented the philosophy and the methodological issues of this research. This section presents the design which guides the collection of research data (Churchill, 1996) and discusses the research setting and unit of analysis of this study.

4.3.1 Research setting

In order to assess the generalisability of the findings, it is vital to discuss the context in which a piece of research has been conducted, so as to define the conditions and set boundaries for the encompassing theories (Whetten, 1989). As presented in Chapter 2, the studies on internal branding have mainly been conducted in Western countries, the developed ones e.g., the USA and the UK above all. Only a very small number of studies have focused on internal branding in non-Western countries (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011). In consequence, the generalisability of the theory has been limited. In addition, it appears that very few studies concentrate on internal branding in a university context. Thus, we still know very little about university internal branding, notably in a non-Western context.

Yet, in spite of the limited evidence about internal branding and its effect on employees' behaviour in a non-Western context, it is likely that internal branding activities are increasingly operating in non-Western organisations, most of all in emerging markets and developing countries, e.g., Thailand (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007, 2011). A single area of work – in this research, Thai business schools – is held to provide studies with better control over market and environmental differences than a survey of several areas (Conant et al., 1990); hence, the present data were gathered from 1) in-depth interviews; 2) a pilot study; and 3) a main survey in this area alone.

In emerging markets, the universities are increasingly recognising the importance of corporate branding which emphasises on the roles of employees in the brand building process (Istileulova, 2010). Furthermore, the universities in such emerging markets as Asia, gradually become attractive to the research centres of multinational companies (Lohr, 2006). These companies usually want to foster close links with universities in emerging markets, in order to work with universities' academic staff and be the first to hire promising graduates (Lohr, 2006). If the universities are to attract those multinational companies in today's competitive situation, like other service providers (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007), the universities need to develop their brand and their employees' performance into something more distinctive than that of other competitors. Internal branding should, therefore, be applied to encourage employees' understanding and incorporating of brand values into their work activities (Judson et al., 2006; Whisman, 2009).

However, applying the Western developed concept in a non-Western context may raise question about the applicability of the theory. This is because most theoretical models which are used to predict the effect of internal branding are based on assumptions about employees' behaviour in Western countries, whereas most of the employees in non-Western countries do not meet these assumptions. Non-Western countries may exhibit some unique characteristics which differ from those in Western countries. These conditions may alter the outcomes of internal branding activities when they operate in universities in a non-Western context. For example, the culture of Thailand, the setting of this study, is obviously very different from Western culture. The values and norms of Thai employees are firmly rooted in Buddhism (Hofstede, 1984), unlike people in Western countries, where the culture is mainly Catholic or Protestant Christian. In addition, according to Hofstede's study of IBM's organisational culture in different countries, the results show that Thailand, like other Asian countries, has a higher score for power distance than the developed Western counties or indeed Western countries as a whole (Hofstede, 1984). These results demonstrate that Thai employees tend to preserve higher inequity between people, society and organisations than those in the developed countries of the West. Moreover, in organisations, inequity is likely to be formed in hierarchical boss-subordinate relationships (Hofstede, 1984). Furthermore, Thai employees have a much higher score for uncertainty avoidance than those in Western countries (House et al., 2004). This means that Thai employees have a lower tolerance of ambiguity than Western employees. In essence, if they are offered a better sense of security, they tend to be less emotionally resistant to change. Besides, employees with a high score of uncertainty avoidance are likely to prefer their job requirements and instructions to be spelled out in detail, letting them know what they are expected to do (House et al., 2004). In addition, Thailand has a very low score for individualism compared to the developed countries (Hofstede, 1984). This means that group decisions are considered better than individual decisions (Hofstede, 1984). Moreover, Thai employees tend to have strong emotional dependence on their company (Hofstede, 1984). These conditions may affect the outcomes of internal branding activities.

Moreover, adopting the model from other service sectors to a university context can be a challenge. Academic staff in university may have some characteristics which are not the same as those in employees of other business sectors. For example, Baker and Balmer (1997, p.367) note that academic staff are, "by definition, experts in their own right and so consider that they are the best judge of how to fulfil this role". This characteristic may alter the outcomes of internal branding activities when it operates in universities.

The business schools of Thai universities in particular were selected as the setting for this research. Business schools tend to be ahead of other academic schools in regard to corporate branding activities (Melewar & Akel, 2005; Istileulova, 2010). In addition, it appears that business schools tend to recognise the importance of corporate branding, in which employees are perceived as part of the brand building (Istileulova, 2010). As introduced in Chapter 1, according to Balmer and Liao (2007), business schools also communicate brand messages within themselves, thus implying that the academic staff of business schools tend to have experience in receiving brand messages from these schools. They are, therefore, expected to be able to provide information about the concepts under review. In addition, the higher education institutions in Thailand have been facing a change in government policies (Sangnapaboworn, 2003; Sinlarat, 2005), which encourage competition in the higher education market (Tooley et al., 2003; Adcroft et al., 2010). Besides, the Thai government has also increasingly recognised the importance of academic staff as strategic tools for these improvements (CHE, 2009). By conducting this research in Thailand, the researcher expects to reveal significant managerial and policy implications for Thai higher education institutions and the Thai government. More information on the details of the situation of higher education institutions in Thailand can be found in Section 4.3.2 The situation of higher education institutions in Thailand.

The discussion above points to the fact that the study of internal branding is overdue for those who want a fuller understanding of the effect of internal branding in universities on employees' behaviour in non-Western settings and in emerging markets. This study, therefore, seeks to shed light on internal branding in a non-Western setting and specifically focuses on its relationship to employee brand support and transformational leaders in universities. Conducting research in all non-Western settings can be a challenge; however, Thailand, a country in Southeast Asia and one of the top 10 emerging markets in the world (MCWW, 2008), was selected as the setting for this study. The characteristics of non-Western countries are relatively diverse, but, as discussed above, Thai culture is obviously different from that of Western countries and at the same time has features in common with other non-Western countries. For example, as discussed above, Thailand, like other Asian countries, has a much higher score of uncertainty avoidance than the developed Western counties or indeed Western countries as a whole (Hofstede, 1984). The study of 'Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness' conducted by House et al. (2004) also shows that a high level of uncertainty avoidance is found in employees in non-Western countries, e.g., Asia (Iran, China, Taiwan, Indonesia, the Philippines or Thailand) and Africa (Egypt, Morocco, Nigeria, Namibia). Therefore, Thailand could in fact represent most emerging markets in a non-Western context.

To conclude, this study is conducted in Thai business schools with a view to investigating the relationships between internal branding activities and brand support behaviour from academic staff, together with their underlying mechanisms (the mediating effects of the internal branding factors). Conducting this research in Thailand, a non-Western country, can therefore test the validity and applicability of theories developed in the West (e.g., Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Peng et al., 1991). Furthermore, by adding alternative insights to views in higher education on the possible relationships between the studied concepts in a non-Western context; this research is expected to have significant managerial implications for higher education in developing countries and emerging markets in Asia and for other non-Western countries, not least Thailand. As stated above, the higher education institutions in Thailand have recently faced changes in government policy meant to encourage competition in the higher education market. Thus, the findings of this research are also expected to provide Thai higher education institutions with managerial suggestions for improving academic staff performance. In the next section, the situation of higher education institutions in Thailand is reviewed for the sake of a clearer understanding about the research setting.

4.3.2 Situation of higher education in Thailand

Thailand has constantly increased its demand for higher education (Sangnapaboworn, 2003). The presence of a large number of foreign students in Thai higher education institutions is evidence that the Thai higher education system has been widely accepted in Asia, notably Southeast Asia (CHE, 2009). However, higher education institutions in Thailand are increasingly dealing with significant financial pressure and therefore face an uncertain future (Sangnapaboworn, 2003).

The institutions in Thailand receive financial support from the government, such as human resource development loan funds and student loan funds (Sangnapaboworn, 2003; Sinlarat, 2005). But the new public management approach has resulted in reduced financial support from the Thai government for higher education (Sangnapaboworn, 2003), in order to inspire and encourage educational institutions to be more market-oriented (Tooley et al., 2003; IRC, 2003). The reduced funding from the government is one of the main reasons why institutions have begun to apply a marketing strategy (Ivy, 2001), because they need to become more aware of marketing and to find alternative revenue streams (Brookes, 2003).

As noted above, in 2006, the Thai government, in the form of the higher education commission, first introduced a ranking table for universities to improve their performances and budget allocations (Salmi & Saroyan, 2007; CHE, 2009). Ranking systems have an impact on helping universities to set their goals for strategic planning and to provide an assessment of their performance, instead of supporting their representation (Hazelkorn, 2007). League tables and ranking systems lead to good opportunities for higher education institutions in Thailand to position themselves in the higher education market. Among the key indicators of university rankings in Thailand, more than fifty per cent are related to academic staff, for instance, the indicators of a teacher's ability to produce research which is published in reputable journals (CHE, 2009). The ranking table influences the way in which institutions encourage employees to deliver the service which the institution brand promises, in order to present a positive image (Salmi & Saroyan, 2007; Hazelkorn, 2007). The institutions in Thailand have created various strategies for allocating and managing their academic staff (Sangnapaboworn, 2003). The goals of institutions are also transferred to the academic staff to help them understand the institution's goals and represent the institution well (Pornchanarak, 2007). This process helps the institution to raise its ranking in certain indicators (e.g., staff qualifications, research quality) (Salmi & Saroyan, 2007).

As universities embrace market approaches, the government allows them more control over their staff, budget and internal organisation (Tooley et al., 2003). This can encourage the universities to develop efficient systems for supporting the self-development of academics. In turn, this increases service quality and efficiency (Tooley et al., 2003). Thai institutions communicate their brand to employees in several ways (Pornchanarak, 2007). They try to improve their brand and image, for example, by encouraging their staff to publish research papers, or by providing scholarships in such developed countries as the UK, USA and Japan to raise academics' levels of education (Sangnapaboworn, 2003; CHE, 2009).

Given the situation of higher education institutions in Thailand and the information on the details of the research setting presented in Section 4.3.1 Research setting, conducting research in this setting should provide an opportunity for the researcher to observe the operation of communication activities and its effects on the academic staff's brand support behaviour. Moreover, since the Thai government has increasingly recognised the importance of academic staff as strategic tools for these improvements (CHE, 2009), this research is also expected to have significant managerial and policy implications for the Thai universities and Thai government to improve the performance of the country's academic staff.

4.3.3 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis is the major entity or object examined in a study (Baker, 1994; Corbetta, 2003). The choice of an appropriate unit of analysis depends on the research objective and the research questions (Baker, 1994). The objective of the present thesis is to examine from the academic staff's perspective the relationships between employee brand support, internal branding in universities and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader, together with the relevant underlying mechanisms (e.g., the mediation effect). Previous research regarding the relationships between internal branding activities and employee brand support (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Aurand et al., 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006; Henkel et al., 2007; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) usually deals with individual-level variables and collects data from individuals. In accordance with the research objective, the appropriate unit of analysis in both qualitative and quantitative studies in this field is sometimes the *individual.*

Collecting data at the individual level means that the relationships between employee brand support and its antecedent factors of interest are measured and analysed by using questionnaires distributed to academic staff. Additionally, in order to develop from the academic staff's perspective the measurement items and to assess the clarity of the studied constructs and the relationships between the constructs in the business schools, the data about all the constructs were first provided by the academic staff of the business schools during the interview process at the early stage of the present study.

With regard to the primary data collection methods for developing measurement items, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed. Apart from using items from the literature, the qualitative method was also employed to generate the measurement items, using semi-structured in-depth interviews with the academic staff of business schools. Afterwards, in a pilot study, quantitative approaches were taken. The measurement items were then purified by performing a reliability test and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). More details of the data collection methods are presented below in this chapter. In the following section, the focus is on the development of a scale and the validation process.

4.3.4 Target population and sampling technique

According to Malhotra and Birks (2003, p.358), researchers must specify the target population of the study in order to define "who should and should not be included in the sample" in terms of the research problems. To specify the target population, the researcher defines 'elements' and 'sampling units' – units containing the elements which are available for selection in the sampling process (Malhotra and Birks, 2003, p.358). As the research questions imply, the Thai university is the sampling unit of this study, while academic staff are the elements. In addition, Malhotra and Birks (2003) advise researchers to determine the sampling frame (the total size of the population[7]), through the use of, for example, the telephone book, a mailing list on a database or an employee database in order to create a list of elements in the target population. Because of data protection, the universities did not allow the researcher to access their employee database. For this reason, the researcher could neither identify nor enumerate the sampling elements. Therefore, probability-based sampling could not be conducted.

Sampling techniques can be divided into two broad categories: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Churchill, 1996). According to Denscombe (2002, p.12), the probability sampling tends to be a superior technique for a survey study because "the resulting sample is likely to provide a representative cross-section of the whole". Moreover, a researcher is able to provide a clear statement regarding "the accuracy and validity of the finding from the survey by referencing to the degree of error and/or bias which may be present in it as measured by well understood statistical methods" (Baker, 2002, p.106). In a probability sampling method, "each member of the population has a known, nonzero chance of being included in the sample. The chance of each member of the population to be included in the sample may not be equal, but everyone has a probability of inclusion" (Churchill, 1996, p.479). Conversely, with a non-probability sampling method, "there is no way of estimating the probability that any population element will be included in the sample" (Churchill, 1996, p.479). However, when a probability-based sampling method cannot be conducted, due to the limitations imposed, a non-probability sampling technique is considered to be an appropriate choice, although the generalisability of its statistical results can be relatively limited (Baker, 2002; Denscombe, 2002). Examples of non-probability based sampling techniques include convenience samples, judgement samples and quota samples (Churchill, 1996).

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[7] The total number of Thai academics

Since it was not possible to conduct probability sampling due to the unavailability of the sampling frame (the total number of population), the researcher gathered a sample of academic staff by means of judgement sampling, a non-probability based sampling technique, which is often called *purposive sampling*. The key feature of this judgement is that population elements are selected deliberately because it is believed that they are representative of the population of interest and they are expected to serve the research purpose (Churchill, 1996). Churchill (1996, p.483) asserts that “when the courts rely on expert testimony, they are in a sense using a judgement sample”. With judgement sampling, a researcher is not interested in sampling a cross-section of opinion but rather in sampling those who can offer some valid perspective on the research questions (Churchill, 1996).

This study was conducted in order to examine the effects of internal branding at the university level on the academic staff’s brand support behaviour. To be able to fulfil this purpose, the academic staff in Thai business schools were chosen as sample population for this present study. Several studies on university marketing (e.g., Hammond, Harmon, Webster and Rayburn, 2004; 2007) and branding (Balmer & Liao, 2007; Istileulova, 2010) have also used business schools as the research setting. The total comprises academic staff from the business/management schools of 113 Thai universities. As presented earlier, these staff were chosen because they are in a setting in which brand values are likely to be generally communicated within the institution (Balmer & Liao, 2007), thus implying that the researcher should be able to observe and measure the operation of the brand communications from the perspective of these staff. This would, therefore, enable the relationship between internal branding and academic staff’s behaviour to be clearly examined. As noted above, the business schools tend to be ahead of other academic schools regarding corporate branding activities (Melewar & Akel, 2005; Istileulova, 2010). The academic staff of the Thai business schools who responded to the questionnaire in this research were expected to receive brand messages which in general tend to be communicated within the business schools (Balmer & Liao, 2007).

However, some concerns related to response bias should be noted. Baumgartner and Steenkamp (2001) note that, when people answer a question in a questionnaire or an interview, their responses can be manipulated by "content-irrelevant factors" (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001, p.143). These non-content-based forms of response are usually referred to as 'response biases' (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001). For example, respondents tend to over-report favourable attitudes and under-report unfavourable attitudes (Tellis & Chandrasekaran, 2010). Thus, an employee who has positive feelings towards his/her business school or his/her leaders might concentrate on the positive outcomes of internal branding activities in the school, while hiding information which could damage the institution's image. In contrast, if an employee has been dissatisfied about working with the school or its leaders, he/she might report the operation of internal branding in a negative way. The literature refers to this response bias as 'socially desirable responding' (Tellis & Chandrasekaran, 2010; Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001, p.143).

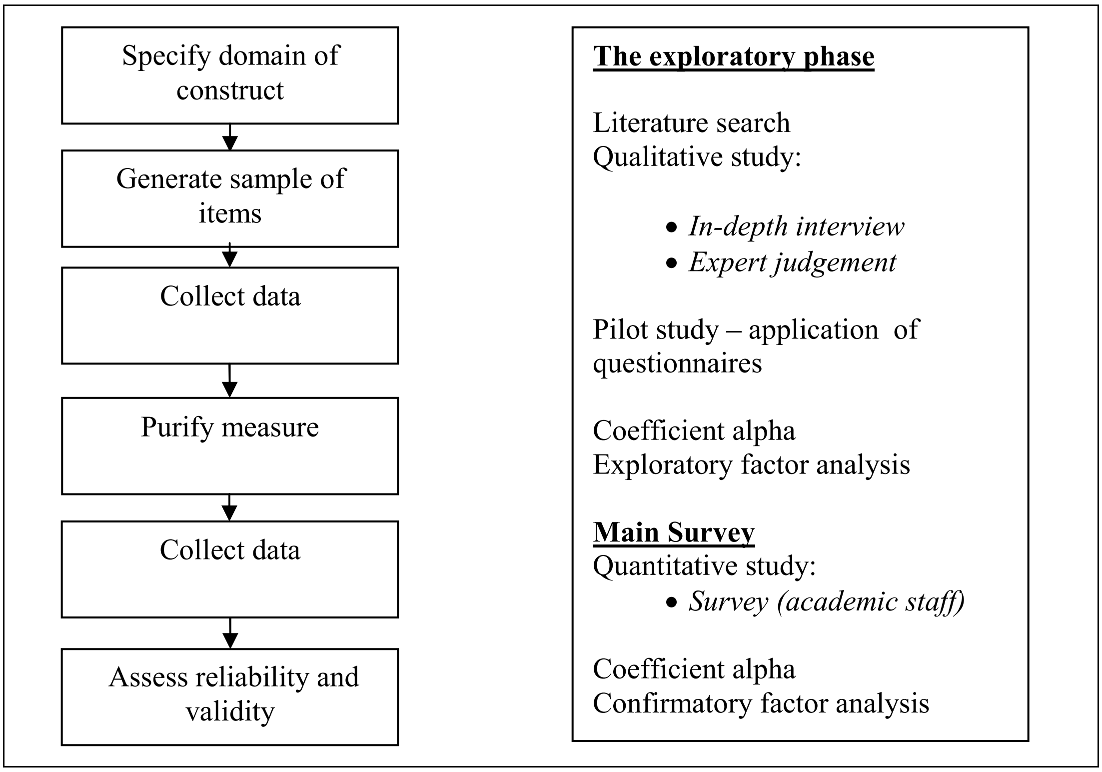
Social desirability bias may also be viewed as the tendency of some people to be prompted more by social acceptability than by their true opinion in responding to items (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff, 2003). In other words, people are likely to want a favourable image of themselves to be presented. This study examines the research hypotheses through the use of a self-reported questionnaire. The social desirability bias may, to some extent, affect the results of the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003). For example, in order to protect his/her image, a subordinate (an academic) may report that he/she always works in alignment with the organisation' mission and vision

However, an executive or a leader of an institution tends rather to enhance and protect the image of the organisation. For this reason, he/she may alter the activities in internal branding to make them look better and disguise any deleterious information about the organisation. Consequently, this social desirability bias can mask the true relationship in the analysis (Ganster, Hennessey & Luthans, 1983). Subordinates or academic staff are, therefore, less likely than their leaders to report disguised information about internal branding activities, because they have less direct responsibility for the image of the organisation.

4.4 Scale development and validation

The procedure of scale development, with its issues of validity and reliability, is important because it connects the theoretical framework to empirical testing. According to Churchill (1979, p.64), measurement scale development is "a critical element in the evaluation of a fundamental body of knowledge in marketing as well as improved marketing practice". A measurement scale usually refers to the combining of the collected items in a composite score, which is used to reveal the levels of theoretical variables not readily observed by direct means (de Vellis, 1991). Systematically developing measurement scales is likely to help the generalisability of the research findings, whereas developing measurement scales poorly can lead to wrong conclusions (de Vellis, 1991). In order to develop measures for a construct examined, Churchill's (1979) procedure for developing better measures is mainly applied in this study (see Figure 4.2). The scale development procedure in this study is described in the following subsection.

Figure 4.2: Procedure for developing better measures



Source: adapted from Churchill (1979)

4.4.1 Specification of the domain constructs

Churchill (1979, p.67) states that researchers must define clearly the delineation of "what is included in the definition and what is excludes". The first step for developing better measures is, therefore, to specify the domain of the construct. It involves specifying the operational definitions and dimensions of focal constructs. This step facilitates the subsequent generation of items hypothesised to belong to each dimension. According to Churchill (1979), it is very important for researchers to consult the literature in this step. Therefore, the main technique used to complete this step was a literature search. Given the aim of the present study, the literature review comprises studies in the fields of higher education management, brand management, corporate identity, organisational identity, organisational culture and behaviour, corporate communication, internal communication, human resource management, marketing management, government policy and leadership, Table 4.4 (overleaf) illustrates the main constructs and their definitions (see also Chapters 2 and 3 for the literature review). On the basis of the theoretical information obtained, a proposed conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1 in Chapter 3) was developed.

Table 4.4: The main constructs and their definition

Constructs		Definitions	Major references
Internal branding(domain) A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations (Urde, 2003; Karmark, 2005; Ind, 2007).			
• Internal brand communication		A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through communication media	Ind (1997), Judson et al. (2006), Karmark (2005), Ind (2007) and Whisman, 2009.
• Brand-centred training and development		A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through training and development activities, so as to help employees to have the necessary skills in delivering these values to customers.	Karmark (2005), Aurand et al. (2005)
Employees brand support(domain)			
• Employees brand support		Staff's understanding and incorporating of brand values into work activities	Aurand et al. (2005); Judson et al. (2006) and Whisman (2009)
Transformational leadership characteristics(domain) Leaders who "[influences] the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and [induces] them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the brand". (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.293)			
• Transformational leadership characteristics	Idealisation influence or charisma	Leaders who act as strong role models for their followers and provide followers with a clear vision and a sense of mission. The followers then identify with these leaders and want to imitate them.	Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Northouse, 2004, pp.174-177)
	Inspiration motivation	Leaders who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision within the organisation.	
	Intellectual stimulation	Leaders who stimulate followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leaders and the organisation.	
	Individual consideration	Leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers and act as advisers trying to assist specific ways of working.	

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

4.4.2 Generation of measurement items

The second step of Churchill's (1979) paradigm is to generate sample items which capture the domain as specified. It involves generating additional measurement items by using, for example, literature searches, experience surveys, exploratory research, critical incidents and focus groups (Churchill, 1979). In order to generate the measurement items, the researcher employed a combination of literature search and qualitative study, i.e., semi-structured interviews with academic staff in Thai business schools.

4.4.2.1 The items of constructs in the literature

First, the items representing the construct were regenerated from the existing literature, each construct is a multi-item scale (see Table 4.5, overleaf). Churchill (1979, p.66) suggests that single-items usually have considerable "uniqueness or specificity in that each item seems to have only a low correlation with the attribute being measured and tends to relate to other attributes". In addition, single items also have considerable measurement error; they produce "unreliable responses in the same way so that the same scale position is unlikely to be checked in successive administrations of an instrument" (Churchill, 1979, p.66).

The initial measurement for internal brand communication is based on Ind's (1997) internal communications umbrella, while the measurement for brand-centred training and development is adapted from original items of the study by Aurand et al. (2005). The items used in the study by Aurand et al. (2005) have also been adapted for measuring employee brand support. The items of transformational leadership characteristics are items originally from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) of Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Northouse, 2004, p.196). More details about the domains and items of constructs in the literature can be found in Table 4.5 (overleaf).

Table 4.5: The domains and items of constructs in extent literature

Constructs	Items	References
	Internal branding	
Internal brand communication	• IBC1: Brand messages (values) are communicated to employees individually (one-to-one) • IBC2: Brand messages (values) are communicated specifically to each group (segment) of employees. • IBC3: Brand messages (values) are communicated to (all) employees through internal mass communication, for example newsletters, memos and brochures	Judson et al.(2006) based on Ind (1997)
Brand-centred training and development	• BCT1: The brand messages (values) are reinforced through training activities • BCT2: Training is provided to help employees use these values • BCT3: The skill set necessary to deliver these values is considered in staffing decisions • BCT4: Annual performance reviews include metrics on delivering the values • BCT5: Departmental plans include employees' roles in living the brand values	Adapted from original items of the study by Aurand et al. (2005)
	Employees brand support	
Employees brand support	• EBS1: I am confident in my ability to clearly explain the brand values • EBS2: I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to better organise my time • EBS3: The brand values influence my decisions on customer (student) requests • EBS4: I know what skills are necessary to deliver on the brand value • EBS5: I include information on brand values in my day-to-day operation	Adapted from original items from the study by Aurand et al. (2005)
	Transformational leadership characteristic	
Idealisation influence or charisma	• II1: He/she makes me feel good to be around him/her. • II2: I have complete faith in him/her. • II3: I am proud to be associated with him/her.	Original items from Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Northouse, 2004, p.196)
Inspiration motivation	• IM1: He/she expresses with a few simple words what I could and should do. • IM2: He/she provides appealing images about what I can do. • IM3: He/she helps me find meaning in my work.	
Intellectual stimulation	• IS1: He/she enables me to think about old problems in new ways. • IS2: He/she provides me with new ways of looking at puzzling things. • IS3: He/she gets me to rethink ideas that I had never questioned before.	
Individual consideration	• IC1: He/she helps me to develop myself. • IC2: He/she lets me know how he/she thinks I am doing. • IC3: He/she gives personal attention to others who seem rejected.	

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

Apart from using the measurement scales from the literature, this thesis conducted semi-structured interviews with 19 academic staff of Thai business schools. After the interviews ended, the items emerging from the interviews were integrated with the items regenerated from the literature. In the next section, details of the interviews will be presented and discussed.

4.4.2.2 A qualitative study: semi-structured interviews

In order to generate possible measurement items (Churchill, 1979), the researcher conducted in-depth interviews with 19 academic staff from the business schools of Thai universities. In line with several authors (e.g., Craig & Douglas, 2000; Kaynak & Kara, 2002), when a construct and its measure are applied in different research settings, particular attention should be paid to the applicability and equivalence of a construct and its measure. Craig and Douglas (2000, p.256), for example, note that "a particular construct identified in one country may not exist in another country or may not be expressed in the same terms". Therefore, when a measurement scale is adapted and applied to another context, the relevance of the definition and the operationalisation of the existing scale must be re-assessed (Craig & Douglas, 2000). In order to examine whether the construct and its measure are applicable to other cultures, Shimp and Sharma (1987) suggest translating the construct and its measure into other languages and testing them in other countries. The researchers should first investigate "whether the same construct exists in different countries" (Craig & Douglas, 2000, p.256). In addition, even when the construct is found to exist elsewhere, the researcher should also examine whether its elements are the same in this other setting (Craig & Douglas, 2000). Besides, several studies on internal branding (e.g., Urde, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006; King & Grace, 2008) also use qualitative methods to gain an insight into the investigated phenomena. Therefore, by conducting qualitative research (in-depth interviews) for the first phase, the researcher hoped to gain insights into the phenomenon of interest in order to generate possible items for measuring studied constructs in the research setting. .

For the sampling and sample size, Churchill (1979) suggests holding a focus group of 8-10 respondents in order to generate additional measurement items. Focus groups offer advantages for generating measurement items because "putting a group of people together will produce a wider range of information, insight and ideas compared to individual response which was secured privately " (Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.163). Although focus groups offer advantages over other techniques of data collection for generating additional measurement items, a key drawback of this technique is that the participants may feel intimidated or shy and consequently afraid to reveal their true opinions (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). In-depth interviews, in contrast, allow "more candid discussion on the part of the interviewee, who might be intimidated to talk about a particular topic in a group" (Churchill, 1996, p.127). The researcher decided to conduct in-depth interviews at this stage because of the problems in getting agreement from potential members of a focus group about a suitable time to schedule it.

Since exploratory investigations are less concerned with reaching a group of subjects who are representative of the main population (Miles & Hubermean, 1994), the researcher recruited participants on the basic of convenience criteria. With the judgmental sampling technique, as discussed in Section 4.3.4 (Target population and sampling technique), 19 academic staff of business schools were used as the sample population of the in-depth interviews.

The lecturers of business schools may not necessarily be the only representative group of academic staff. However, as discussed the previous section, the academic staff of business schools meet the sampling criteria because they work in a setting in which value brand is likely to be communicated within the school (Balmer & Liao, 2007), thus implying that the researcher should be able to observe and examine the operation of those activities and its effects on employees' behaviour from the perspective of these staff (for the details of the interviews and respondents, see Table 4.6, overleaf). Moreover, the academic staff of business schools were particularly desirable for the exploratory stage because they are likely to be capable of verbalising the definitions and the scopes of technical business terms. Thus, the information obtained from this group of respondents was expected to be fairly deep and rich, which could facilitate the generation of measurement items. Additionally, the academic staff of business schools were a group of respondents whom the researcher could easily access because she used to work on the academic staff of a business school in Thailand.

Table 4.6: Details of interviews and respondents

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">Target population:</td><td>Sampling units</td><td colspan="2">Thai universities
*Based on the research questions</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling elements</td><td colspan="2">Academic staff
*Based on the research questions</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Sampling frame:
(The number of Academics)</td><td colspan="2">n/a
* Due to data protection of universities</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Sampling technique: Judgmental sampling</td><td colspan="2">Thai business academics who agreed to take apart in the interviews</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Sample size required</td><td colspan="2">12</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Appointed interviews</td><td colspan="2">19</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Conducted interviews</td><td colspan="2">19</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Respondents' profile</td><td>No. of respondents</td><td>%</td></tr>
<tr><td><u>School's Management style</u></td><td colspan="2">Business schools: public management
(from 63 public universities)
Business schools: private management
(from 50 private and public autonomous universities)</td><td>11
(3 schools)
8
(5 schools)</td><td>57.90%

42.10%</td></tr>
<tr><td><u>Sex</u></td><td colspan="2">Female
Male</td><td>11
8</td><td>57.90%
42.10%</td></tr>
<tr><td><u>Subordinates</u></td><td colspan="2">Do not have subordinates
Have subordinates</td><td>16
3</td><td>84.21%
15.79%</td></tr>
<tr><td><u>Age</u></td><td colspan="2">20≥29
30≥39
40≥49
≥50 and above</td><td>5
7
5
2</td><td>26.32%
36.84%
26.32%
10.52%</td></tr>
<tr><td><u>Level of Education</u></td><td colspan="2">Below Master's level
Master's degree
PhD</td><td>1
12
6</td><td>5.26%
63.16%
31.58%</td></tr>
</table>

Source: developed by the researchers

The researcher first contacted friends and colleagues who worked as lecturers in Thai business schools by sending them emails to explain the research and ask whether they would like to take part in it. In order to estimate the sample size of the in-depth interviews, Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006, p.59) suggest that "although the idea of saturation is helpful at the conceptual level, it provides little practical guidance for estimating sample sizes for robust research prior to data collection". With their empirical study of 60 in-depth interviews, for achieving theme saturation (meaning that the information provided by the respondents becomes repetitive and no new ideas emerge), Guest et al. (2006) recommend that conducting 12 in-depth interviews is sufficient. However, in order to ensure that the respondents will provide sufficient data for generating the measurement items, the researcher tried to recruit a varied group of academic staff (see Table 4.6-4.7). During the recruiting process, there were some respondents who wanted to see the topic guide in advance. The researcher sent them the topic guide via the Internet. Finally, the researcher was able to interview 19 lecturers from 8 business schools.

Table 4.7: Interviewers' profiles

Interviewee	Sex	Age	Level of Education	School's Management style	Duration (hours: minutes)	Interview date
1	Female	29	Master	Private	1:17	8th May 2009
2	Female	25	Bachelor	Public	53	10th May 2009
3	Female	51	PhD	Public	1:20	10th May 2009
4	Female	31	PhD	Private	1:38	11th May 2009
5	Male	31	Master	Public	1:19	12th May 2009
6	Female	32	Master	Public	49	12th May 2009
7	Male	32	Master	Public	50	12th May 2009
8	Female	34	Master	Public	53	13th May 2009
9	Female	37	Master	Private	40	14th May 2009
10	Female	41	PhD	Private	1:18	14th May 2009
11	Female	41	Master	Public	44	15th May 2009
12	Male	42	PhD	Private	1:02	18th May 2009
13	Female	43	Master	Public	1:07	25th May 2009
14	Male	45	Master	Public	54	25th May 2009
15	Male	52	PhD	Public	57	25th May 2009
16	Male	29	Master	Public	52	25th May 2009
17	Male	28	Master	Private	54	26th May 2009
18	Female	34	Master	Private	52	26th May 2009
19	Male	29	PhD	Private	1:02	28th May 2009

Source: developed by the researcher

The interviews were face-to-face. A topic guide was used to ensure that all the areas of interest were covered during the interviews (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). In conducting the interviews, questions regarding the measurement items of each construct were asked. The researcher also encouraged the respondents to elaborate their views on the operation of internal branding activities and the behaviour of their immediate leaders. The questions used during the interviews were open-ended questions. For example, the respondents were asked to describe each studied construct from their standpoint and provide details of the way in which internal branding activities were implemented in their school. The researcher also asked more probing questions, for elaboration and clarification (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). For instance, when a respondent provided answers which were not very revealing, such as, "My leader is a very good leader" and "His behaviour actually affects my brand support behaviour", the researcher then asked such probing questions as "What would you see as being a good leader?", "Could you provide an example of his behaviour that affected your brand support behaviour?" and "Why does such behaviour affect you?". Moreover, in order to understand the relationship between the studied constructs, the respondents were also asked questions related to the research questions (more details about the questions can be found in Appendix B: Topic guide for the interviews). It should be noted that content validity[8] is also examined in this step (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003). Last, a diagram representing the conceptual framework was shown to the respondents. The respondents were also asked whether they were satisfied with the list of items shown (acquired from the literature) or would like to suggest further items to insert.

After 19 interviews were conducted within 2 weeks, the data from the interviews was organised using the Nvivo 8 software. In order to extract the items from the interview data, coding was designed on the basis of the literature and transcripts. However, in order to systematically and creatively consider alternative meanings for phenomena, the coding process was rooted, along with the coding, in grounded theory; it involved 'open coding', 'axial coding' and 'selective coding'(Strauss & Corbin, 1998). However, to explore the studied constructs and to generate the measurement items, the researcher used open coding and axial coding. As suggested by Malhotra and Birks (2003, p. 210), the process was viewed as "different ways of handling the data", the researcher moved back and forth in iterations to complete each phase.

To generate the measurement items, the researcher first identified and categorised the qualitative data according to the list of items acquired from the literature. In the Nvivo, 'free nodes' were initially created on the basis of the list of items acquired from the literature. In the open coding stage, according to Strauss and Corbin, 1998 (p.102), the data should be "broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, and compared for similarities and differences". The researcher read the data and identified related categories. The paragraphs or sentences which supported the existing nodes were coded and added to the existing nodes (see Appendix C: The coding of the interviews). The researcher created new free nodes for those sentences which contained new information. Afterwards, for 'axial coding', each item (the free

[8] The definition of several types of validity are provided in the last section of this chapter.

node) was classified under the related construct. The researcher identified the link between the items according to the studied constructs. Then, the items which related to each studied construct were merged in each 'tree node'. Additionally, in order to deepen the understanding of the relationship between the studied constructs, 'selective coding' was also applied by examining the texts in the light of the research questions.

In summary, the comments gathered from the interviews were generally in alignment with the existing literature. Items extracted from the interviews were relatively similar to the items acquired from the existing literature. However, 13 new items were discovered among the findings from the in-depth interviews. In the following paragraphs, some comments made during the interviews stage are presented.

According to the in-depth interviews with the academic staff of Thai business schools, in general, the constructs of internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities, transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support were viewed and defined in alignment with the theoretical definitions. The respondents agreed with the definitions of the concepts found in the literature. For example, the respondents agreed with the definition of the internal branding concept, as a way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation so that they could deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations (Urde, 2003; Karmark, 2005; Ind, 2007). Several respondents commented on the way in which the internal branding activities of their institutions might affect academic staff behaviour, for example:

> "*There is a strategy map which extracts the institution's values that need to be communicated through the institution's activities. These activities build the understanding of brand to the academic staff. In addition, these activities reinforce value and enhance the understanding of brand to some of us who have already done things in alignment with the brand without realising.*" *(Interview 12)*

> *"The missions of the institution are to provide an educational service, to preserve Thai culture and to be a research institution. However, the institution tends to focus on being a research institution. They provide us with training and financial support for conducting research. To move in this direction, some of my colleagues and I have started conducting research." (Interview 13)*

In addition, the participants were likely to experience the operation of the concepts in their environment, although this operation was found to be varied. However, the participants' opinions about the measurement scales were generally in alignment with the items obtained from the literature. Nevertheless, in-depth interviews revealed issues regarding the studied concepts, as follows.

Employee brand support: With regard to the definition of employee brand support – *Staff understanding and the incorporation of brand values into work activities* – the comments from participants, were in line with the literature. In addition, in alignment with the literature (e.g., Melewar & Akel, 2005; Whisman, 2009), it was found that communicating a university's values through corporate visual identity, e.g., the university's name, slogan and symbol is a way for academic staff to deliver brand values. For instance, a participant explained how he thought brand values could be supported by academic staff in his organisation:

> *"For academic staff to support the brand of their institution, they should clearly understand what the organisation wants to be. They should communicate a positive image of the institution to others in many ways. For example, physically, as visual identity may be called, like wearing the university uniform or university colour and symbols, as well as using the university template for their PowerPoint slides. In addition, their work activities should be related to the process directed by the institution. Moreover, they should be able to talk about this process to people outside the institution, as this is a way to promote the university." (Interview 12)*

Regarding the measurement items of employee brand support, from the marketing and communication based perspective, existing research (e.g., Karmark, 2005; Aurand et al., 2005; Judson et al. 2006) emphasises the employees' behaviour as the result of direct/formal controls through the effects of internal brand communication and the training activities. In line with the existing scale, the participants relate the brand values to their work in order to support their institution's brand. For instance, a participant spoke of employee brand support as follows:

> *"The business school communicates the message that the university is for local students and the local community. This means that my teaching and research focuses on the university and local community. It is important because it is about how the university positions itself and also guides me to do what I need to do to move in this direction." (Interview 7)*

The comment above demonstrated that the employee brand support can be the result of internal brand communication. Nevertheless, several comments from the participations show that they also relate their brand support behaviour to the institution guidelines provided through the training and development activities, for example:

> *"My institution encourages academic staff to conduct research. There are research training modules. I attended them. I have started conducting in-class research. The institution also encourages academics who have only a master's degree to get a PhD degree abroad by providing us with courses in English and scholarships for a PhD course in the USA and UK … Apart from teaching and doing research, I try to organise my time by preparing myself to apply for a PhD course in USA. Actually, these kinds of support activities help me to know specifically what they want me to do. It is a work directive." (Interview 17)*

> *"After I had an IT Training course, I knew how to develop web sites. I then created a web site that benefits my students. Basically, the university policy is to learn more towards technology …" (Interview 5)*

In addition, several comments were heard on employee brand support which were related to key performance indicators, for example:

> *"For me, it [my employee brand support] would be about performing my best at work by following the process and rules given by the institution such as KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)*

> *"I think what the institution wants us to do is designed and comes out in the form of the KPI [Key performance indicators] which are related to the mission and vision of the intuition. I usually follow the institution's KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)*

Based on the interviews, possible items for measuring the employee brand support of academic staff (i.e. EBS6: I consider the performance reviews of the school when making decisions on my work activities; EBS7: I obey the institutional rules and EBS8: I follow brand values of my institution) were added to the items pool of employee brand support.

Internal brand communication: The participants had agreed with the definition of internal brand communication derived from the literature, which is: *A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through communication media* (Ind, 1997, 2007; Judson et al., 2006; Karmark, 2005). For example, participants commented on brand communication in their organisation that:

> *"The institution communicates the policies and what they want to be by using meetings, internal letters, memos and internal radio. There is also the university intranet but the focus is on the students. For me, I like meetings. In the meeting, there will be discussions about what the institution wants us to do in relation to its mission, vision and policy. We usually talk about what we want to do to our local community, which is the focus of the institution. In the meeting, we can all discuss the projects of the institution in more detail, so I*

understand the objectives and the details of what we plan to do. Moreover, the meetings help us to understand each other." (Interview 3)

"The institution' brand is to educate business knowledge with morality. This is what the institution also has been communicating to employees… We first received a guideline or a booklet. Most of us start by reading through this guidebook...." (Interview 12)

However, the operationalisation of internal brand communication was found to be more varied than the theory would suggest. During the interviews, the participants were asked to clarify how the brand value is communicated within their department through internal media. In general, the participants agreed that brand values are communicated to employees: 1) individually; 2) specifically to each grouping and 3) to all of them together through mass communications, in line with the internal brand communication umbrella introduced by Ind (2007). For instance, participants mentioned the operation of internal brand communication in their institution, as follows:

"Sometimes, there are group meetings, for example, new lecturers' meetings and department meetings. In the new lecturers' meeting that I attended, the dean of school talked about what the institution expects us to do as a new lecturer. I was impressed by this meeting because knowing specifically what the institution expects from me gives me a good sense of direction so that I can work in alignment with the institution's goals."(Interview 1)

"Mostly, they [the internal brand communications] are mass communication activities and usually they are indirect communications." (Interview 6)

In addition, the participants used the words 'two-way communication media' several times in order to describe how brand values are communicated in their department. For instance, participants said about the internal brand communication of their institution that:

> *"…The meetings allow two-way communication. There is a chance for me to interact with the source of information. This makes me understand and remember things better." (Interview 13)*

> *"In the meeting with the president of my institution, things I get from a meeting affect my behaviour because it offers two-way communication. In the meeting, the goals of the organisation, its mission and vision were explained clearly – we were allowed to ask questions if we did not understand something. I think we tended to understand things in the same way after the meeting. I like the two-way communication activities because if I do not understand I can ask and give my opinion."(Interview 11)*

Based on the interviews, the participants are likely to emphasise not only the specific content of the messages (i.e. individual communication, group communication and full communication), but also on their chance to interact with the media during the brand values communication (two way communication). Consequently, one way communication and two-way communication (IBC4 and IBC5) were added to the internal brand communication's items pool, as possible measurement items of internal brand communication activities.

Training and development activities: Third, brand-centred training and development activities in the present study is *a way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through training and development activities, so as to help employees to have the necessary skills in delivering these values to customers* (Karmark, 2005, Aurand et al., 2005). Based on the comments from participants, it seems that they view the brand-centred training and development activities operating in their institution in alignment with the literature. For example:

> *"There is a training activity, called 'quality assurance training'. From the training, I learnt about the institution's goals and what I need to do to support the goals. I was notified about the assessment of my work quality [performance indicators], so that I knew the ways of working in alignment*

with my institution's goals, for example, how to integrate knowledge about local culture in the activities and assignment of the course." (Interview 17)

Regarding items for measuring the concept of brand-centred training and development activities, when the participants were asked to clarify the training and development activities for communicating institutional brand value which operated within their institution, the activities provided by the participants were generally in alignment with the items obtained from the literature. For instance, participants gave comments based on their observations of the brand-centred training and development activities which operate within their institution, as follows:

"The brand values came in the form of KPIs [key performance indicators]. The institution communicates the policy, mission and vision through the KPIs … Training programmes related to the KIP are provided in my institution. I have attended some of them. In order to work in alignment with the brand of institution, my work is usually based the KPIs." (Interview 11)

"The annual performance reviews of my institution are likely to be in alignment with the institution's mission, vision and policy." (Interview 5)

"Personally, I think the institution pays attention to the role of academic staff in supporting the institution brand. The institution provides me with support activities and mentors who give me personal advice during the training. Also, there is a list of criteria that academic staffs have to meet in order to get promoted."(Interview 6)

The comments above show that brand-centred training and development activities are observed by the participants through the communication of standard working processes (e.g., guidelines and performance reviews) in their training and development activities. The items extracted from the interviews were therefore consistent with those of existing scales. Nevertheless, possible items for measuring the training and development activities emerged during the interviews. It was found that the participants mentioned the support from their institution in attending the training and development activities related to the institution's values. One participant, for example, mentioned that:

> *"The institution wants us [academic staff] to support the institution mission. As they are trying to be become the best local research institution, they try to support us by providing the research training course and financial resources for the attending research training courses as well as for conducting research in local community." (Interview 7)*

> *"After I had an IT Training course, I knew how to develop web sites. I then created a web site that benefits my students. Basically, the university policy is to learn more towards technology …" (Interview 5)*

Based on the interviews, possible items which were added to the training and development activities' items pool were BCT6: The school provides training activities that are related to brand values and BCT7: The school supports me in attending training activities that are related to brand values. Churchill (1979, p.64) suggests that "by incorporating slightly different nuances of meaning in the statement in the item pool, the research provides a better foundation for eventual measures".

Transformational leadership characteristics: The definition of transformational leaders in relation to the brand, that they have qualities shown in their behaviour that "[influences] the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and [induces] them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the brand". (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.293), was provided to the respondents. In general, the respondents agreed with this definition. However, possible items for measuring the concept of transformational leadership characteristics were found from the interviews.

In order to acquire possible measurement items for transformational leader, the researcher first asked the participants to describe the characteristics of their immediate leaders and show how these characteristics influence their employee brand support. Furthermore, the participants were asked to give a list of leader's actions with regard to describing transformational leadership characteristics. The list of characteristics provided by the participants was generally related to the sub-types of transformational leadership characteristics from the literature. The possible items extracted from the interviews were consistent with each definition of the transformational leadership characteristics. For instance, the participants mentioned several time that their leaders should be a role model:

> *"The leader's behaviour affects me. It is the role model for me.…" (Interview 10)*

> *"…They should have a sense of institutional mission and vision and act accordingly..." (Interview 18)*

> *"My leader is an intelligent person. This is good for academic staff like me because I want to develop myself and my leader is able to help me. I am quite proud to work with him…Based on the ways my leader works with me, I feel lucky working here because he is intelligent and also someone of good character". (Interview 12)*

The characteristic above is similar to the idealisation influence characteristic, which describes leaders who act as strong role models for the followers and provide them with a clear vision and a sense of mission. The followers then identify with these leaders and want to imitate them.

In addition, when the participants were asked to comment on the transformational leadership characteristic of their leader, the leader of one participant was said to exhibit a characteristic related to the inspirational motivation characteristic, which is ascribed to leaders who communicate high expectations to their followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and part of the shared vision within the organisation:

> *"The things that the leader emphasised in the meeting showed that those things were important. ... It reminded me what I need to do as an organisation member." (Interview 12)*

> *"...He tends to give a good suggestion for the academic staff who want to be successful like him…." (Interview 12)*

Moreover, in relation to the intellectual stimulation characteristic which is found in leaders who stimulate their followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leaders and the organisation, a participant, for example, commented on the behaviour of his leader as follows:

> *"… Also, He is a very open minded person, always listens to my opinions. Although my opinions are different from his, he does not reject them. He kind of advises me how I can make it better..." (Interview 12)*

Furthermore, participants commented on their leaders' characteristic of individual consideration. A leader with the individual consideration characteristic is a leader who provides a supportive climate in which he/she listens carefully to the individual needs of followers and acts as an adviser trying to assist a specific way of working. Additionally, participants suggested other appropriate behaviour for leaders in the area of individual consideration. Several times they recalled the *friendliness* of leaders. One participant, for example, said of her leader:

> *"He is not very friendly with us. Actually, if he were friendlier to us, this would create greater unity in the organisation..." (Interview 6)*

> *"…they should always be close and friendly towards their team. They should be involved in all the meetings and also other school activities…" (Interview 18)*

The items extracted from the interviews were generally consistent with those on existing scales. However, additional possible items for measuring the transformational leadership characteristic were found. These items were therefore added to the items pool (namely, II4: He/she is a role model for me; IM4: He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to achieve the university's goals; IS4: He/she lets me think by myself and then he/she judges the appropriateness; IS5: He/she will not reject my project if the project is not appropriate, but he/she will suggest improvements; IC4: He/she gives constructive feedback on how he/she thinks I am doing; IC5: He/she is friendly with me).

In summary, although the interview comments were generally in alignment with the existing literature, they yielded 13 new items. The findings from the in-depth interviews point to the fact that even though the studied constructs have similar meanings in different research settings, the measurement scale of the constructs are, to some extent, different. As discussed earlier, when a construct and its measure are applied in different research settings, particular attention should be paid to the applicability and equivalence of a construct and its measure because a construct identified in one setting may not exist in another setting or may have difference meanings in the same terms (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Craig & Douglas, 2000). Therefore, when a measurement scale is adapted and applied to another context, the relevance of the definition and the operationalisation of the existing scale must be re-assessed (Craig & Douglas, 2000).

Possible items for measuring the studied constructs in this research setting were extracted from the interview data and were afterwards added to the item pool. Participants generally agreed with the content of the items from the literature. The researcher therefore concluded that these items possessed content validity and could be adapted to measure the concepts in this study.

4.4.3 Measurement purification: a pilot study

Following the items generated in the previous phase, a pilot study was conducted in order to purify the measurement scales (de Vellis, 1991). In line with Churchill's (1979) scale development paradigm discussed in the previous chapter, the third step of the paradigm involves the reliability and validity[9] testing of the scale items. In order to complete this step of ensuring face validity, the researcher first invited some academics to make an expert judgement (Churchill, 1979). Then a pilot study was conducted, applying the pilot questionnaire to a sample of individuals (Churchill,

[9] See pp.147-150 for more details about the assessment of reliability and validity.

1979). In the following sections, the details of the pilot study and item purification process are presented.

The items were evaluated by 6 academic experts in marketing for the face validity. The experts were 4 UK lecturers and 2 Thai lecturers in Marketing. These six experts had graduated with a PhD degree. Generally, the experts agreed that the items were acceptable for measuring the constructs in the higher education institution context. However, following their suggestions, the language of some items was re-arranged. Finally, the questionnaire for a pilot study was developed, which contained the 38 items obtained from the existing scale items and in-depth interviews (see Appendix D: The pilot study questionnaire). Before conducting the pilot study, the items obtained from the existing literature and the qualitative study were translated into Thai and translated back into English by experts in English/Thai language use (Brislin, 1970).

According to Malhotra and Birks (2003), the respondents for a pilot study and for the main survey should be drawn from the same population. They suggest that "the respondents in the pilot-test should be similar to those who will be included in the actual survey in terms of background characteristics, familiarity with the topic, and attitudes and behaviours of interest" (Malhotra & Birks, 2003, p.345). Judgement sampling, a non-probability based sampling technique, was used for the pilot study data collection. As discussed earlier, the key characteristic of this judgement is that population elements are intentionally selected because it is believed that they are representative of the population of interest and they are expected to serve the research purpose (Churchill, 1996). Using the same sampling criteria of judgement sampling, the data for the pilot study were, therefore, collected from the academic staff of Thai business schools. As discussed in Section 4.3.4 (Target population and sampling technique), the academic staff from business/management were chosen because they are in a setting in which brand values in general are communicated within the business schools (Balmer & Liao, 2007), implying that the study should be able to observe and measure the operation of the brand communication activities and their effects on academic staff behaviour.

Basically, a pilot survey requires a small number of respondents (around 15-30) to pre-test questionnaires (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). However, as suggested by Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), in order to perform factor analysis (EFA), the sample size must be more than the number of variables (38 variables). Although the minimum absolute sample size should be at least 50 observations, the sample size should preferably be around 90-100 observations (Hair et al., 2010). According to Yu and Cooper (1983), the response rate for questionnaires distributed in person is generally around 81.7 per cent. Hence, the researcher intended to distribute 120 questionnaires to target respondents in person.

In order to distribute the questionnaire to the target respondents, the researcher asked the 8 Thai business schools which took part in the early stages of this study (the in-depth interviews) to contribute by contacting her (via email and telephone). Then the researcher went to the schools in order to distribute the questionnaire to the target respondents (face-to-face). To select a respondent, the researcher first approached a target respondent and asked him/her whether she/he works on the academic staff. Due to issues of confidentiality, other profile[10] data were not used as criteria to in the first selection of respondents. The researcher tried to distribute the questionnaire to various groups of respondents on the basis of their sex[11] and likely age, however.

In the pilot questionnaire, the respondents were asked to rate items on a scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 ("Strongly agree") based on their experience of their school. From the interviews at the exploratory stage, it was noted that a few respondents did not clearly understand the phrase 'brand values'. The researcher, therefore, explained the question as follows: "Brand values include brand messages, institutional policies, institutional missions and institutional vision" (Urde, 2003; Judson et al., 2006). In addition, the researcher randomly asked the respondents to point out any item that was either ambiguous or difficult to answer (Kohli, Jaworski & Kumar, 1993).

Within 3 weeks, the researcher managed to distribute the 120 questionnaires. As stated above, to eliminate potential problems with difficult questions and wording in the questionnaire, the researcher randomly asked the respondents to point out any item that was either ambiguous or difficult to answer (Kohli et al., 1993). The respondents suggested no further improvements to the items in the questionnaire.

[10] There were some profile questions in the questionnaire and it was left up to the individual respondents to answer them.
[11] 41 per cent of the questionnaires (49 questionnaires) were distributed to males and 59 per cent (71 questionnaires) to females.

After the questionnaires were distributed, 82 respondents filled in and returned the questionnaire to the researcher in person. In order to collect the rest of the questionnaires, the researcher contacted the respondents a week afterwards.

4.4.3.1 Data profile

After 5 weeks of data collection, 102 completed questionnaires had been collected (see Table 4.8, overleaf). However, 7 questionnaires were excluded due to a substantial amount of missing data. As a result, the questionnaires from 95 respondents were used for the scale purification stage, which was enough for the pre-test sample size suggested in the literature (Malhotra & Birks, 2003; Hair et al., 2010). In addition, the data were checked for missing value patterns, but none of the cases had more than 5% of missing values[12]. The missing values were then replaced with estimated mean (EM)[13] values (see Appendix E: Descriptive statistics of pilot data).

Afterwards, the data were subjected to a further purification process, which involves reliability analysis and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). According to Churchill (1979), it is important to perform a reliability analysis test and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to purify the scales in the early stages of a scale validation. Therefore, in the following stage, a reliability analysis and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were performed to simplify items and examine the dimensionality of the underlying constructs..

[12] "Missing data under 10% for an individual case or conservation can generally be ignored" (Hair et al., 2010, p.47).

[13] EM was used to solve the missing data pattern issue because EM(Hair et al., 2010), as a mean substitution method, makes the most accurate and reasonable estimates possible compared to case substitution, regression imputation and multiple imputation.

Table 4.8: Details of questionnaires and respondents (Pilot study)

Target population:	Sampling units	Thai universities **Based on the research questions*	
	Sampling elements	Academic staff **Based on the research questions*	
Sampling frame:		n/a ** Due to data protection by universities*	
Sampling technique: Judgmental sampling Academics of 113 Thai business schools		Academics of the (8)Thai business that agreed to take part in the main survey	
Sample size required		90-100	
Distributed questionnaires		120	
Possible response rate (expected questionnaires)		81.7% (96)	
Response rate (returned questionnaires)		85% (102)	
Usable questionnaires		95	
Respondents' profile		**No. of respondents**	**%**
Management style	Business schools: public management *(63 public universities)* Business schools: private management *(50 private universities and public autonomous universities)*	55 *(3 schools)* 40 *(5 schools)*	57.90% 42.10%
Sex	Female Male No answer	69 26 0	72.63% 27.37% 0.00%
Subordinates	Do not have subordinates Have subordinates	73 22	76.84% 23.16%
Age	0≥19 20≥29 30≥39 40≥49 Above 50 No answer	0 33 46 11 1 4	0.00% 34.74% 48.42% 11.58% 1.05% 4.21%
Income (50 Baht = 1 Pound)	Below 10,000 baht 10,001-20,000 baht 20,001-30,000 baht 30,001-40,000 baht 40,001-50,000 baht 50,001-60,000 baht Above 60,000 No answer	3 34 31 18 4 5 0 0	3.16% 35.79% 32.63% 18.95% 5.26% 4.21% 0.00% 0.00%
Level of Education	Below Master's level Master's degree PhD No answer	6 80 7 2	6.32% 84.21% 7.37% 2.11%

Source: developed by the researcher

4.4.3.2 Reliability analysis

Since the number of respondents was adequate for the pre-test sample size suggested in the literature (Malhotra & Birks, 2003), the next step was to analyse the reliability of the scales (Churchill, 1979). The types of scale reliability include: 1) internal consistency reliability, which is concerned with "the homogeneity of the items comprising a scale" (de Vellis, 1991, p.25; Churchill, 1979); 2) the test-retest reliability which is concerned with the fluctuation of item responses over periods of time (Nunnally, 1978); and 3) the alternative-form of reliability which refers to "the extent to which two different statements can be used to measure the same construct at two different times" (Netemeyer et al., 2003, p.46). However, in line with several authors (e.g., Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 1991; Melewar & Saunders, 1999; Melewar, 2001), the research referred to scale reliability as internal consistency reliability. Internal consistency implies that items are highly intercorrelated (de Vellis, 1991; Melewar, 2001). High inter-item correlation implies that the items of a scale share a common core and measure the same thing (de Vellis, 1991; Melewar, 2001; Netemeyer et al., 2003). In order to assess the internal consistency, coefficient alpha and item-to-total correlation were first assessed (e.g., Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 1991; Melewar, 2001; Cronbach, 1951).

The coefficient alphas were computed as a means of checking the reliability of the measurement scales (Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 1991; Melewar, 2001). According to Melewar (2001, p.39), "A low coefficient alpha indicates the sample of items performs poorly in capturing the construct". Theoretically, the coefficient alpha[14] is concerned with "the degree of interrelatedness among a set of items designed to measure a single construct" (Netemeyer et al., 2003, p.49). Based on a standard of reliability, it suggests that values of item-to-total correlation greater than 0.35 and values of coefficient alpha equal to or above 0.70 indicate that the items are reliable (Nunnally, 1978; Melewar, 2001). Hair et al. (2010) assert that a coefficient alpha

[14] The coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) can be defined as follows:

The coefficient alpha (α) = N. $\bar{C}$/ [$\bar{V}$+ (N-1).$\bar{C}$]

Where: N = the number of items in the scale
$\bar{V}$ = the average variance
$\bar{C}$ = the average of all correlation among items in the scale

which is greater than 0.70 is highly satisfactory for most research purposes. Nevertheless, Nunnally (1978) suggests that a coefficient alpha of 0.5 or 0.6 is satisfactory in the early stages of research.

Table 4.9: Reliability test results on the basis of the pilot study

Constructs		Cronbach's alpha (α) if deleted	Corrected item-to-total correlation	
			Before deleted	After deleted
Internal Brand Communications (α = 0.411)			**α = 0.411**	**α = 0.628**
IBC1		0.193	0.416	0.425
IBC2		0.203	0.402	0.371
IBC3		0.197	0.411	0.438
IBC4		0.407	0.147**	0.398
IBC5		0.628	-0.118**	dropped
Transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (α = 0.949)			**α = 0.949**	**α = 0.965**
Idealised influence	II1	0.945	0.781	0.774
	II2	0.945	0.757	0.764
	II3	0.944	0.831	0.841
	II4	0.944	0.811	0.827
Inspirational motivation	IM1	0.946	0.695	0.692
	IM2	0.944	0.823	0.828
	IM3	0.945	0.782	0.811
	IM4	0.945	0.747	0.758
Intellectual stimulation	IS1	0.945	0.779	0.799
	IS2	0.945	0.752	0.795
	IS3	0.945	0.753	0.788
	IS4	0.956	0.327**	dropped
	IS5	0.956	0.259**	dropped
Individual consideration	IC1	0.944	0.794	0.801
	IC2	0.946	0.728	0.750
	IC3	0.946	0.722	0.733
	IC4	0.944	0.835	0.853
	IC5	0.946	0.741	0.705
Brand-Centred Training and Development Activites (α = 0.885)		**Cronbach's alpha (α) if deleted**	**Corrected item- to-total correlation**	
BCT1		0.876	0.615	-
BCT 2		0.861	0.729	-
BCT 3		0.862	0.722	-
BCT 4		0.873	0.635	-
BCT 5		0.879	0.576	-
BCT 6		0.853	0.789	-
BCT 7		0.870	0.662	-
Employee Brand Support (α = 0.895)		**Cronbach's alpha (α) if deleted**	**Corrected item-to-total correlation**	
EBS 1		0.884	0.654	-
EBS 2		0.874	0.760	-
EBS 3		0.881	0.685	-
EBS 4		0.882	0.680	-
EBS 5		0.878	0.721	-
EBS 6		0.881	0.692	-
EBS 7		0.893	0.551	-
EBS 8		0.883	0.667	-

Source: Developed for this study by the researcher

At presented in Table 4.9, examining the coefficient alpha and item-to-total correlation supported the reliability of the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and employees brand support (EBS) scales. However, the scales of the Internal brand communications (IBC) and transformational leadership characteristics (TL) needed to be purified in order to assess the scale reliability. It was found that the items of the Internal brand communications (IBC) and transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct were not internally consistent. A summary of the reliability assessment is presented in the next sections.

Brand-centred training and development activities (BCT): As noted by Churchill (1979), a high coefficient alpha indicates that the items perform well in capturing the construct. The researcher found that the Cronbach's alpha (α) of, brand-centred training and development were 0.885, above an acceptable level ($\alpha > 0.60$) (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, the item-to-total-correlation values of the items in brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) were above an acceptable level of 0.35 (the values were from 0.853 to 0.876). These therefore indicated that the items of the brand - centred training and development (BCT) construct were internally consistent.

Employee brand support (EBS): it was found that the Cronbach's alpha (α) of employees brand support (EBS) was above an acceptable level ($\alpha = 0.895$) (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, the item-to-total-correlation values of employees brand support (EBS) were greater than 0.35 (from 0.874 to 0.893). These results indicate the internal consistency of the employee brand support (EBS) construct.

Internal brand communications (IBC): As presented in Table 4.9, the Cronbach's alpha (α) of Internal brand communications (IBC) was below the acceptable level of 0.60 ($\alpha=0.411$). In addition, some item-to-total-correlation values (IBC4, IBC5) of the Internal brand communications (IBC) construct were below the acceptable level of 0.35 (Saxe & Weitz, 1982), IBC4=0.147 and IBC5=-0.118. These results show that the items of this construct were not internally consistent.

As presented in Table 4.9, removing IBC4 reduces the reliability of the construct (Cronbach's alpha (α) decrease to 0.407). Conversely, removing IBC5 increases the reliability of the construct (Cronbach's alpha (α) increase to 0.628). This result was in line with the interview data, as item IBC5 'The school communication brand values are transmitted via one way communication' was mentioned very seldom by respondents during the in-depth interviews, compared to other items of internal brand communication. In addition, several respondents pointed out that item IBC5 was ambiguous to answer. Therefore, the researcher decided to delete IBC5. Doing so increased the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the construct from 0.411 to 0.628. Besides, the corrected item-to-total correlation of the remaining items increased to above the acceptable level (0.35). Consequently, after item IBC5 was removed, the remaining items of Internal brand communications (IBC) construct were internally consistent.

Transformational leadership characteristic (TL): For the transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct, even through the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the construct was high (α =0.949), the item-to-total-correlation values of some items (IS4, IS5) in the construct were below the acceptable level (0.35), IS4=0.327, IS5=0.259, indicating that the items of the transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct were not internally consistent.

Table 4.9 indicated that the corrected item-to-total correlation values of item IS4 and IS5 were below the acceptable level of 0.35. Based on the values of '*Cronbach's alpha (α) if deleted'* suggested in Table 4.9, deleting either IS4 or IS5 would increase the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the construct from 0.949 to 0.956, while the corrected item-to-total correlation of some remaining items would still be lower than the acceptable level of 0.35. However, if both IS4 and IS5 were removed, the corrected item-to-total correlation values of the remaining items would rise to above the acceptable level of 0.35. In addition, the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the construct would increase from 0.949 to 0.965.

However, what had to be noted was the fact that items IS4 and IS5 were generated from the in-depth interview data. As a result, the items might be incongruent with the set of the 12 items for measuring transformational leadership characteristics taken from the literature[15]. Based on the results from the reliability test, IS4 and IS5 were the only two items (from the set of 18 items for measuring transformational leadership characteristics in this study) that seemed to be uncorrelated to the group. As discussed earlier, removing both IS4 and IS5, in addition to increasing Cronbach's alpha (α), would bring the corrected item- to-total correlation values of the remaining

[15] Original items from Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Northouse, 2004, p.196)

items to above the acceptable level of 0.35. Therefore, the research decided to remove IS4 and IS5. Consequently, the corrected item-to-total correlation values of the remaining items increased to above the acceptable level (0.35). Besides, the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the construct increased from 0.949 to 0.965. Subsequently, the remaining items of transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct were internally consistent.

After the items were justified, the corrected item-to-total correlation and the Cronbach's alpha (α) of: Internal brand communications (IBC); brand-centred training and development activities (BCT); employees brand support (EBS) and transformational leadership characteristics (TL), were above the acceptable level. Consequently, the reliability of the scale could then be supported. Afterwards, the measurement scales were subject to the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which is discussed in the next section.

4.4.3.3 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

After the reliability of the scales was assessed, the researcher conducted the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in order to examine the factorial structure of the scales. The EFA is a generally useful technique during the early stages of scale refinement and validation, since it allows the researcher to have a preliminary understanding of the relationships between the indicators and their relevant constructs (Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 1991). EFA becomes useful, in particular, when there is very little known in theory about the constructs under investigation (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). As most of the items under review were generated from anecdotal articles and some were adapted from empirical studies (see Table 4.5), it was necessary to apply EFA (Churchill, 1979). However, before conducting the EFA, the researcher started by examining the basic assumptions underlying the EFA, which were 1) the absolute sample size, 2) the correlation coefficients in the correlation matrix (the R matrix) and 3) the sampling adequacy (Hair et al., 2010).

As suggested by Field (2009, p.645), "the reliability of factor analysis is also dependent on sample size". As recommended by several authors (Cavusgil & Zou, 1994; Hair et al., 2010), the number of observations per item for each analysis should be at least 5:1. Therefore, in order to conduct the EFA, items were divided into groups to ensure that the ratio of observations to items for each analysis was at least 5:1 (e.g., Bentler & Chou, 1987; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005; Shoham, 1999). The constructs which were proposed to be theoretically related were joined together. Regarding the proposed relationship between brand-centred training and development and employees brand support constructs (hypothesis H1), the first group, thus, consisted of brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and employees brand support (EBS) constructs. Furthermore, in order to meet the criteria of five observations per item, the constructs of transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and Internal brand communications (IBC) were separated from each other into the second and the third groups, respectively.

Afterwards, the researcher examined the anti-image correlation matrixes with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. The values here should be above a minimum of 0.50 (Field, 2009). Then the inter-correlation between variables in the correlation matrix (the R-matrix) was scanned to see whether there were any problems of correlation[16] (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). As Hair et al. (2010) suggest, the presence of high correlations (>0.90) implies that multicollinearity is a problem for the dataset (Hair et al., 2010), whereas the presence of correlations below 0.30 indicates that the correlations are too low (Field, 2009). Therefore, the correlation values should be from 0.3 to 0.8 (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). In addition, the p-values for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity[17] were checked.

The SPSS 16.0 statistical program was used to conduct the EFA. As far as the purification stage was concerned, in order to obtain the minimum number of factors needed to represent the original set of data, the principal component analysis technique was used (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Ho, 2006; Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, the oblimin rotation, as an oblique rotation method, was applied to the initially-extracted factors. Since there are theoretical reasons to assume that the factors will be correlated, the oblique rotation was likely to provide a more realistic description of the underlying factorial structure for this data set than other methods (Ho, 2006).

[16] The correlations may be either too high or not high enough (Field, 2009)
[17] In the case that the values are significant at $p < 0.0001$, these indicate that the R-matrix is not an identity matrix. Hence, there are some relationships between the variables.

In each group of EFA, the number of factors to be extracted was specified as suggested by the findings of the previous step (Churchill, 1979). For each scale, the factors demonstrating an eigen value greater than one were extracted (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, a scree plot was obtained to check whether any other factors might be present (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Then factorial solutions, for example, item loadings, percentages of variance extracted, etc., were evaluated. Any item whose highest factor loading item was less than 0.50, or whose loadings were high on more than one factor had to be dropped (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, all measurement scales had at least acceptable reliability, coefficient alpha > 0.60, (Nunnally, 1978) and exhibited clear factor structures. In the next sections a summary of the scale purification process for each group of constructs is presented.

Brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and employees brand support (EBS) constructs (1st group): For the first group of EFA, it was found that the manifested variables had KMO Measures of Sampling Adequacy above the acceptable level (0.50) (Kaiser, 1974). In addition, it was found that none of the correlation values in the R-matrix was above 0.8 (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). While some of the correlation values were below 0.3, the p-values for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were significant at $p < 0.0001$, which indicated that the R-matrix is not an identity matrix (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, there were some relationships between the variables.

Furthermore, the items of brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and employees brand support (EBS) constructs clearly loaded to two separate factors, which was generally in line with the theoretical proposed. The result exhibited a relatively clear factor structure with an acceptable level of loadings (above 0.50). Moreover, as discussed earlier, the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and brand communications and employees brand support (EBS) constructs were 0.885 and 0.895 respectively, which were above an acceptable level (α=0.60). In addition, the corrected item-to-total correlation of each item was found to be above the acceptable level of 0.35. These results indicated that the measurement scales were consistent with each other. Consequently, these measurement scales were used in the main survey questionnaires for the next confirmatory stage.

Transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct (2nd group): For the second group of EFA [18] , it was found that manifest variables have KMO Measures of Sampling Adequacy above the acceptable level of 0.50 (Kaiser, 1974). In addition, the p-values for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were significant at $p < 0.0001$. Moreover, when the correlation matrix (the R-matrix) was checked (Field, 2009), it was found that the values were between 0.4 - 0.833, within the acceptable correlation range (Field, 2009).

Furthermore, the items of the transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct loaded to one factor, which was generally in line with the theoretical prediction. The result showed an acceptable level of loadings (above 0.50). In addition, the reliability test illustrated that the corrected item-to-total correlation values of the remaining items were above the acceptable level of 0.35. Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha (α) of the construct was high (α =0.965). These results indicated that the measurement scales of the transformational leadership characteristics (TL) construct were consistent with each other. Thus, the remaining items were used for the next confirmatory stage.

Internal brand communications (IBC) construct (3rd group): For the third group, the manifested variables have KMO Measures of Sampling Adequacy above the acceptable level (0.50) (Kaiser, 1974). In addition, it was found that none of the correlation values in the R-matrix was above 0.8 (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). Though some of the correlation values were below 0.3, the p-values for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicated that some relationships existed between the variables (significant at $p < 0.0001$). Furthermore, the items of the Internal brand communications (IBC) construct loaded clearly to one factor, which was generally in line with the theoretical prediction. Like the other groups, the result showed a relatively clear factor structure with an acceptable level of loadings (above 0.50). Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha (α) of Internal brand communications (IBC) was 0.628, which was above an acceptable level of 0.60 (Nunnally, 1978). Besides, according to the reliability test, the corrected item-to-total correlation of each item

[18] Quartimax rotation (orthogonal rotation) was applied in order "to maximise the variance of factor loading by making high loadings higher and low ones lower for each factor" (Tabachnick & Field, 2007, p.620).

was above the acceptable level of 0.35. This therefore indicated the consistency of the items in each factor. As a result, the measurement scales were used for the next confirmatory stage.

Table 4.10: The results from the item purification process

Construct	Remained Items	Mean	SD	Reliability test		EFA		Deleted item
				Corrected item- to-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha (α)	Loading	MSA	
Brand-centred training and development activities (BCT)	BCT1	4.645	1.7051	0.615	0.885	0.919	0.881	-
	BCT2	4.484	1.6168	0.729		0.714		
	BCT3	4.591	1.5315	0.722		0.855		
	BCT4	4.527	1.5750	0.635		0.581		
	BCT5	5.602	1.4153	0.576		0.530		
	BCT6	4.862	1.6019	0.789		0.627		
	BCT7	4.853	1.6757	0.662		0.660		
Employees brand support (EBS)	EBS1	4.915	1.1998	0.654	0.895	0.532		-
	EBS2	4.736	1.3356	0.760		0.799		
	EBS3	4.935	1.4718	0.685		0.820		
	EBS4	4.914	1.3734	0.680		0.691		
	EBS5	4.266	1.4672	0.721		0.639		
	EBS6	4.629	1.4320	0.692		0.750		
	EBS7	5.979	1.1390	0.551		0.734		
	EBS8	5.284	1.4117	0.667		0.749		
Internal brand communications (IBC)	IBC1	4.438	1.7379	0.425	0.628	0.708	0.618	IBC5 Item-to-total correlation < 0.30
	IBC2	3.728	1.7510	0.371		0.644		
	IBC3	5.505	1.7374	0.438		0.720		
	IBC4	4.453	1.8667	0.398		0.677		
Transformational leadership characteristics (TL)	II1	5.054	1.4540	0.774	0.965	0.798	0.919	IS4 item-to-total correlation < 0.30
	II2	5.215	1.4355	0.764		0.790		
	II3	4.936	1.5004	0.841		0.861		
	II4	4.691	1.5370	0.827		0.851		
	IM1	4.947	1.3943	0.692		0.732		
	IM2	4.936	1.5832	0.828		0.855		
	IM3	4.742	1.5704	0.811		0.841		
	IM4	5.116	1.5768	0.758		0.792		IS5 item-to-total correlation < 0.30
	IS1	4.436	1.6148	0.799		0.832		
	IS2	4.348	1.6531	0.795		0.827		
	IS3	4.710	1.6281	0.788		0.820		
	IC1	5.053	1.6136	0.801		0.829		
	IC2	4.747	1.5409	0.750		0.777		
	IC3	4.772	1.5025	0.733		0.759		
	IC4	4.677	1.5585	0.853		0.872		
	IC5	5.568	1.3500	0.705		0.734		

Source: developed by the researcher for this study

In summary, during the item purification process, through the use of reliability tests and exploratory factor analysis (EFA), three items (IBC5, IS4, IS5) were removed from the constructs (see Table 4.10). In this stage, scale items generated from interviews and the literature were subjected to a preliminary purification process (Churchill, 1979). The reliability of the internal consistency was examined by measuring coefficient alphas and item-to-total correlations. The test for dimensionality was completed in EFA. A set of items was trimmed. Finally, according to four combined criteria: 1) coefficient alphas were below 0.60; 2) there was a high possibility of cross loading, suggested by EFA; 3) item-to-total correlation was below 0.35; and 4) the opinion about the questions given by the respondents (Churchill, 1979; Kohli et al., 1993), the remained items were found satisfactory for measuring the constructs of interest.

Besides, organisational tenure has been consistently seen in past research as a variable effect in organisations on the support behaviour of employees (e.g., Wagner, Ferris, Fandt and Wayne, 1987; McEnrue, 1988; Quinones, Ford & Teachout, 1995; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Therefore, the positive impacts of internal branding activities and transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leader on employee brand support may become irrelevant if organisational tenure variable is omitted in the analysis. A meta-analysis was conducted by Ng and Feldman (2010) in order to examine the relationships between organisational tenure and three broad varieties of job behaviour: core-task behaviours, citizenship behaviours and counterproductive behaviours. Across 350 empirical studies with a cumulative sample size of 249,841, the study found that longer tenured employees generally have greater in-role performance and citizenship performance (Ng & Feldman, 2010). The organisational tenure variable was, therefore, included as a control variable affecting employee brand support in this study.

In line with Churchill (1979), in the next stage the remaining items [19](see Appendix M: The items of constructs) were then used for developing the main survey questions (see Appendix F: Main survey questionnaire) in order to obtain data for further assessment of the construct validity and reliability. Hence, with an attempt to assess construct validity and reliability, the researcher conducted the main survey in order to use the resulting data for performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991) as well as for testing the research hypothesises. However, the data analysis and findings based on the data from the main survey are presented in the next chapter (Chapter 5). In the following sections, the main survey process and the data analysis techniques are first discussed.

[19] According to the suggestions of respondents, the language of some items was also re-arranged.

4.4.4 Main study

After the measurement scales were developed, the main survey was conducted in Thailand in order to purify the measurement scales (Churchill, 1976). The data from the main survey were used to assess the validity and reliability of the studied constructs and to examine the research hypothesises. The following sections discuss the data collection procedure for the main survey.

4.4.4.1 Sampling and sample size

As explained in section 4.3.4 above, it was not possible to conduct probability sampling, due to the unavailability of the sampling frame (the total number of population). Hence, the researcher gathered a sample of academic staff by means of judgement sampling, a non-probability based sampling technique. This study was conducted in order to examine the effects from the academic staff's perspective of internal branding at the university level on the academic staff's brand support behaviour. To fulfil this purpose, academic staff of business schools were, therefore, chosen as the sample population for the main survey. This was because they are people who work in a setting in which brand values are generally communicated within the institution (Balmer & Liao, 2007); thus, they are expected to be able to provide information about the operation of brand communications activities and their own brand support behaviour. The sample population of this study consisted of academic staff from the business/management schools of 113 Thai universities.

After the sample population has been specified, the next stage, according to Malhotra and Birks (2003, p.358), is to determine the sample size, which refers to the number of elements to be included in the study. The main survey's data are then used to perform a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to confirm the validity of the scales (Churchill, 1979). A minimal sample size for the CFA is usually recommended to be more than the number of covariances in the input data matrix (Netemeyer at al., 2003; Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010) suggest that the minimum sample size should be between 100 and 400 responses if using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method (the most widely-used method of estimation available in LISREL, a structural equation modelling software). In addition, according to several authors (e.g., Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996; Hair et al., 2010), the sample size for performing multivariate data analysis should be at least five observations for each variable. However, a more acceptable sample size, according to Hair et al. (2010), is ten observations per parameter. In line with the discussion above, the sample size in this study should be approximately 175-350 respondents (35 parameters). However, the response rate for mail survey is generally around 50 per cent (Yo & Cooper, 1983). The researcher therefore determined to distribute 700 questionnaires.

4.4.4.2 Data collection procedure

As the total number of academics (the sampling frame) was not available, all the Thai business schools were asked to participate in this study. The researcher first contacted academics in Thai business schools to ask for their support and acquire more information about them and Thai business schools in general. In addition, the website of the Thai commission on higher education provided a list of email addresses, websites and contacts to approach among its member universities. The researcher contacted all the business schools (113 business/management schools) on this database to inform them about the present research project and to confirm their current addresses. As a result, 20 schools agreed to participate in the research, with 11 schools using a private management style (private universities) and 9 schools using a public management style (including public autonomous universities). These business schools came from 4 major regions [20]of Thailand.

The researcher went to the target business schools with in order to distribute the main survey questionnaires directly to respondents, thus ensuring that the respondents were working academic staff. The questionnaire asked the respondents about internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities, their employee brand support and their immediate leaders' transformational leadership characteristics (see Appendix F: Main survey questionnaire). Each questionnaire contained an introductory letter, a pre-paid envelope with the recipients address (the researcher's address) printed and a small gift (a non-monetary premium) to increase a response rate (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Some respondents were able to complete and

[20] The number of participating schools in the main survey (Central Thailand=4; The North of Thailand =8; The North-East of Thailand =6; The South of Thailand =2)

return the questionnaire straight away (in the day that the questionnaire was distributed). Although the respondents were given the choice to return the questionnaire by using the pre-paid envelop, the researcher informed the respondents that it was preferable for the researcher to come back and collect the questionnaire directly in order to increase the response rate (Malhotra & Birks, 2003).

Once the 700 questionnaires were distributed to academic staff in 20 Thai business schools, the questionnaires were personally collected from the respondents in the first six weeks after their initial distribution. Moreover, those respondents who took longer (around 8 weeks) were asked to return the questionnaires by mail. Within 8 weeks of data collection, 355 completed questionnaires from 20 Thai business schools had been collected, which resulted in an aggregated response rate of 50.71 %[21]. A summary table showing the various groups used in the study (i.e., School's Management Style, Sex, Subordinates Status, Age, Income and Level of Education), is provided in the Table 4.11 The population of the main survey, pilot survey and interviews, on the next page.

[21] Response rate = (Completed questioners/ Distributed questionnaires)*100; above 48.8 % (Yu & Cooper, 1983)

Table 4.11: The population of the main survey, pilot survey and interviews

Target population:	Sampling units	Thai universities **Based on the research questions*					
	Sampling elements	Academic staff **Based on the research questions*					
Sampling frame : *(The total number of Thai academics)*		n/a ** Due to data protection of universities*					
Studies' population		In depth interviews' population		A pilot survey's population		A main survey's population	
Sampling technique: Judgmental sampling; Academics of 113 Thai business schools		Thai business academics who agreed to take part in the interviews		Academics of the (8) Thai business schools that agreed to take part in the pilot survey		Academics of the (20) Thai business schools that agreed to take part in the main survey	
Sample size required		12		90-100		175-350	
Distributed questionnaires/ Appointed interviews		19		120		700	
Possible response rate (expected questionnaires)		n/a		81.7% (96)		47.3%(331)	
Response rate (returned questionnaires)		n/a		85%(102)		50.7%(355)	
Usable questionnaires		19		95		347	
Respondents' profile		**No. of respondents**	**%**	**No. of respondents**	**%**	**No. of respondents**	**%**
Management style	Business schools: public management *(63 public universities)*	11 (3 schools)	57.90%	55 (3 schools)	57.90%	188 (9 schools)	54.17%
	Business schools: private management *(50 private and public autonomous universities)*	8 (5 schools)	42.10%	40 (5 schools)	42.10%	159 (11 schools)	45.82%
Sex	Female	11	57.90%	69	72.63%	240	69.16%
	Male	8	42.10%	26	27.37%	107	30.84%
	No answer	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Subordinates	Do not have subordinates	16	84.21%	73	76.84%	268	77.23%
	Have subordinates	3	15.79%	22	23.16%	79	22.77%
Age	0≥20	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	0.29%
	20≥30	5	26.32%	33	34.74%	107	30.84%
	30≥40	7	36.84%	46	48.42%	159	45.82%
	40≥50	5	26.32%	11	11.58%	51	14.70%
	Above 50	2	10.52%	1	1.05%	12	3.46%
	No answer	0	0.00%	4	4.21%	17	4.90%
Income (50 Baht = 1 Pound)	Below 10,000 baht	n/a	n/a	3	3.16%	11	3.17%
	10,001-20,000 baht			34	35.79%	104	29.97%
	20,001-30,000 baht			31	32.63%	104	29.97%
	30,001-40,000 baht			18	18.95%	81	23.34%
	40,001-50,000 baht			4	5.26%	27	7.78%
	50,001-60,000 baht			5	4.21%	12	3.46%
	Above 60,000			0	0.00%	8	2.31%
	No answer			0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Level of Education	Below Master's level	1	5.26%	6	6.32%	15	4.32%
	Master's degree	12	63.16%	80	84.21%	294	84.73%
	PhD	6	31.58%	7	7.37%	34	9.80%
	No answer	0	0.00%	2	2.11%	4	1.15%

Source: developed by the researcher

As presented in Table 4.11, the respondents in this study included various groups of academics in matters of age, income and the management style of school. In particular, the respondents from the 2 main management styles were more or less equivalent. In the main survey, 45.82 per cent of respondents were from private management business schools, while 54.17 per cent of the respondents were from public management business schools. Moreover, most of the respondents (96.8%) had a Master's degree, and a small percentage (3.2%) had a degree below Master's level. This should, to some extent, reflect the adequate knowledge and abilities of the respondents to observe the operation of communication activities within their organisation. Furthermore, above 75 per cent of the respondents did not have subordinates, thus implying that they did not have direct responsibility to maintain their school's image. This could, therefore, reduce the concern that the respondents might over-report the operation of internal brand activities in the school. In addition, on average, the respondents had more than 7 years' experience in their institution, reflecting their familiarity with the brand values communicated within the institution. In Chapter 5 (Data analysis), more details of the main survey data are presented. In the next section, the data analysis techniques used in this study are discussed.

4.4.5 Data analysis techniques

Following the main survey, the researcher performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the data acquired from the main survey. The following sections present a discussion on the data analysis techniques used in this study.

4.4.5.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Following the main survey, the purified measurement scales were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as a method of confirming the validity of the construct (Hair et al., 2010). CFA was performed on the main survey data (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hair et al., 2010). According to de Vellis (1991), CFA is used to confirm that the number of latent variables underlying the items corresponds to the number that the researcher expects. Moreover, "if the factor analysis 'discovers' precisely the item groupings that [researchers] intended when creating the items, [the researchers] will have strong confirmation of their initial hypothesis concerning how the items should relate to one another" (de Vellis, 1991, p.109).

In this study, CFA was used for testing whether the pre-specified relationships predicted by the theory were present in the data (Hair et al., 2010; Huang, 2001). After performing EFA on the pilot survey data, the researcher employed CFA on the main survey data. EFA can provide insight about the possible dimensionality by revealing items which load poorly on an intended factor or load highly on more than one factor, whereas CFA can assess both the quality of a factor solution and the specific parameters which constitute a model (Kelloway, 1998). Generally, CFA is used as an assessment of construct validity[22] to ensure that the theoretical meaning of a construct is empirically captured by its indicators (Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991). This basis is very important for theory testing and development (Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991).

The researcher conducted model-testing in two stages, according to the recommendation by Anderson and Gerbing (1982, 1988). First, in order to confirm the relationships between constructs and their indicators, the measurement model was estimated by assessing: 1) unidimensionality and 2) items per construct and model identification. After the overall measurement model was estimated, in order to show the relationships between the constructs, the researcher assessed the validity of the measurement model by examining 1) the model fit and 2) the reliability and validity of the constructs. However, in order to ensure that the required data assumptions for performing multivariate analysis were met, apart from assessing sampling adequacy, the researcher also examined the characteristics of the data, including: 1) missing data analysis; 2) outlier analysis; 3) normality analysis; 4) homoscedasticity assessment; 5) linearity assessment 6) multicollinearity assessment and 7) common method bias assessment (the details of the analyses, can be found in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2 Data examination).

In this study, the measurement model testing was assisted by the CFA (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). LISREL 8.8 structural equation modelling

[22] More details about the assessment of construct validity is provided below, see also Table 4.11

software was used for performing the CFA. When the measurement model is estimated using CFA, the fundamental dimensions which claim the validity of a construct are assessed (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The dimensions of construct validation include: the unidimensionality of a construct; its reliability; convergent validity; discriminant validity; and nomological validity[23][24] (Peter, 1981; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991).

Model fit assessment: according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988, p.416), "after a measurement model has been estimated, a researcher would assess how well the specified model accounted for the data with one or more overall goodness-of-fit indices". In order to test how well a measurement model fits a set of observations, researchers are recommended to assess the model's overall fit. The aim of testing this is to confirm the consistency between a theoretical model and the estimated model, which is based on the observed values (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hair et al., 2010). Although many statistics have been developed to test the overall fit of a model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996), none of them alone can provide an absolute assurance of model fit. Each measure can be superior to the others under different conditions, such as "sample size, estimation procedure, model complexity, violation of underlying assumptions of multivariate normality and variable independence" (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p.83). In this study, both incremental and absolute goodness of fit measures were used to evaluate the model's overall fit (Hair et al., 2010). The researcher evaluated seven measures of fit indices as follows: 1) chi-square statistics (χ^2); 2) normed chi-square; 3) normed fit index (NFI); 4) non-normed fit index (NNFI); 5) comparative fit index (CFI); 6) standardized root mean residual (SRMR) and 7) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA); see Table 4.12 (overleaf).

[23] The definition of several types of validity is provided below, see also Table 4.13
[24] More details about the assessment of validity can be found in chapter 5

Table 4.12: Measure of fit indices

Types of index	Name	Acceptable level	Comment
Basis of goodness-of-fit	**Chi-square ($\chi 2$)**	$p > 0.05$	-A test of perfect fit in which the null hypothesis is the model for fitting the population data perfectly. -The P-value > 0.05, indicating a perfect fit. -A sample size of more than 200 increases the opportunity to find significant differences for equal models.
	Degrees of freedom (df)	> 0	-A test of perfect fit which represents "the amount of mathematical information available to estimate model parameters" (Hair et al., 2010, p.665) -The higher the better
Incremental fit indices The assessment of "how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model" (Hair et al., 2010, p.668).	**Normed fit index(NFI)**	≥ 0.95	-The comparison between the hypothesised model and the null model (i.e., the model in which all observed variables are uncorrelated). -Sensitive to sample size.
	Non-normed fit index(NNFI)	≥0.95	-Similar to NFI but NNFI better reflects model fit in all sizes of sample -In comparison to NFI, NNFI is less sensitive to sample size.
	Comparative fit index (CFI)	≥0.95	-CFI is not systematically related to sample size. -A pure measure of model fit in the sense that model parsimony is not taken into account -More accurate than NFI in describing comparative model fit
Absolute fit indices A direct measure of "how well the model specified by the researcher reproduced the observed data" (Hair et al., 2010, p.666).	**Normed chi-square (The χ^2/df)**	<5	-A ratio of χ^2 to the df for a model -Widely used because it is easy to calculate.
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	<0.10	- The degree of fit between the model and the population covariance matrix. - Values below 0.05 are considered to be a good fit
	Standardized Root Mean Residua (SRMR)	<0.08	-Lower SRMR values represent better fit. - A rule of thumb is that an SRMR over 0.1 suggests a problem with fit.

Source: developed by the researcher on the basis of the literature (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; and Hair et al., 2010).

Assessing reliability and validity: After the content and the relevance of the multi-item scales were refined on the basis of qualitative and quantitative data gathered from the exploratory research and the pilot study, the scale was validated on the basis of the quantitative data obtained from the main survey. Several marketing researchers (e.g., Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979, 1981; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer & Burton, 1990; Kotabe, 1990; Melewar, 2001) emphasise the need for attention to investigating the validity and reliability of the measures used. Validity refers to "the degree to which instruments truly measure the constructs which they are intended to measure" (Peter, 1979, p.6), whereas according to Peter (1979, p.6), reliability is a necessary condition for validity as it ensures that "measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results".

In assessing reliability, coefficient alpha is the basic statistic for determining the reliability of a measure (Churchill, 1979). As discussed earlier, this research assessed the reliability (internal consistency reliability) by measuring the coefficient alphas as well as item-to-total correlations. The coefficient alpha is widely used as a measure of reliability (de Vellis, 1991). Theoretically, the coefficient alpha is concerned with "the degree of interrelatedness among a set of items designed to measure a single construct" (Netemeyer et al., 2003, p.49). The coefficient alphas were examined as a means to check for the reliability of measurement scales (Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 1991). Based on a standard of reliability, it suggests that the values of alpha equal to or above 0.70 indicate reliability (Nunnally, 1978; Hair et al., 2010), while it is suggested that item-to-total correlation above 0.35 should be corrected (Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

In addition, to finalise a measurement scale, it is very important that measurement scale validity should also be investigated. According to several authors (e.g. de Vellis, 1991; Peter, 1981), scale validity refers to the extent to which an operational measure truly reflects the concept being investigated or the extent to which the latent construct is the underlying cause of item co-variation. In line with existing research (e.g., Peter, 1981; Peter & Churchill, 1986; Morgan, Kaleka & Katsikeas, 2004; Homburg & Furst, 2005; Netemeyer, Maxham & Pullig, 2005; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006), the following types of validity were evaluated in this study: 1) content validity; 2) face validity; 3) convergent validity; 4) discriminant validity; 5) nomological validity; and 6) ecological validity (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13: Types of validity assessment in this study

Types	Definitions
Content validity	refers to the extent by which the elements of measurement scales are relevant to and representative of the targeted construct for a particular assessment purpose
Face validity	refers to an assessment of how adequately items of a scale measure the construct of interest
Convergent validity	refers to the extent to which independent measures of the same construct converge or are highly correlated
Discriminant validity	refers to the extent to which measures diverge from other operationalisations from which the construct is conceptually distinct
Nomological validity	refers to the examination of the hypothesised relationships between constructs and the empirical link between indicators and their underlying dimensions
Ecological validity	refers to the degree to which the behaviour observed in a study reflect the behaviour which actually occurs in natural settings (Denscombe, 2002).

Source: based on the literature (e.g., Peter, 1981; Peter & Churchill, 1986; Denscombe, 2002; Morgan et al., 2004; Homburg & Furst, 2005; Netemeyer et al., 2005)

The content validity and face validity of the scale were examined in the second step of the scale's development procedure (see Figure 4.1). Face validity was used to assess the extent by which items on the scales adequately measure the constructs of interest. The items were evaluated by the experts (academic specialists in marketing) before developing the pilot questionnaire. The content validity was used in this study to evaluate the overall validity of the measures used in the data collection instrument (Peter & Churchill, 1986). In order to assess content validity, the list of domains and examples of scale items were shown in the interviews. Respondents were asked to state whether they agreed with the lists and to provide specific reasons, if any.

The convergent and discriminant validity was examined after the CFA had been performed (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Convergent validity refers to the extent by which the latent variable correlates to indicators pre-specified to measure the same latent variable (Peter & Churchill, 1986; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991). While, the presence of discriminant validity is indicated when the correlation between two constructs is significantly lower than 1.00 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Convergent and discriminant validity are subtypes of construct validity. The validity of a construct is an essential condition for further theory testing and development (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991). Construct validity (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955 cited in de Vellis, 1991, p.47) is concerned with the theoretical relationship of one variable to other variables.

Furthermore, according to several authors (e.g., Peter, 1981; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991), apart from the convergent validity and the discriminant validity, in order to claim that a construct is valid the following criteria should also be assessed: its unidimensionality, reliability and nomological validity. When the measurement model is estimated using CFA (Chau, 1997; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Huang, 2001), the unidimensionality of a construct, its reliability and nomological validity can also be assessed. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the unidimensionality of a construct should be achieved initially before any attempt at further theory testing because it implies that the multiple indicators of a construct are internally consistent and externally distinct from other measures. The researcher, therefore, used EFA (after the pilot study) and CFA (after the main survey) for testing the unidimensionality of the scale. CFA was used to confirm the unidimensional of a construct, thus implying that the construct is compiled of a set of indicators (items) (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991; Hair et al., 2010). CFA also provides a computation of the criteria for assessing convergent validity, and discriminant validity, as well as nomological validity. In addition, nomological validity, which refers to the examination of the hypothesised relationships between constructs and the empirical link between indicators and their underlying dimensions, was assessed in this study (Peter, 1981; Peter & Churchill, 1986). In short, the nomological validity concerns the overall fit of a model. Lagas (2000) and Steenkamp and van Trijp (1991) suggest the use of goodness-of-fit indices in order to assess nomological validity.

In addition, ecological validity is concerned in this study. Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006, p.847) state that “any theoretical or conceptual argument needs to be tested in actual application". Ecological validity is the degree to which the behaviour observed in a study reflects the behaviour which actually occurs in natural settings (Denscombe, 2002). It refers to how well the findings from a study are linked to the social environment in which they occurred (Denscombe, 2002). The aim of this research is to develop a better understanding of the relationships between the employees brand support of academic staff, internal branding activities in universities and transnational leadership characteristic, by examining the experiences and perceptions among academic staff of the relationships. The researcher reviewed the existing literature on definitions of the internal branding concept (internal brand communication and brand-centred training and development activities), the employee brand support concept and the transformational leadership characteristics of staff members' immediate leaders. Following this, the researcher proposed a conceptual model of the relationship between employee brand support and the antecedent factors of interest, i.e. the internal brand communications factor, the brand-centred training and development activities factor and the transformational leadership characteristic of staff members' immediate leader factor, as found in the literature. The researcher empirically examined the relationships in practice, in comparison to their theoretically defined relationships, by examining them from the viewpoint of the academic staff. The research demonstrates how employee brand support and its antecedent factors of interest (i.e. internal brand communication, brand-centred training and development activities and transformational leadership characteristic of staff members' immediate leaders) have been explained and perceived in practice from the academic staff's perspective. In line with Melewar and Karaosmanoglu (2006), the researcher believes that this approach enables the research to operationalise the proposed conceptual framework by examining it in an "ecologically valid environment" (Smith, Feinberg & Burns, 1998, p.64). The findings of this study are linked to the real-life social environment in which they occurred; therefore this study has ecological validity (Denscombe, 2002).

4.4.5.2 The evaluation of the structural model and the examination of the research hypotheses

After testing the reliability and validity of the scale, the relationships between the constructs (structural equation model) were examined. The researcher tested the proposed model (on the basis of the research hypotheses). First, the covariance matrix, path estimates and t-values were examined to see whether each path was statistically significant. Furthermore, in order to identify how well the model fitted, the researcher employed a combination of the following fit indices: chi-square statistics (χ^2); normed chi-square (χ^2/df) below 5 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985); fit indices with values from 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Hair et al., 2010); a standardized root mean residual (SRMR) with a value below 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with a value below 0.10 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

Next, the proposed model was compared with the most plausible model in order to examine whether it was a better model than the nearest likely one (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Kelloway, 1998; Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, Schaffer & Wilson, 2009). The researcher also tested the existence of mediation by "comparing a full mediation model with a partially mediated model and a direct effects-only model" (Butts et al., 2009, p.128). The researcher estimated the models. Afterwards, in order to assess the improvement in model fit, the chi-square (χ^2) values as well as the degree of freedom of each construct were checked (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kelloway, 1998; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Butts et al., 2009). The model with the smaller chi-square (χ^2) was considered the better model. However, in cases where the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of 2 models is not significant (the difference between χ^2 values < 3.841; χ^2 with one degree of freedom), the model with more degrees of freedom is selected as the better model. Subsequently, the research hypotheses were evaluated.

In this chapter, the analyses of the in-depth interview data and the pilot survey data for developing the measurement apparatus have been presented. In addition, the details of the main survey data collection and the data analysis techniques have also been discussed here. In the next chapter, the analyses of the main survey data are presented in detail.

4.5 Summary

To sum up, this chapter discusses the research design at each stage of the study including details of the way in which the mixed methods approach with a quantitative basis was implemented. In order to develop a measurement scale for the constructs in the model, the procedures for developing measurement suggested by Churchill (1979) were mainly employed. The research design incorporated information from three stages of data collection. First, the qualitative research (exploratory research) was conducted through the use of in-depth interviews. This phase was expected to provide more insights into the subject of interest and to support the design of the research instrument. Then the first draft of the quantitative questionnaire was designed for a pilot study, on the basis of the items generated from interviews and the existing literature. data from the pilot study were subject to a reliability test and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in order to purify the measurement items. Subsequently, questionnaires containing the purified items were prepared for the main survey. Then a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed, based on the main survey data. The reliability and validity of the scales were then assessed through the use of CFA. Finally, the structural model, the mediation effect and the research hypotheses were evaluated. In the next chapter, the main survey data are an analysed and discussed in detail.

Chapter 5 Research Analysis and Findings

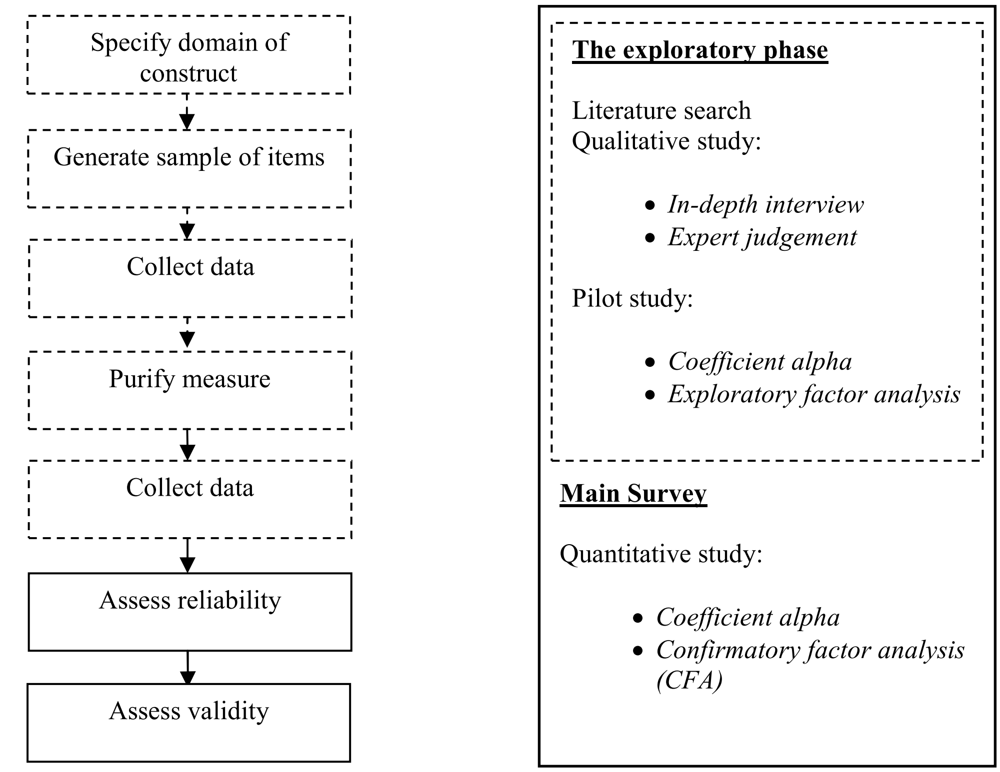
5.1 Introduction

In chapter 5, the research findings are presented. In the stage of scale purification discussed in the previous chapter, some items were dropped and only the remaining items were used in the questionnaires for the main survey. In this chapter, after conducting the main survey, the sampling and the data examination are first evaluated, to ensure that the required data assumptions for multivariance factor analysis were met. Afterwards, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the data from the main survey is conducted, to assess the reliability and validity of the scale. Finally, the findings, together with the results of the tests on the hypotheses and the model through the use of structural equation modelling (SEM), are presented and discussed.

5.2 Main study

Following the purification of the measurement scales, the questionnaire with the remaining items was used for the main survey (Churchill, 1979), see Figure 5.1, (overleaf). The researcher conducted the survey in Thailand. The main survey was conducted in order to obtain the data for assessing the construct validity, as well as testing the hypotheses and structural model. The main survey data collection procedure and the data analysis techniques have been discussed in the previous chapter. In the following sections, the analyses of the main survey data are presented in detail.

Figure 5.1: Procedure for developing measurement scales



*The dashed lines represent the stages discussed in the previous chapters

Source: adapted from Churchill (1979)

5.2.1 Sampling

For the main survey, 700 questionnaires were distributed to academic staff in 20 Thai business schools. Within 8 weeks of the data collection process, 355 completed questionnaires were collected (see Table 5.1, overleaf), which resulted in an aggregated response rate of 50.71 %[25].

[25] Response rate = (Completed questioners/ Distributed questionnaires)*100; above 48.8 % (Yu & Cooper, 1983)

Table 5.1: The population of the main survey

Target population:	Sampling units	Thai universities **Based on the research questions*	
	Sampling elements	Academic staff **Based on the research questions*	
Sampling frame: (The total number of Thai academic staff)		n/a ** Due to data protection of universities*	
Sampling technique: Judgmental sampling Academics of 113 Thai business schools		Academics of the (20)Thai business schools that agreed to take part in the main survey	
Sample size required		175-350	
Distributed questionnaires		700	
Possible response rate (expected questionnaires)		47.3% (331)	
Response rate (returned questionnaires)		50.7% (355)	
Usable questionnaires		347 *(8 cases of refusal to answer[26])*	
Respondents' profile		**No. of respondents**	**%**
Management style	Business schools: public management *(63 public universities)*	188 *(9 schools)*	54.17%
	Business schools: private management *(50 private universities and public autonomous universities)*	159 *(11 schools)*	45.82%
Sex	Female	240	69.16%
	Male	107	30.84%
	No answer	0	0.00%
Subordinates	Do not have subordinates	268	77.23%
	Have Subordinates	79	22.77%
Age	0≥20	1	0.29%
	20≥29	107	30.84%
	30≥39	159	45.82%
	40≥49	51	14.70%
	≥50	12	3.46%
	No answer	17	4.90%
Income (50 Baht = 1 Pound)	Below 10,000 baht	11	3.17%
	10,001-20,000 baht	104	29.97%
	20,001-30,000 baht	104	29.97%
	30,001-40,000 baht	81	23.34%
	40,001-50,000 baht	27	7.78%
	50,001-60,000 baht	12	3.46%
	Above 60,000	8	2.31%
	No answer	0	0.00%
Level of Education	Below Master's level	15	4.32%
	Master's degree	294	84.73%
	PhD	34	9.80%
	No answer	4	1.15%
University tenure : 7.7 years (Mean)			

Source: developed by the researcher

[26] The researcher contacted to some non-respondents to discuss the reasons that they refused to participate in the survey (Malhotra & Birks, 2003). Some of them replied that they did not have enough free time to finish the questionnaire, while the remainder replied that the reason had been their apprehensiveness about the confidential issues raised. This, therefore, implied that their non-response was due to a lack of interest in the questionnaires, rather than their not satisfying the interest hypothesis.

Data from the questionnaires were first inserted into a statistical program (SPSS). To ensure that the data met the requirements of the multivariate data analysis technique, they were subjected to examination (Hair et al., 2010), which will be discussed in the next section.

5.2.2 Data examination

According to Hair et al. (2010), data examination is vital for ensuring that the data underlying the analysis meet the entire requirement of the multivariate data analysis technique. By examining the data before performing the multivariate data analysis, researchers will gain a deeper understanding of the characteristics of the data (Hair et al., 2010). The frequency tables were first tabulated in order to check whether any mistake had occurred during the insertion of the codes into the SPSS data sheet, followed by an examination of the descriptive statistics for all variables of interest.

In order to examine the descriptive statistics, the researcher first checked whether the sample size was sufficient to allow a multivariate data analysis. According to several authors (e.g., Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996; Hair et al., 2010), the sample size for performing the technique of multivariate data analysis should be at least five observations for each variable. Thus, the rate of ratio of observations per variable of this research met the criteria (9.9 observations per variable; 347/35). In addition, the researcher examined the anti-image correlation matrix with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the p-values for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. It was found that manifest variables had KMO values (the diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix) in a wide range, all values being above 0.8 (from 0.83 to 0.97) (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Moreover, the overall KMO statistic was 0.95, which was in "the range of being superb" (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999; Field, 2009, p.659), indicating that the sample size was adequate for factor analysis. Besides, the p-value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was highly significant (p-value < 0.001) which indicated that the R-matrix was not an identity matrix because there were some relationships between the variables (Field, 2009). These results supported satisfactory factorability for all items.

However, multivariate analysis techniques require complex assumptions. Hair et al. (2010) suggest that a set of data examination techniques, for example, missing data analysis, the detection of outliers and testing the normality assumption, should be assessed. Therefore, in order to ensure that the required data assumptions for performing multivariate analysis were met, apart from the sampling adequacy, the researcher also examined the characteristics of the data, including: 1) missing data analysis; 2) outlier analysis; 3) normality analysis; 4) homoscedasticity assessment; 5) linearity assessment 6) multicollinearity assessment and 7) common method bias assessment. In the next sections, the examinations of the data are presented.

5.2.2.1 Missing data analysis

According to Heir et al. (2010), missing data may threaten the generalisability of a study's finding. In this study, the data were checked for missing value patterns even though none of the cases had more than 5% missing values[27]. The researcher analysed the randomness of the missing data by completing separate-variance t-tests and running an overall test of randomness of missed data, i.e., Little's MCAR test (Hair et al., 2010). The researcher completed the separate-variance t-tests on the other variables by comparing the observations with and without missing data for each variable. However, during the t-test, the variables with missing values below 5% were omitted from the analysis. In other words, it was considered that the likelihood of a missing value pattern occurring was small if less than 5% of the respondent did not answer this question (variable) (SPSS, 2007; Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, none of the cases and variables was deleted, due to the low levels of missing data.

However, Little's MCAR statistics (Little, 1988) indicated that the missing data were not completely at random because the significance value was less than 0.05 (p-value $<$ 0.001; Chi-square=252.663; df = 158). Therefore, in order to deal with the potential bias in results due to non-random missing values, the missing values were replaced with estimated mean (EM) values. The EM, as a mean substitution method (Hair et al., 2010), was considered to be the most appropriate technique to resolve the issue of the

[27] "Missing data under 10% for an individual case or observation can generally be ignored" (Hair et al., 2010, P.47).

missing data pattern because the EM makes the most accurate and reasonable estimates compared to case substitution, regression imputation and multiple imputation. Additionally, since none of the variables has more than 5% missing values, 347 cases were then retained for further analyses.

5.2.2.2 Outlier analysis

Outlier analysis was conducted in order to examine whether any variables had "a score very different to the rest" (Field, 2009, p.97; Hair et al., 2010). In line with Field (2009), the researcher detected outliers by examining box-whisker diagrams. As a result, some outliers were found (see Appendix K: Outliers). Hair et al. (2010) note that the outliers should be deleted because they are considered non-representative of any observations in the population. Nevertheless, the researcher decided not to remove the outliers because the retention of the outliers is a way "to ensure generalisability to the entire population" (Hair et al., 2010, p.67). In addition, the researcher did not have demonstrable proof that they were "truly aberrant and not representative of any observations in the population" (Hair et al., 2010, p.67).

5.2.2.3 Normality analysis

The test of normality assumption was conducted because it is the most important statistical assumption in multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2010). The research used the histograms and normal probability plot (Quantile - Quantile plot) to first examine the shape of the distributions for each variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010) note that the graphical examination of data allows the researcher to gain a full understanding of the basic characteristics of individual variables and relationships between variables in a simple picture through the use of graphics. However, on the basis of graphical assessment, together with the skewness and kurtosis measurement, it was found that the variables were likely to depart from a normal distribution because the skewness and kurtosis values were not zero (the values were between ±0.9, see Appendix G: Descriptive statistics of main survey data).

As far as managerial and social science research was concerned, what should be noted is the fact that "it is unlikely that the statistical assumptions will ever be met in a strict sense" (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988, p.81). Furthermore, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), in a large sample size (from 100 to above 200), skewness and kurtosis do not make a substantive difference to further analyse. According to Hair et al. (2010), the values of the skewness and kurtosis of this research were in the acceptable range of ± 3. Additionally, by examining Mardia's (1970) coefficient of the relative multivariate kurtosis indicator provided by PRELIS 2.8[28] (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001), it was found that the data had an acceptable level of multivariate normality (coefficient = 1.294, see Appendix I: Test of univariate normality and multivariate). As a result, it was safe to assume that the assumption of multivariate normality was met.

5.2.2.4 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is one of the important statistical assumptions that researchers should assess before performing multivariate analysis (Hair et al*.*, 2010). Homoscedasticity refers to "the assumption that dependent variables(s) exhibit equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variable(s)" (Hair et al*.*, 2010, p.74). First, the researcher examined the scatterplots (Hair et al*.*, 2010), where the pattern was found to be consistent. In addition, the researcher tested the assumption with Levene's test (Field, 2009). The test is normally used to assess whether the variances of metric variables were equal across a nonnumeric variable[29] (Field, 2009). If Levene's test is non-significant ($p > 0.05$), the homogeneity of variance assumption is tenable. However, the test can be significant in large samples, even when group variances are not very different (Field, 2009). Field (2009) suggests that the Levene's test should be interpreted in conjunction with the variance ratio. In order to calculate the variance ratio[30], the largest variance was divided by the smallest variance. It was found that the variance ratio was smaller than the critical value for comparing to two variances (approximately 1.67). Thus, the variances were not significantly different. After examining the variance ratio and the Levene's test (Levene's test was non-significant, $p > 0.05$, accept IBC 1[31]), it was found that the variances were not statistically different

[28] Companion software for LISREL
[29] Gender: male VS female
[30] The researcher obtained the variances by running the analysis for different groups of data in SPSS
[31] Only the Levene's test for IBC1 was found to be significant ($p < 0.05$). However, the variance ratio of IBC1 was (3.694/2.753) 1.341, which smaller than 1.67 (the critical value for comparing to 2 variances). Therefore, the variances were not significantly different for IBC1.

(see Appendix J). The non-significant result indicated that the homoscedasticity assumption was met (Field, 2009).

5.2.2.5 Linearity

Linearity is the assumption that "the mean values of the outcome variable for each increment of the predictor(s) lie along a straight line" (Field, 2009, p.76). Linearity is a required assumption of multivariate techniques because the correlations represent only the linear relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2010). In line with Hair et al. (2010), the most common way to assess the linearity of the relationships is to identify nonlinear patterns in the data by examining scatterplots of the variables. Therefore, the researcher examined the scatterplots with a straight line, depicting the linear relationship. As a result, it was found that nonlinear patterns were absent from the data. In addition, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010, p.36), the residuals mirror "the unexplained portion of the independent variable", any non nonlinear portion of the relationship will, therefore, show up in the residuals. Hence, the researcher examined the residuals by running the simple regression analysis. The results showed that the relationship between the residuals and predicted values was not significant (p > 0.05). These, therefore, indicated the linearity of the relationships.

5.2.2.6 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is the assessment of the "extent to which a variable can be explained by the other variables in the analysis" (Hair et al., 2010, p.93). In order to access the degree of multicollinearity, the researcher first scanned the inter-correlation between variables in the correlation matrix (the R-matrix). While most of the correlation values were lower than 0.80, three of the correlation values were above 0.80 (0.829, 0.807 and 0.820), indicating that a multicollinearity problem might exist (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, in order to determine the impact of multicollinearity on the results, variance inflation factors (VIFs) and tolerance statistics[32] acquired from SPSS program were checked (Hair et al., 2010). It was found that the tolerance values were above 0.50[33] (Hair et al., 2010; Menard, 1995). In addition, none of VIFs values was above 10

[32] VIF = $(1/1-R^2)$………..(1)
Tolerance value = $1-R^2$……….........(2)

[33] The tolerance value should be above 0.1 (Menard, 1995) and close to 1 (Hair et al., 2010).

(the largest was 1.949), which implies that there was no excessive linear relationship between a predictor and other predictors (Myers, 1990). Hence, the results suggest that the multicollinearity problem should have little effect on the interpretation of the findings (Hair et al., 2010).

5.2.2.7 Common method bias

The data in this study were self-reported and collected by means of the same questionnaire for measuring all variables (dependent variables and independent variables) during the same period of time, indicating that issues of common method bias be of concern. According to Hair et al. (2010, p.764), the common method bias (or constant methods bias) implies that "the covariance among measured items is influenced by the fact that some or all of the responses are collected with the same type of scale". For this reason, the study might have been affected by common method bias (Hair et al., 2010).

The researcher determined the existence of common method variance bias among the study variables by performing Harman's (1967 cited in Podsakoff & Organ, 1986, p.536) single-factor test. This test is a widely known approach for assessing common method variance bias in a single-method research design (e.g., Greene & Organ, 1973; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Schriesheim, 1979). To carry out this test, the items were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis[34] using: 1) unrotated principal components factor analysis; 2) principal component analysis with varimax rotation; and 3) principal axis analysis with varimax rotation. According to Podsakoff and Organ (1986, p.536), a common method variance is present when "either (a) a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis, or (b) one "general" factor will account for the majority of the covariance in the dependent and criterion variables". In this examination, no single factor emerged. In addition, each factor explained less than fifty percent (minority) of the variance in the data.

[34] The criterian for choosing factors is an eigen value greater than 1

Additionally, after the structural model was tested through the use of structural equation modelling (SEM), a common methods factor[35] was included in the final model (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It was found that all the significant relationships remained the same as in the model without the common methods factor[36]. For this reason, the researcher believes that the common method bias in the data is relatively limited and is unlikely to confound the interpretations of results.

In summary, the data examination presented above was conducted in order to ensure that the required data assumptions for performing multivariate analysis had been met. The researcher examined the general statistical properties of data sets, i.e., the sample adequacy, missing data analysis, outlier analysis, normality analysis, homoscedasticity, linearity and multicollinearity as well as the common method bias. From the overall results, it can be concluded that the required assumptions were met.

However, two important issues should be noted. The first issue was the fact that some outliers were detected, as noted above, but the researcher decided not to remove any outliers without demonstrable proof that they were "truly aberrant and not representative of any observations in the population" (Hair et al., 2010, p.67). In addition, the retention of outliers is a way "to ensure generalisability to the entire population" (Hair et al., 2010, p.67). The second issue was the fact that the variables were likely to depart from a normal distribution. Although the skewness and kurtosis values were in the acceptable range[37] (Hair et al., 2010), the estimation method in the multivariate analysis had to be chosen carefully because the variables were not altogether normally distributed. According to Bentler and Chou (1987), it is acceptable to examine the non-normal distribution data through the use of normal theory maximum likelihood (ML) estimators in structural equation modelling. Nevertheless, when performing the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the assessment of model fit indices must exhibit reliable results in order to overcome an untrustworthy χ^2 (chi-square)

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[35] "Items are allowed to load on their theoretical constructs, as well as on a latent common methods variance factor" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p.891).

[36] The structural model without common method factor : χ^2 (chi-square) = 2157.47; the Degrees of Freedom =588
The structural model with common method factor: χ^2 (chi-square) = 1788.79; the Degrees of Freedom =552

[37] The acceptable range for skewness and kurtosis is between ± 3 (Hair et al., 2010)

statistic and standard errors (Bentler & Chou, 1987). In the next step, the validity of the construct will be discussed.

5.2.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

After performing the data examination, the validity of the construct was assessed through confirmatory factor analysis. The analysis (CFA) was performed through the use of LISREL 8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). Several authors (e.g., Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991; Peter, 1981) insist that the validity of a construct is a crucial condition for developing and testing theory. The validity of a construct implies that "the constructs represent the theoretical latent construct they are designed to measure" (Hair et al., 2010, p.631). The dimensions of construct validation consist of the unidimensionality of a construct, its reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity (Peter, 1981; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991).

As the measurement and structural model would finally be tested through the use of structural equation modelling (SEM), a two-step approach in SEM suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was applied in this study. Regarding the two-step approach, the validity of the constructs (assessment of model fit) was first tested through the use of CFA (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Afterwards, the relationships between the constructs (structural model) were examined.

The researcher used LISREL 8.8 structural equation modelling software in order to perform the CFA. The constructs were incorporated into a group. The group consisted of four variables: 1) internal brand communications; 2) brand-centred training and development; 3) employees brand support and 4) transformational leadership characteristics (plus 5) a control variable of 'tenure'). The constructs were explained by 36 items (included an item of 'tenure' for measuring a control variable). As a result, the parameter estimate-to-observation ratio of this study was 9.6 observations per parameter (347/36; the sample size of this study was 347 observations). With regard to the acceptable parameter estimate-to-observation ratios, several authors (e.g., Bentler &

Chou, 1987; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005; Shoham, 1999) suggest that the ratios should be as least five observations per parameter. Therefore, the criteria were met.

As discussed earlier, the variables were likely to depart from a normal distribution (see Section 5.2.2.3), implying that asymptotic distribution free estimation methods should be applied for estimating parameters. However, the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method is the most widely employed technique in most SEM programs. Although the ML method is likely to be more efficient when the assumption of multivariate normality is met, ML method, compared with other estimation techniques, generates reliable results under any circumstances (Hair et al., 2010, p.663). Furthermore, according to Bentler and Chou (1987), examining the non-normal distribution data through the use of normal theory maximum likelihood (ML) estimators in structural equation modelling is acceptable. In addition, as regards the normality distribution assessment, the skewness and kurtosis values were in the acceptable range of ± 3 (Hair et al., 2010). The researcher therefore decided to use the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method to estimate the model. Nevertheless, to handle with the possible problem of standard errors due to ML application, model fit indicators were evaluated (Bentler & Chou, 1987). If the model fit indices show reliable results, it can be concluded that this problem has been overcome (Bentler & Chou, 1987). However, before evaluating model fit, the researcher first estimated the overall measurement model. Afterwards, the measurement model validity was also assessed by examining the model fit indices, reliability and validity. In the next section, the details of the examinations are presented.

5.2.3.1 Overall measurement model estimation

In order to estimate the measurement model, in line with the two-step approach in SEM (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), the researcher assessed 1) unidimensionality and 2) items per construct and model identification. In the next section, the results of the measurement model estimation (see Table 5.2, overleaf) are discussed.

Table 5.2: The overall measurement model (CFA)

ITEMS	Standardised Factor Loading	T-Values	SMC	AVE	Composite Reliability
Brand-centred training and development (α =0.910)				0.72	0.94
BCT1	0.71	14.80	0.50		
BCT 2	0.84	18.87	0.70		
BCT 3	0.80	17.48	0.63		
BCT 4	0.74	15.79	0.55		
BCT 5	0.72	15.20	0.52		
BCT 6	0.87	20.18	0.76		
BCT 7	0.71	14.94	0.51		
Employee brand support (α =0.912)				0.71	0.95
EBS 1	0.70	14.75	0.50		
EBS 2	0.84	19.01	0.70		
EBS 3	0.83	18.55	0.68		
EBS 4	0.75	16.21	0.57		
EBS 5	0.79	17.30	0.62		
EBS 6	0.81	18.01	0.66		
EBS 7	0.50	9.56	0.25		
EBS 8	0.77	16.73	0.59		
Internal communications (α =0.696)				0.57	0.84
IBC1	0.56	10.21	0.31		
IBC2	0.42	7.37	0.18		
IBC3	0.69	13.08	0.47		
IBC4	0.69	13.21	0.48		
Transformational leadership characteristics (α =0.965)				0.75	0.98
Idealised influence II1	0.79	17.55	0.62		
II2	0.81	18.26	0.66		
II3	0.87	20.49	0.76		
II4	0.84	19.31	0.71		
Inspirational motivation IM1	0.76	16.65	0.58		
IM2	0.84	19.16	0.70		
IM3	0.85	19.48	0.72		
IM4	0.70	14.74	0.49		
Intellectual stimulation IS1	0.82	18.72	0.68		
IS2	0.81	18.29	0.66		
IS3	0.82	18.41	0.67		
Individual consideration IC1	0.78	17.30	0.61		
IC2	0.78	17.32	0.61		
IC3	0.74	16.09	0.55		
IC4	0.82	18.63	0.68		
IC5	0.70	14.79	0.49		
Control variable: Tenure	1.00	26.31	1.00		

Item numbers: refer to those in the main questionnaire (different from those in EFA).
Square multiple correlation-SMC (a variable's individual reliability)

Source: developed by the researcher for this study

Unidimensionality: Unidimensionality implies that "a set of measured variables (indicators) can be explained by only one underlying construct" (Hair et al., 2010, p.696). Anderson and Gerbing (1988) stress that achieving unidimentional measurement is a vital step in testing and developing theory (see also Anderson & Gerbing, 1982). Therefore, the unidimensionality of the scales was evaluated first in conducting the CFA for the measurement model.

To conduct the CFA, the group was hypothesised to be a four-dimensional model (internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development, employees brand support and transformational leadership characteristics). After running the CFA, as presented in Table 5.2, each of them was found to load on only one corresponding dimension of well-fitting models (Hattie, 1985; Hughes, Price & Marrs, 1986; Netemeyer et al., 2003). There was no negative error variance and all parameters were statistically significant (t>1.96; $p < 0.05$).

Items per construct and model identification: Model identification was evaluated in order to clarify whether "enough information exists to identify a solution to a set of structural equations" (Hair et al., 2010, p.698). As suggested by several authors (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010), there should be at least three or four items for measuring a construct. As presented in Table 5.2, the constructs were measured by more than three items per construct, except a control variable[38]. Furthermore, the researcher ascertained whether there would be a statistical identification problem in the dataset. It was found the model had enough information for estimating parameters (over-identified[39]) and it was then ready for further analysis.

5.2.3.2 Measurement model validity assessment

In line with a two-step approach in structural equation modelling (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), after the overall measurement model was estimated, the researcher assessed the

[38] 'Tenure' was set as the control variable of the proposed model. According to Hair et al. (2010), "the exception to using multiple items to represent a construct comes when concepts can be adequately represented with a single item".

[39] Assessment of model identification: No. of items of Available Information is 666 ([s(s+1)/2]); No. of Hypothesised Dimensions is 4 and No. of Parameters to be Estimated* is 81 (Over-identified**)

Note: **s** is the number of items; *The number of parameters to be estimated was calculated by summing the number of path coefficients and error variances and subtracting by the number of reference paths in each model; **The number of available items of information about a model is more than the number of parameters to be estimated (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000) validity of the measurement model by examining 1) the model fit and 2) the reliability and validity of the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). In the next section, the results of the measurement model validity assessment and the final results of CFA are discussed.

Model fit assessment: According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988, p.416), apart from estimating the measurement model, a researcher should assess "how well the specified model accounted for the data with one or more overall goodness-of-fit indices". In order to test how well a measurement model fits a set of observations, the researchers assessed the model's overall fit. The aim of the model's overall fit is to confirm the consistency of a theoretical model and the estimated model based on the observed values (Hair et al., 2010).

Many statistics have been developed to test the overall fit of a model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). Nevertheless, none of them alone is able to completely guarantee the fit of a model. Each measure can be superior to the others under different conditions, affecting, for instance, "sample size, estimation procedure, model complexity, violation of underlying assumptions of multivariate normality and variable independence" (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p.83). The goodness-of-fit measures indicate the extent to which the sample covariances are reproduced by the observed covariance or correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), the goodness-of-fit measures, for example, chi-square statistics (χ^2), normed chi-square, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root mean residual (SRMR) are generally reported by several researchers. However, some of the goodness-of-fit indices are very sensitive to sample size (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000), for example, the GFI[40]. Hair et al. (2010, p.667) mention that the GFI was "an early attempt to produce a fit statistic that was less sensitive to sample size, even through sample size is not included in the formula, this statistic is still sensitive to sample size due to the effect of sample size on sampling distributions". Recently there

[40] As noted by Hair et al. (2010, p.667), "no statistical test is associated with the GFI, only guidelines to fit. The possible range of the GFI is 0 to 1, with the higher values indicating better fit". Therefore, it is likely that there are no absolute threshold levels for the acceptability of the GFI (Hair et al., 2010). (*The level of goodness of fit index was 0.73)

has been a decline in the use of GFI, which several researchers agree should be discouraged (Hair et al., 2010).

In this study, the model's overall fit is evaluated by using not only incremental fit measures but also absolute fit measures (Hair et al., 2010). The researcher evaluated seven measures of fit indices as follows: 1) chi-square statistics (χ^2); 2) normed chi-square; 3) normed fit index (NFI); 4) non-normed fit index (NNFI); 5) comparative fit index (CFI); 6) standardized root mean residual (SRMR) and 7) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The details are presented in Table 4.12 (Chapter 4). In addition, evaluating the measures of fit would overcome the problems of standard error due to ML application (Bentler & Chou, 1987).

As the basis of goodness-of-fit, chi-square statistic (χ^2) was assessed first (Hair et al., 2010). Chi-square statistic (χ^2) supplies "the key value in assessing the GOF (goodness-of-fit) of any SEM model" (Hair at al., 2010, p.665). Chi-square statistic (χ^2) is the only statistically-based measure of overall fit in structural equation modelling (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996; Hair at al., 2010). A lower value of chi-square (χ^2) shows a better fit between an estimated model and the observed data. In addition, the ratio to chi-square (χ^2) and the degrees of freedom (representing the amount of mathematical information available to estimate the model parameters) were calculated for a normed chi-square (Hair at al., 2010). Ratios in the order of 2:1 to 5:1 are associated with acceptably-fitting models (Marsh & Hovecar, 1985).

However, a chi-square (χ^2) statistic is likely to be very sensitive to sample size (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). For example, in a case where the sample size is higher than 200, significant differences will be found for any specified model. Therefore, with the aim of solving the likely problem of an unreliable chi-square statistic (χ^2), other kinds of fit indicators were also examined (Bentler & Chou, 1987).

In the early 1990s, fit indices with values from 0.90 were adequate for identifying model fit (Hair et al., 2010). However, recent studies agree that fit indices with cut-off values close to 0.95 are more appropriate for identifying model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, the values from 0.95 of normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI) and comparative fit index (CFI) were used for indicating a well-fitting model. Furthermore, Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999) suggest that a combination of the above relative fit indices with cut-off values close to 0.95 and the value of a standardized root mean residual (SRMR) below 0.08 is adequate for identifying a well-fitting model.

In addition, the researcher also evaluated the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The values of RMSEA which are below 0.05 indicate best fit, whereas values greater than 0.10 indicate poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010, p.667) note that "more recent research points to the fact that the drawing of an absolute cut-off for RMSEA is inadvisable". Moreover, an empirical examination of several measures found that the RMSEA was best suited for samples with above 500 respondents (Hair et al., 2010). Nevertheless, according to Browne and Cudeck (1993, p.144), "to employ a model with RMSEA more than 0.1" is not recommended.

Consequently, in line with the discussions above, the following were used in combination: chi-square statistics (χ^2); the ratio to chi-square (χ^2) and the degrees of freedom (normed chi-square) with the values below 5 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985); fit indices (NFI, NNFI, CFI) with values from 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Hair et al., 2010); standardized root mean residual (SRMR) with a value below 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with the value below 0.10 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). These were all used to identify a satisfactorily fitting model. The details of the model fit assessment and the criteria for acceptable fit are presented in Table 5.3 (overleaf).

Table 5.3: Model fit assessment and measures of fit indices

Types of index	Name	Value	Acceptable level
Basis of goodness-of-fit	Chi-square (χ^2)	2148.3; $p < 0.0001$	$p > 0.05$
	Degrees of freedom (df)	585	> 0
Incremental fit indices	Normed fit index(NFI)	0.95	≥ 0.95
	Non-normed fit index(NNFI)	0.96	≥0.95
	Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.96	≥0.95
Absolute fit indices	Normed chi-square(The χ^2/df)	3.67	<5
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.092	<0.10
	Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR)	0.05[41]	<0.08

Source: developed by the researcher on the basis of the literature (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Marsh et al., 2004; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; and Hair et al., 2010.

As presented in Table 5.3, the result of the analysis exhibited a good model fit. Although the chi-square (χ^2) value was significant (χ^2 = 2148.30, df = 585, p < 0.0001) indicating poor fit, the other absolute and incremental fit indices demonstrated that the model was an adequate representation of the relationships proposed between the constructs.

First of all, the normed chi-square (χ^2/df; 2148.30/ 585) was 3.67, lower than 5 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). In addition, the value of RMSEA (RMSEA = 0.092) suggested that the model can be employed, since Browne and Cudeck (1993) recommend employing a model with RMSEA below 0.10. Moreover, the values of: comparative fit index (CFI); normed fit index (NFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI) were all above the cut- off value (0.96, 0.95 and 0.96 respectively), exhibiting good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999). Furthermore, the value of the standardized root mean residual (SRMR) was 0.05, indicating good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999). Additionally, in line with Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999), a combination of the relative fit indices (CFI, NFI, NNFI) with values from 0.95 and standardized root mean residual (SRMR) with a value below 0.08

[41] Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999) suggest that a combination of incremental fit indices (e.g., NFI, NNFI and CFI) with cut-off values close to 0.95 and the value of a standardized root mean residual (SRMR) below 0.08 is adequate for identifying a well-fitting model.

is adequate to identify a good fit model (SRMR= 0.05). Consequently, it can be concluded that all requirements were satisfied, indicating a satisfactory fit in the model.

Apart from evaluating goodness of fit indices, path estimate was also examined. By examining the path estimates, the researcher identified those potential indicators which may be candidates for deletion from the model. The loading estimates of each indicator on a construct were evaluated (Hair et al., 2010). According to the examination, the loadings were above 0.50, at p-value < 0.0001, indicating a well-fitting model (Hair et al., 2010), except for IBC2 (loading = 0.42). Nevertheless, the item of IBC2 was retained because deleting this item would reduce the construct's reliability[42] (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, concerning the high variance extracted of the construct (see Table 5.2), the internal brand communications (IBC)'s AVE was greater than the suggested level of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). Besides, the t-values were all above significant level (greater than 1.96), ranging from 7.37 to 20.18[43].

Validity and reliability assessment: In the CFA, the measurement was also subjected to validity and reliability tests. However, in order to evaluate the validity of the measurement, 1) content validity, 2) face validity and 3) ecological validity were first assessed and discussed in the previous chapter (see Section 4.4.5). In addition, the validity of a construct is an essential condition for testing and developing theory (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991). Construct validity is concerned with the theoretical relationship of one variable to other variables (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955 cited in de Vellis, 1991, p.47). This implies that the degree to which the construct is empirically captured by its indicators (Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991). However, in order to claim that a construct is valid, convergent and discriminant validity as subtypes of construct validity were first assessed in this stage by examining whether the factor loadings of items in their respective constructs are large[44] and statistically significant[45] (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). Besides, in order to claim that the constructs were valid, the researcher also assessed the

[42] Cronbach's alpha (α) would drop from 0.696 to 0.671
[43] *t*- value of Tenure (control variable)= 26.31
[44] Factor loading which is equal to or greater than 0.5 is considered the minimum level at which convergent validity can be suggested (Hair et al., 2010).
[45] Any factor loading whose corresponding t-value was greater than 1.96 for the 0.05 significance level was considered statistically significant.

unidimensionality[46] of the construct and the nomological validity (e.g., Peter, 1981; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991). The assessments of the construct validity are discussed in the next section.

Convergent validity: Convergent validity refers to the extent to which independent measures of the same construct converge or are highly correlated. In order to assess the convergent validity, the factor loadings and the average percentage of variance extracted (AVE) were evaluated (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). The factor loading of each item was found to be fairly high (Hair et al., 2010) because most items ranged from 0.5 to a maximum of 0.87, except for IBC2 (factor loading = 0.42). Although the factor loading of IBC2 from the internal brand communication construct was less than 0.5, the average percentage of variance extracted (AVE) of the construct was 0.52, which was higher than the value suggested by several authors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010) for adequate convergence. The desirable minimum levels of the average variance extracted (AVE) is 0.5[47] (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, all the t-values were above 1.96 (0.05 significance level).

The researcher also calculated the composite reliability indices (ρ_η) for all dimensions. The desirable minimum level of the composite reliability index is 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). The composite reliability indices were found to be satisfactory (0.94 for brand centred-training and development, 0.95 for employee brand support, 0.84 for internal brand communications and 0.98 for transformational leadership characteristics). Moreover, the average variance extracted (AVE) of each factor was also satisfactory (0.72 for brand centred-training and development, 0.71 for employee brand support, 0.57 for internal brand communications and 0.75 for transformational leadership characteristics). As a result, the model exhibited satisfactory construct reliability and convergent validity.

[46] the assessment of the unidimensionality of a construct is presented in section 5.2.3.1

[47] The formula for both indicators are as follows (Fornell & Larcker, 1981, p.46):

$\rho_\eta = (\Sigma \text{ standardised loading})^2/[(\Sigma \text{ standardised loading})^2+\Sigma\varepsilon_j]$

$AVE = \Sigma (\text{standardised loading}^2)/[\Sigma (\text{standardised loading}^2)+\Sigma\varepsilon_j]$

where the standardised loadings are obtained directly from the LISREL output and ε_j is the measurement error for each indicator (one minus the square of the indicator's standardised loading).

Discriminant validity: Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which measures diverge from other operationalisations from which the construct is conceptually distinct. Furthermore, discriminant validity was assessed via chi-square difference tests for every pair of estimated constructs (one pair at a time). The test was completed by comparing the chi-square (χ^2) values obtained from an unconstrained and a constrained model, in which the correlation between two constructs was set to be zero. If the difference is statistically significant (the difference > 3.841: for one degree of freedom at the 0.05 significance level), the discriminant validity for both constructs is evidenced (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In general, all constructs were found to have adequate discriminant validity (i.e., p-values < 0.01 for all $\Delta \chi^2$). Table 5.4 shows the complete results of the chi-square (χ^2) difference tests.

Table 5.4: Results of the discriminant validity test (Chi-Square Difference Test)*

Pairs of Constructs	Unconstrained Model		Constrained Model*		Difference**	
	χ^2	df	χ^2	df	χ^2	df
1) EBS -BCT	353.70	89	594.05	90	240.35	1
2) EBS – IBC	260.98	53	326.47	54	65.49	1
3) EBS –LEADER	1378.29	251	2342.56	252	964.27	1
4) BCT- IBC	195.20	43	235.88	44	40.68	1
5) BCT – LEADER	1221.01	229	2139.54	230	918.53	1
6) IBC – LEADER	1148.62	169	1281.81	170	133.19	1
7) TENURE – EBS	115.97	27	1706.33	28	1590.36	1
8) TENURE – IBC	36.66	5	259.76	6	223.1	1
9) TENURE – BCT	77.88	20	1470.24	21	1392.36	1
10) TENURE - LEADER	994.27	119	5445.09	120	4450.82	1

* Models were constrained to the extent that the correlation (phi) between any two latent constructs was set to be one.
** Discriminant Validity: satisfies-All χ^2 difference > 3.841 (for one degree of freedom at the 0.05 significance level).

Source: developed by the researcher for this study

Nomological validity: According to Hair et al. (2010, p.691), nomological validity indicates "whether the correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense". In other words, it is the examination of the hypothesised relationships between constructs and the empirical link between indicators and their underlining constructs Therefore, the test can be assessed on the basis of the constructs correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2010). As presented in Table 5.5(overleaf), the matrix revealed that there were the correlations between the constructs. Likewise, it was proposed that the relationships between the constructs were related to one another. Therefore, these results indicated that the proposed relationships between the constructs were feasible.

Table 5.5: The constructs correlation matrix

Constructs	**EBS**	**IBC**	**BCT**	**LEADER**	**TENURE*** (Control variable)
EBS	1.00				
IBC	0.75	1.00			
BCT	0.84	0.82	1.00		
LEADER	0.61	0.56	0.58	1.00	
TENURE* (*Control variable)	0.12	-0.04	0.02	-0.14	1.00

Source: developed by the researcher on the basis of the LISREL output

According to the findings and the reliability and validity tests, the remaining scales exhibited good model fit, significant loadings and satisfactory reliability and validity (see Table 5.6, overleaf). In the next stage, the relationships between the constructs (structural equation model) are examined. Then the results of hypotheses testing are presented and discussed.

Table 5.6: Results of CFA

Model Fit Indicators	Value	Acceptable level	Standardised Factor Loading	T-Values	SMC	AVE	Composite Reliability
χ^2	2090.45 (p < 0.01)	< 572.06 (p > 0.05)					
df	518	≥0					
χ^2/df	3.67	<5					
CFI	0.96	>0.95					
NFI	0.95	>0.95					
NNFI	0.96	>0.95					
SRMR	0.05	<0.08					
RMSEA	0.092	<0.1					
Brand-centred training and development activities (α =0.910)						0.72	0.94
BCT1			0.71	14.80	0.50		
BCT 2			0.84	18.87	0.70		
BCT 3			0.80	17.48	0.63		
BCT 4			0.74	15.79	0.55		
BCT 5			0.72	15.20	0.52		
BCT 6			0.87	20.18	0.76		
BCT 7			0.71	14.94	0.51		
Employee brand support (α =0.912)						0.71	0.95
EBS 1			0.70	14.75	0.50		
EBS 2			0.84	19.01	0.70		
EBS 3			0.83	18.55	0.68		
EBS 4			0.75	16.21	0.57		
EBS 5			0.79	17.30	0.62		
EBS 6			0.81	18.01	0.66		
EBS 7			0.50	9.56	0.25		
EBS 8			0.77	16.73	0.59		
Internal communications (α =0.696)						0.57	0.84
IBC1			0.56	10.21	0.31		
IBC2			0.42	7.37	0.18		
IBC3			0.69	13.08	0.47		
IBC4			0.69	13.21	0.48		
Transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (α =0.965)						0.75	0.98
Idealised influence	II1		0.79	17.55	0.62		
	II2		0.81	18.26	0.66		
	II3		0.87	20.49	0.76		
	II4		0.84	19.31	0.71		
Inspirational motivation	IM1		0.76	16.65	0.58		
	IM2		0.84	19.16	0.70		
	IM3		0.85	19.48	0.72		
	IM4		0.70	14.74	0.49		
Intellectual stimulation	IS1		0.82	18.72	0.68		
	IS2		0.81	18.29	0.66		
	IS3		0.82	18.41	0.67		
Individual consideration	IC1		0.78	17.30	0.61		
	IC2		0.78	17.32	0.61		
	IC3		0.74	16.09	0.55		
	IC4		0.82	18.63	0.68		
	IC5		0.70	14.79	0.49		
Control variable: Tenure			1.00	26.31	1.00		

All t-values=>1.96 (0.05 significance level); All SFL =>0.50 (except IBC2) and all AVE=>0.50
Item numbers refer to those in the main questionnaire (different from those in EFA).
SMC-Squared Multiple Correlation; **AVE**-Average Variance Extracted

Source: developed by the researcher for this study

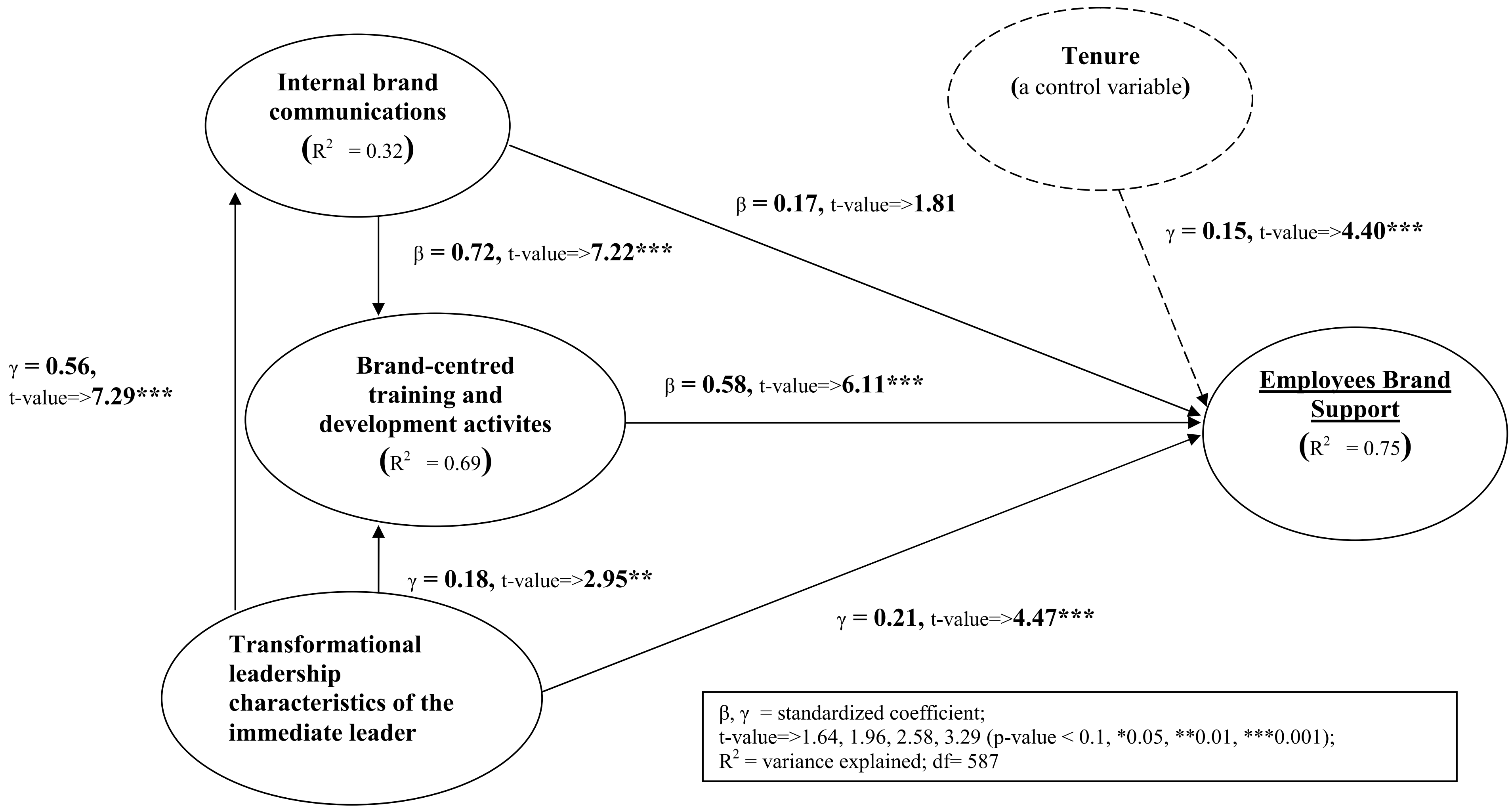
5.2.4 The evaluation of the structural model

The researcher tested the proposed model (based on the research hypotheses) on the basis of the structural model presented in Figure 5.2 (overleaf). The model consisted of four latent variables (identified by 35 items) and one control variable (a latent variable, identified by an item of 'tenure'). First, the researcher tested the model by examining the covariance matrix, path estimates and t-values. The examination showed that five out of seven paths were statistically significant at p-value < 0.001 (the t-values [48] were above 3.29). In addition, the other two paths were statistically significant at p-values $<$ 0.01 and 0.1 (the t-values were above 2.58 and 1.64, respectively). The values of R^2 (variance explained)[49] indicated that the model explained about 32 percent of the variance in internal brand communications (IBC), 69 percent of that in the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and 75 percent in the employee brand support (EBS) construct ($R^2 = 0.32, 0.69, 0.75, p < 0.05$).

In order to identify how well the model fitted, the researcher employed a combination of the following: chi-square statistic (χ^2); normed chi-square (χ^2/df) below 5 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985); fit indices with the values from 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Hair et al., 2010); a standardized root mean residual (SRMR) with a value below 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with a value below 0.10 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Although the chi-square (χ^2) was significant (p-value < 0.05), based on a combination of the goodness-of-fit indices (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985; Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hair et al., 2010), the results showed that all requirements were satisfied, indicating a satisfactory fit model ($\chi^2 = 2154.23$; df = 587; χ^2/df = 3.66; CFI = 0.96;NFI = 0.95; NNFI = 0.96; SRMR = 0.051; RMSEA = 0.092).

[48] The first variable of each dimension was a reference variable; therefore, t-values could not be calculated for those variables.
[49] The coefficients of determination (R-squares) for measurement equations should be above 0.30 (Diamontopoulos & Siguaw, 2000)

Figure 5.2: The structural model, standardised coefficient, t-values and variance explained



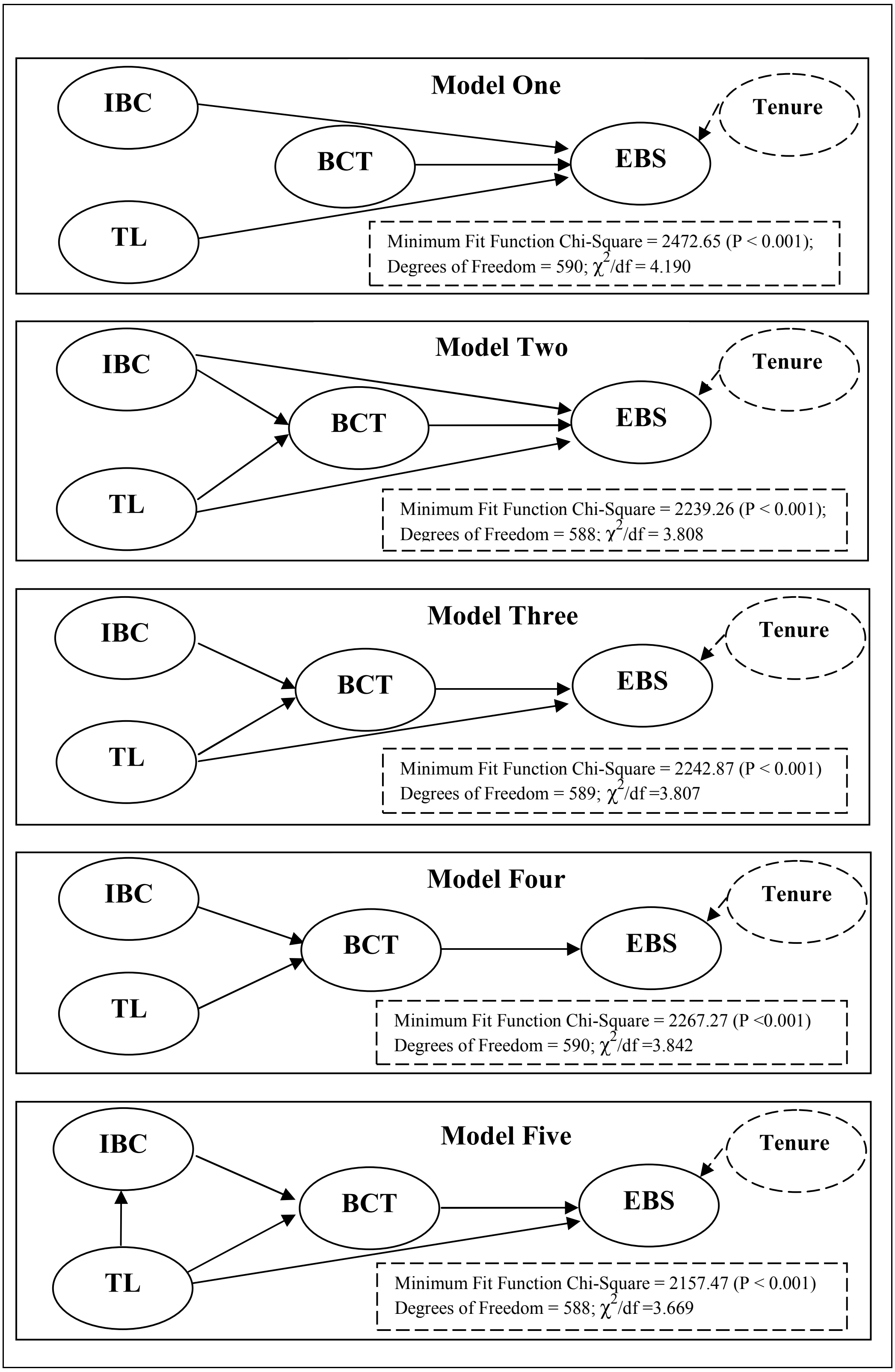
However, according to Baumgartner and Homburg (1996), any model estimate attempt should be subject to testing of the role of mediating relationships by comparing the constrained and unconstrained models. In the next stage, the proposed model is compared with the most plausible model in order to examine whether it is a better model than the nearest likely model (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Kelloway, 1998; Butts et al., 2009). Furthermore, the details of examining the further mediation effect in order to evaluate whether the brand-centred training and development construct and internal brand communications construct were mediators of the relationships between variables are discussed in the next section.

5.3.5 The comparison of models and examination of the mediation effect

As suggested by Baumgartner and Homburg (1996), any model estimate attempt should be subject to testing the role of the mediating relationships by comparing the constrained and unconstrained models. These two authors argue that a model which fits well should always be compared to the next most plausible model to show whether it is a better model than the nearest likely model. As regards the mediator roles of the constructs, the researcher also analysed to address mediator roles of the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct and internal brand communications (IBC) construct, as well as to indentify whether the BCT construct was a full mediator or a partial mediator in the model. The researcher, therefore, tested the existence of mediation by comparing a full mediation model with a partially mediated model and a direct effects model (Kelloway, 1998; Butts et al., 2009).

The researcher estimated the models and checked the chi-square (χ^2) values as well as the degree of freedom of each construct in order to assess the improvement in model fit (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kelloway, 1998; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Butts et al., 2009). The model with the smaller chi-square (χ^2) was considered the better model. However, in cases where the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of 2 models is not significant (the difference between χ^2 values < 3.841; χ^2 with one degree of freedom), the model with more degrees of freedom will be selected as the better model.

Figure 5.3: Estimated models for the examination of the mediation effect



Source: developed by the researcher for this study

As presented in Figure 5.3 (the previous page), in order to check whether the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a mediator between the relationships, two models were first estimated (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). For the first model (Model One: a direct effects model), the path coefficients of the direct relationships among internal brand communications (IBC), transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) were set to zero. However, in the second model (Model Two: a partial mediation model), the direct relationship between the constructs of 1) internal brand communications (IBC) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and 2) transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) was estimated freely. Regarding the chi-square difference test of Model One and Model Two, the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of the models was 233.39 (χ^2 [Model One] - χ^2 [Model Two]; 2472.65-2239.26), which was more than the chi-square (χ^2) value with two degrees of freedom[50] (5.991). As the model with smaller chi-square (χ^2) is a better model, Model Two was therefore considered to be the better model. These results claimed the mediating roles of the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct.

Furthermore, in order to test whether the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a full mediator or a partial mediator in the model, a third model was estimated. In the third model (Model Three), the direct relationships between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS) were controlled by setting the path coefficient to zero. In other words, in Model Three, BCT was hypothesized to be a partial mediator of the relationship between TL and EBS, while being a full mediator of the relationship between IBC and EBS. Next, the chi-square difference test was computed. The difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of the Model Two and Model Three was 3.61 (χ^2 [Model Three] - χ^2 [Model Two]; 2242.87-2239.26), which is less than the chi-square value with one degree of freedom[51] (3.841). Therefore, the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of Model Two and Model Three was not significant. Even though the model with the smaller chi-square (χ^2) was considered the better model, when the chi-square difference test is not

[50] Two degrees of freedom: calculated by df[Model One]-df[Model Two]; 590-588
[51] One degree of freedom: calculated by df[Model One]-df[Model Two]; 589-588

significant, the model with more degrees of freedom will be selected. In this case, therefore, Model Three was selected. These results indicated that the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a full mediator of the relationships between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS), while being a partial mediator of the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS).

However, the researcher also tested whether the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a full mediator in the model by estimating a fourth model to compare with Model Three. In the fourth model (Model Four), the direct relationships between: 1) internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS); and 2) transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS) were controlled by setting the path coefficient to zero. Then the chi-square difference test was computed. The difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of Model four and Model Three was 24.4 (χ^2 [Model Four] - χ^2 [Model Three]; 2267.27- 2242.87), which is more than the chi-square (χ^2) value with one degree of freedom[52] (3.841). Therefore, the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of Model Four and Model Three was significant. As the model with smaller chi-square was considered a better model, Model Three was better than Model Four. These results supported that the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a full mediator of the relationships between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS), while being a partial mediator of the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS).

Moreover, the researcher tested whether a direct relationship between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and internal brand communications (IBC) existed in the model by estimating a fifth model (Model Five) to compare with model three. In Model Five, the relationship between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and internal brand communications (IBC) was estimated freely, whereas the other relationships were remained the same as the Model Three. When the chi-square

[52] One degree of freedom: calculated by df[Model Four]-df[Model Three]; 590-589 =1

difference test was computed, the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of the Model Five and the Model Three was 85.4 (χ^2 [Model Three] -χ^2 [Model Five]; 2242.87-2157.47), which was more than the chi-square (χ^2) value with one degree of freedom[53] (3.841). Therefore, the difference between the chi-square (χ^2) values of the Model five and the Model three was significant. As the model with smaller chi-square (χ^2) was considered a better model, therefore Model Five was better than Model Three. Consequently, the direct relationship between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and internal brand communications (IBC) was supported. However, regarding the best estimated model found in the study, the direct relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS) was not supported. These results indicated that the internal brand communications (IBC) construct was not a mediator of the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS).

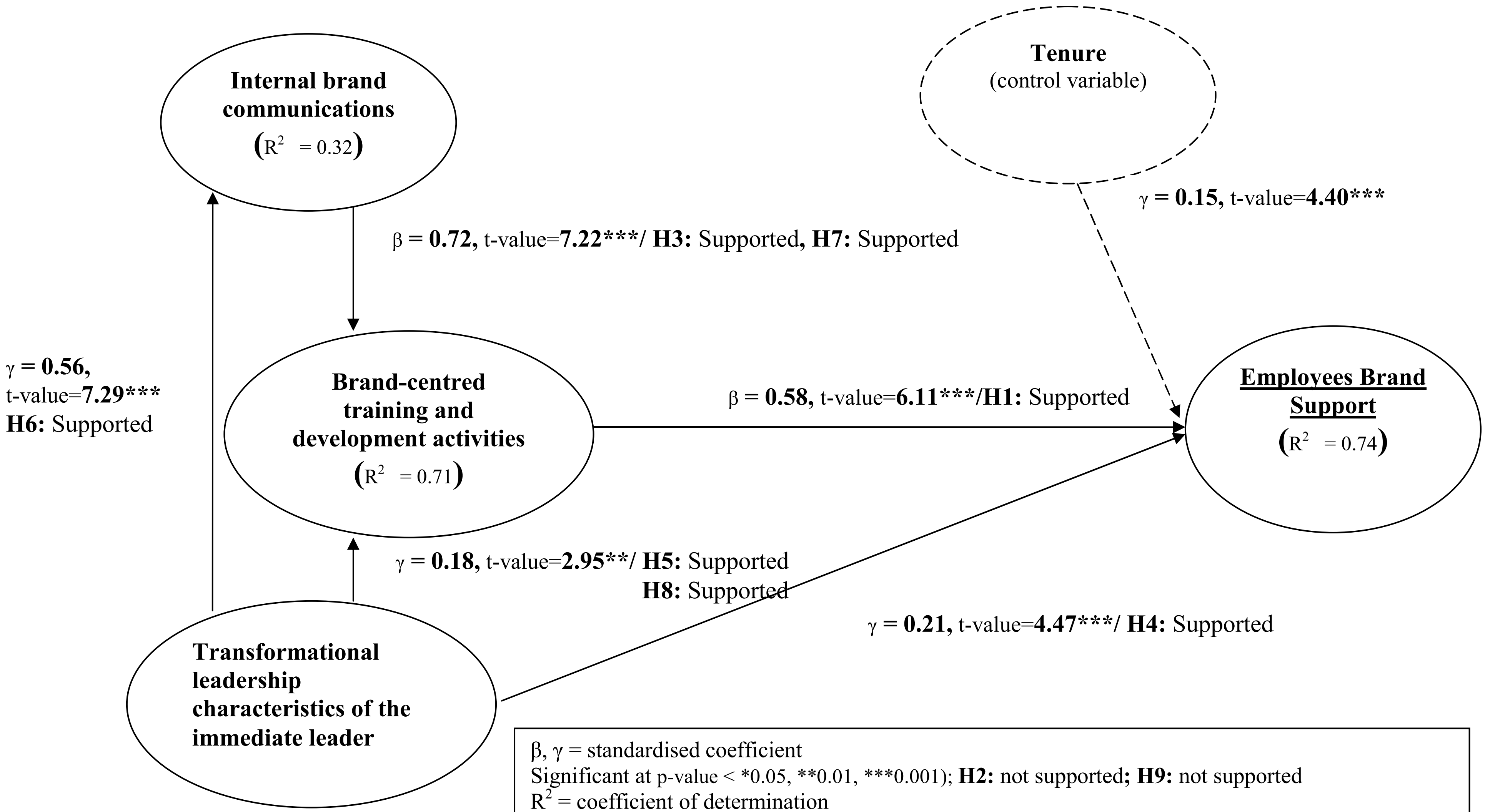
According to the examination discussed above, the best model is presented in Figure 5.4. The model indicates that the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a full mediator of the relationships between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS), while being a partial mediator of the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS). However, the mediator role of the internal brand communications (IBC) construct on the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS) was not supported.

The results of examining how well the model fitted show that all the requirements were satisfied. Although the chi-square (χ^2) value was significant (χ^2 = 2157.48, df = 588, p < 0.0001) indicating poor fit, the other fit indices (absolute and incremental fit indices) illustrated that the model was an adequate representation of the relationships proposed between the constructs. First of all, the normed chi-square (χ^2/ *df*; 2157.48/ 588 = 3.669) was lower than the ratio of five (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). In addition, since Browne and Cudeck (1993) insist on employing a model with RMSEA below 0.10, the employment of this model was acceptable (RMSEA = 0.92). In addition, the values of:

[53] One degree of freedom: calculated by df[Model Three]-df[Model Five]; 589-588 = 1

comparative fit index (CFI); normed fit index (NFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI) exhibited good fit (0.96, 0.95 and 0.96 respectively). Moreover, in line with Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999), a combination of the fit indices (CFI, NFI and NNFI) with the values from 0.95 and the standardized root mean residual (SRMR) with a value below 0.08 was adequate to identify a well-fitting model (SRMR = 0.051). Consequently, it can be concluded that all requirements were satisfied, indicating a satisfactory fit model.

Figure 5.4: Best model (the structural model, standardised coefficient, t-values and variance explained)



β, γ = standardised coefficient
Significant at p-value < *0.05, **0.01, ***0.001); **H2:** not supported**; H9:** not supported
R^2 = coefficient of determination
$\mathbf{X^2}$ =2157.47: **Df**=588: $\boldsymbol{\gamma^2}$**/df**=3.66**:CFI**=0.96**: NFI**=0.95: **NNFI**=0.96**: SRMR**=0.051:**RMSEA**=0.092

5.2.6 The examination of the research hypotheses

The researcher examined the explanatory power of the structural equation by inspecting the squared multiple correlations (SMC or R^2) for structural equations, which indicate the amount of variance in the dependent (endogenous) variable accounted for by the independent (exogenous) variable. It was found that 74 % of the variance in the employees brand support construct was explained by independent variables (brand-centred training and development activities; transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders and tenure). In addition, 71% of the variance in brand-centred training and development activities construct was explained by the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders and the internal brand communications. Furthermore, 32% of the variance in the internal brand communications construct was explained by the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders factor, which had statistically significant relationships with it.

The main aims of this analysis were to predict the direct causal relationships between the studied constructs (employee brand support-EBS, brand-centred training and development activities-BCT, internal brand communications-IBC and transformational leadership characteristics-TL). Therefore, as regards the direct relationships between employee brand support (EBS) and the antecedent factors of interest, it was found that only transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) had a statistically significant impact on employee brand support (EBS) at the 0.001 significance level (t-values [BCT - EBS] = 6.11 > 3.29); t-values [TL - EBS] =4.47 > 3.29) (H1 and H4 were supported). While, the influence of internal brand communications (IBC) on employee brand support (EBS) was not supported. Hypothesis H2 was, therefore, not supported. Nevertheless, the relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) was supported (H3 was supported) at the 0.001 significance level (t-values [IBC - BCT] = 7.22 > 3.29).

In addition, the influence of transformational leadership characteristics (TL) on 1) brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and 2) internal brand communications were supported (H5 and H6 were supported) at the 0.01 significance level (t-values [TL-BCT] = 2.95 > 2.58) and the 0.001 significance level (t-values [TL-IBC] = 7.29 > 3.29), respectively. As discussed above, the relationships among brand-centred training and development activities (BCT), employee brand support (EBS) and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (TL) were supported. The model, therefore, demonstrated that the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (TL) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) predict employee brand support (EBS) behaviour. Besides, the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (TL) also predicted brand-centred training and development activities (BCT). That is, the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) construct was a partial mediator of the relationship between employee brand support (EBS) and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (TL) (H8 was supported). This indicated that the transformational leadership characteristic of immediate leaders (TL) may partly affect employee brand support behaviour (EBS) through the effect of the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) on employee brand support behaviour (EBS).

Nevertheless, in examining the corresponding path estimates and t-values for the link between employee brand support (EBS), brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) and internal brand communications (IBC), it was found that brand-centred training and development was a full mediator of the relationship between employee brand support and internal brand communications. That is, the link between employee brand support (EBS) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) was supported, while the relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS) was not supported. These, therefore, signified a full mediator role for the brand-centred training and development activities (H7 was supported), indicating that the influence of internal brand communications on employee brand support (EBS) behaviour presented through the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) in institutions. This implies that internal brand communications (IBC) may not be able to effectively create employee brand support behaviour (EBS) without having the brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) in place.

As discussed above, the relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS) was not supported. Consequently, in examining the corresponding path estimates and t-values for the link between employee brand support (EBS), the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (TL) and internal brand communications (IBC), it was found that internal brand communications (IBC) was not a mediator of the relationship between employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader (TL). The hypothesis H9 was, therefore, not supported.

Table 5.7: Results of hypotheses testing

Research questions	Hypotheses	Result
RQ1) What is the relationship, if any, between internal branding activities (i.e., 1. brand-centred training and development activities; and 2. internal brand communications) and employee brand support?	H1: Brand-centred training and development activities are positively related to employee brand support.	Supported
	H2: Internal brand communications are positively related to employee brand support.	Not supported
RQ2) Are the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader determinants of employee brand support?	H4: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to employee brand support.	Supported
RQ3) Is the impact of internal branding and leadership characteristics on employee brand support direct? In other words, are there any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between internal branding activities, employee brand support and leadership characteristics?	H3: Internal brand communications are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.	Supported
	H7: The relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.	Supported (fully mediated)
	H5: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities.	Supported
	H6: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to internal brand communications.	Supported
	H8: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.	Supported (partially mediated)
	H9: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by internal brand communications.	Not supported

Source: developed by the researcher for the study

In conclusion, hypotheses H1, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7 and H8 were supported, while H2 and H9 was not supported (see Table 5.7). Furthermore, among the antecedents of employee brand support, the brand-centred training and development had the highest impact on employee brand support (standardised coefficient = 0.58), whereas the tenure, as a control variable, had the lowest impact on employee brand support (standardised coefficient = 0.15).

5.3 Summary

In summary, the findings from the main survey data are presented based on the structural model and hypotheses testing. The initial data examination was first carried out in order to prepare the data for the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The measurement model and the structural model were assessed on the basis of 347 cases. The required data assumptions for performing multivariance factor analysis were also examined, before a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed. According to the investigation, the requirements were satisfied. Then model fit was examined, as well as reliability and construct validity. It was found that the model fitted well with the data. Besides, the reliability and construct validity were supported. After performing all the analyses, the measurement scales were found to possess satisfactory measurement properties.

For the structural model and hypotheses testing, the findings showed statistical significance in most of the proposed relationships between employee brand support (EBS), brand-centred training and development activities (BCT), internal brand communications (IBC) and transformational leadership characteristics (TL). However, the link between internal brand communications and employee brand support (EBS) was not statistically supported. The results supported that brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) was a full mediator of the relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS), while being a partial mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership characteristics (TL) and employee brand support (EBS). In the next chapter, the findings are discussed in greater detail.

Chapter 6 Discussion

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the findings presented in Chapter 5 are discussed in conjunction with support from the theory presented in the literature review chapter. The information obtained from the in-depth interviews of the exploratory stage is also provided as an example of the discussion. In addition, the findings and the reasons for the revealed relationships are discussed by revisiting the research instrument and considering the possible impact of the scope of the measures adopted. First, an overview of the study is presented. Then, the findings of the hypothesis testing are reviewed and discussed. The influences of aspects of internal branding on employee brand support are first discussed. Following this, the influence of the characteristics of transformational leadership on employee brand support is analysed. Finally, the mediating effects embedded in the relationship between employee brand support and the antecedent factors of interest (internal branding factors and the immediate leader's leadership characteristics) are clarified.

6.2 Overview of the study

This thesis investigates from the academic staff perspective the relationships between brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications, employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of staff's immediate leaders within the context of Thai universities. As presented in the previous chapter, the research question of this thesis can be divided into three sub-questions as follows: first, what is the relationship, if any, between internal branding activities and employee brand support? second, do the leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader determine employee brand support? and third, is the impact of internal branding and leadership characteristics on employee brand support direct? In other words, are there any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between employee brand support and its antecedent factors (those of internal branding and the immediate leader's leadership characteristics)?

In order to answer the research questions, the researcher took a mixed-methods approach. She started by exploring the concepts of interest from the existing literature in order to develop measurement scales (Churchill, 1979). Next, the measurement scales from the literature were extracted. To generate additional items with regard to the research context, a qualitative study was also conducted in Thailand. As a result, the researcher added possible new items based on the qualitative findings for the measurement scales. Through the use of semi-structured interviews, the researcher not only generated the measurements scales, but also gained a deeper understanding of the topic and comprehended the constructs in the conceptual model. During the interviews, the researcher also assessed the content validity of the measurement scales (Churchill, 1979).

A pilot study was conducted in order to gather data for purifying the measurement scales. During the measurement scale purification, to ensure the validity of the measurement scales, the researcher performed two rounds of data reduction, i.e., 1) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in the pilot study and 2) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in the main survey. The reliability and construct validity tests indicated that the measurement of the studied constructs (brand-centred training and development, employee brand support, internal brand communication and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders) were satisfied. In addition, the satisfactory fit indices were supported in both the measurement and the structural model.

According to the hypothesis tests, most of the research hypotheses were supported (H1, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7 were supported; H2 and H9, the exceptions, were not supported). Brand-centred training and development activities and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders were significantly related to employee brand support. However, an unexpected outcome was found. This was that the direct relationship between the internal brand communication activities and employee brand support was not backed up by evidence, indicating that the internal brand communication activities may not directly create brand support behaviour. Nevertheless, the findings exhibited an indirect effect of internal brand communications on employee brand support, through the impact of the brand-centred training and development activities on the employee brand support. These unexpected outcomes can be attributed to a possible mediation effect of the brand-centred training and development activities, which may be inserted boundary conditions for the relationship between employee brand support and internal branding activities. More details of this unexpected outcome will be discussed below in this chapter. In the next sections, the discussions of the hypothesis tests are presented.

6.3 Discussion of the hypothesis tests

In line with the research questions and hypotheses, the main aim of this investigation was first to examine from the academic staff's perspective the relationships between internal branding activities, employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of immediate leaders within the staff of Thai universities.

Based on a suggestion from the theory, the constructs of brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and the transformational leadership characteristics of staff members' immediate leader were examined as antecedent factors of the employee brand support construct. The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported the uni-dimensionality and the discriminant validity of the constructs, consistent with the theoretical suggestion.

Additionally, the impact of organisational tenure (a control variable) on employee brand support was also examined. This thesis found that the impact of the organisational tenure on employee brand support was very small when compared to the impact on employee brand support of the brand-centred training and development activities and that of the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader. However, the relationship was found to be significant (p value < 0.001 significance level). These findings, therefore, were in line with previous studies (e.g., Wagner et al., 1987; McEnrue, 1988; Quinones et al., 1995; Ng & Feldman, 2010), which insist that organisational tenure positively impacts on employees' behaviour in an organisation. In line with human capital theory (Becker, 1964), long-tenure employees are more likely to be better supporters because they have accumulated more job-related knowledge over the course of their career. Thus, a long-tenure academic could be a better brand supporter because he/she is likely to apply more job-related knowledge about the institution's brand to act in alignment with the brand.

In the following sections, the results of the hypothesis tests are discussed with support from the existing literature. In order to provide more details about the phenomena, the qualitative findings acquired in the exploratory stage will be used as an example of the point being discussed.

6.4 Internal branding activities in universities

As discussed in Chapter 4, which is based on the interviews with academic staff during the items generation stage, this study has found that internal branding activities are likely to be operated within universities. Although the operation of internal branding was found to be varied, the respondents generally agreed that internal branding activities enable employees to support the institution's brand values, which are typically attached to some forms of the organisation's values, for example, the institution's mission and vision (Urde, 2003). From the interviews, evidence of the positive impact of the brand messages communicated via the institution's activities on employee brand support was found. Some employees might not have been very confident about stating the specific brand value of the institution. They, however, tended to relate the messages of, e.g., the institution's mission; vision; policy and purpose, to the institution's brand. They also used these messages as guidelines in supporting the institution's brand. For example, one participant stated that:

> *"Actually, what the institution communicates to us is not clearly stated as the institution's brand. However, I think what they communicate through the media are likely to be the image and brand that they want to be seen from the outside. The institution informs us that its main purpose is to develop our local community. In addition, it can probably be said that they assign us projects which could benefit the community, for example, conducting research in the community or providing some community service. In fact, participating in these activities gave me the feeling that I am a part of the institution's brand. I help people in the community as I am a part of the university. I guess this is what the university wants me to do. I think this is how the communications impact on my behaviour." (Interview 6)*

With regard to the first research question, the direct impact of internal branding activities on employee brand support was examined. The aspects of internal branding activities elicited on the basis of previous studies (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Chong, 2007) are internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities. As a result, the impacts of the brand-centred training and development activities construct and the internal brand communications construct on employee brand support were examined. The following sections discuss the impacts of the internal branding aspects on employee brand support, from the research findings, with support from the existing literature. Moreover, qualitative quotations acquired in the exploratory stage are also provided as an example of the relationship being discussed.

6.4.1 Brand-centred training and development activities: A determinant of employee brand support

With regard to hypothesis H1, the direct impact of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support was examined on the basis of the theory of marketing control (Jaworski, 1988). As a result of controls, employees are more likely to behave in ways consistent with "organisational goals", the "true aims of the organisation" and the "best interest of the organisation" (Jaworski, 1988, p.23). An empirical study conducted by Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) shows that training activities are the processes which help an organisation to develop and reinforce employees' behaviour in alignment with the organisational brand. In addition, several researchers (e.g., Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Aurand et al., 2005; Ind, 2007) insist that communicating brand values through human resource activities can encourage the staff to support the organisational brand. Consistent with the theoretical expectation, the hypothesis testing in this study demonstrated the positive impact of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support (H1 was thus supported).

The positive impact of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support found in this thesis is in line with the studies on the effects of control mechanisms. This field of study highlights the effects of control mechanisms on, for example, role clarity (Zeithaml et al., 1988), role ambiguity (Argyris, 1953) and job performance (e.g., Hopwood, 1972, Argyris, 1953). According to this theory, control devices are designed to affect individual action (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Jaworski, 1988; Jaworski et al., 1993).

Along with the types of control distinguished by Jaworski (1988), it is likely that brand-centred training and development activities can be categorised as formal control activities, which focus on behaviour, actions and/or activities as well as end results (Jaworski, 1988).

Brand-centred training and development programmes include, for example, training activities, performance evaluation, setting standard procedures and providing the skill set necessary to deliver an institution's values. Providing brand related training or seminars (captured by items, for example, BCT1: 'The school delivers brand values through training activities' and BCT6: 'The school provides training activities which are related to brand values'), is likely to help academic staff to have a clearer understanding of the brand. These activities can be seen as input control activities, a sub-type of formal control (Jaworski, 1988, p.26). As discussed in Chapter 2, the sub-types of formal control are input control, process control and output control (Jaworski, 1988). With input control (Jaworski, 1988), an organisation provides its employees with working guidelines (which do not need to be in the form of a specific working process) which are related to the institution's values, including the institution's goals, missions and visions, in order to ensure that employees are producing the desired results for attaining the organisation's goals. Being well informed about the brand values and the appropriate way of working could help an employee to clearly *understand the brand* and be *able to apply this knowledge in their work activities*. The brand support behaviour which could be produced by these types of control are, such as, EBS1: 'I am confident in my ability to clearly explain the institution's brand values' and item EBS2: 'I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to prioritise my tasks'.

In addition, the schools may encourage the brand support behaviour of an employee by *informing him/her of a specific way of working*, through the use of training and development activities. Setting standard procedures for delivering an institution's values (e.g., item BCT2: 'The school provides me with training to help me use brand values' and item BCT3: 'The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver brand values'), helps these activities to be seen as process control activities. When these process control activities are provided, the focus is on the behaviour and/or activities of the employees (Jaworski, 1988), which consequently direct employees *how to* behave in alignment with their institution's brand values. For example, items such as 'I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to prioritise my tasks'(EBS2) and 'I know what skills are necessary to deliver brand values (EBS4).

Comments obtained from the respondents during the exploratory stage also provide examples of the way in which brand-centred training and development activities may impact on employee brand support. Several respondents were likely to see the training activities as guidelines to clarify *how to* behave in alignment with their institution's brand. For example, a respondent who stated that his university policy is to lean more towards technology, simply mentioned his brand support behaviour in this regard:

> *"After I had an IT Training course, I knew how to develop web sites. I then created a web site that benefits my students..." (Interview 5)*

Nevertheless, brand-centred training and development activities may not only provide directions for employees, but may also, to some extent, control the brand supportive behaviours of employees. In line with Jaworski (1988), employees' behaviours are likely to be controlled by a system of performance reviews, which can be seen as an output control. Through the use of annual performance reviews and key performance indicators (KPIs) which are related to the brand (captured by item BCT4: '[…] brand values is part of the annual performance reviews'), employees' behaviours are directed by an output control tool. The examples of employees' behaviours which tend to be directed by the output control tool are, for example, item EBS6: 'I consider reviews of my work performance when making decisions on my work activities' and item EBS7: 'I obey the institutional rules'. In addition, a respondent also described from her perspective the use of KPIs in her school in these terms:

> *"I think what the institution wants us to do is designed and comes out in the form of the KPI [Key performance indicators] which are related to the mission and vision of the institution. I usually follow the institution's KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)*

Another example was that of a respondent who tended to describe his employee brand support as a result of control via the annual performance reviews, which is among the training activities. He stated:

> *"Actually, in my school, there are annual performance reviews which are used for tracking how much we put the training courses into practice. If we don't apply what we have learnt, we need to explain the reason to our boss" (Interview 5).*

The discussion above points to the important role of brand-centred training and development activities, as control activities that generate employee brand support. When brand values are communicated through training and development activities (e.g., training activities, performance evaluation and standard procedures providing the skill set necessary to deliver an institution's values), these formal control activities are likely to direct employees to behave in alignment with the organisation's brand values. Thus, for an institution to create employee brand support, the institution may need to apply brand-centred training and development activities because these activities are also seen by academic employees as presenting the rules and guidelines to help them to *clearly understand the brand* and be *able to apply this knowledge in their work activities*. In the next section, the role of internal brand communications in building employee brand support is discussed.

6.4.2 Internal brand communications: A determinant of employee brand support

With regard to research hypothesis H2, the direct impact of internal brand communication activities on employee brand support was examined. From the examination, it has been found that internal brand communications have a positive impact on employee brand support. Judson et al. (2006) make the point that when internal brand communication tools (i.e., university brochures, campus meetings, e-mail messages and university memos) have been implemented, university staff tend to have a "clearer understanding of their respective universities' brand values and are subsequently better able to use these brand values in their everyday work" (Judson et al., 2006, p.105). With reference to the types of formal control (Jaworski, 1988), internal brand communication activities in universities such as Judson refers to above tend to illustrate 'input control' (Jaworski, 1988). As stated earlier, with this type of control, the organisations may not formally communicate specific ways of working to their employees or even list them. Rather, in order to ensure that the employees produce the desired results for achieving organisation goals, the organisation communicates the organisation's goals, for example, its mission and vision (Jaworski, 1988). According to Urde (2003), the brand values are typically attached to some forms of organisational values, e.g., the organisation's mission and vision. Thus, the institution's values (including mission, vision and goals) could enlighten an employee on how the institution wants to be seen from outside, by being communicated to the employee by the following means: IBC1: ‘The school communicates brand values to me personally’; IBC2: ‘The school communicates brand values specifically to each group of employees, for example, departments’; IBC3: ‘The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures’ and IBC4: ‘The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications (e.g., school meetings)’.

As input control tools which inform the employee about the organisation’s brand values, these activities could help he/she to *understand the value*, for example, item EBS1: ‘I am confident in my ability to clearly explain the institution’s brand values’ and item EBS2: ‘I use my knowledge of my institution’s brand values to prioritise my tasks’). In addition, from the interview, this benefit of being able to communicate an institution’ values was also found when respondents described how internal brand communications impacted on their brand support behaviour, for example:

> *“The business school communicates that the university is for local students and the local community. This means that my teaching and research should focus on the university and local community. This is important because it is about how the university positions itself and also guides me in what I need to do in order to follow this direction.” (Interview 7)*

> *“The motto, mission and vision published on the University web pages were remembered by employees, thus guiding employee behaviour ...” (Interview 18)*

Furthermore, internal communication media are generally available for organisations to keep repeating the importance of the brand (Ind, 2007). Communicating brand messages through communication media, for example, the institution’s song, newsletter and promotional items (i.e., item IBC3: ‘The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications’) can provide an opportunity for the institution to keep repeating its brand massages, thus enhancing the possibility that employees will recognise the brand messages. A respondent also described how the communication media impacted his brand support behaviour in this regard:

> *"Mainly, we have a university newsletter. In addition, there is a university song, which is played every day. The song tends to affect my behaviour. Well, I hear it every day. I know what the university wants to be, because it is embodied in the song…There are also university promotional items, which carry the messages of the university missions and its vision." (Interview 6)*

Although the hypothesis testing demonstrated that there was, to some extent, a positive relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support (which is in line with the theoretical expectation and the positive comments), the relationship between these two variables was not statistically significant. According to the structural model evaluation, the impact of internal brand communication activities on employee brand support was not validated. That is, regarding the antecedent factors of interest (internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders), the internal brand communications did not have a significant impact on employee brand support.

In line with Karmark (2005), brand values which are communicated through the communication media (e.g., websites, brand book, billboard) can be irrelevant to the day-to-day operations and the actual working situation of employees. Therefore, these types of communication activity find it hard to attract an employee's attention. As a result, it can be a challenge for employees to memorise these brand values and apply them to their work activities. According to Baker and Balmer (1997), the values of an institution which are communicated through the institution's goal, mission and vision are unlikely to be memorised by employees. During his interview, a participant also said that:

> *"… Well, the messages on billboards do help me to know the institution's goals but I do not remember much. As for the messages I have seen on the university website, I never really pay attention to them …"(Interview 13)*

This means that an employee may not be able to remember the institution's values (including the institution's policy, goal, mission and vision). According to Baker and Balmer (1997), those messages may perhaps be too detailed for easy memorisation. Furthermore, as stated above, internal brand communications in universities (i.e., university brochures, campus meeting, e-mail messages and university memos) are input control activities which communicate the institution's goals without specifying any procedures (Jaworski, 1988). Thus, these activities may not be able to ensure that employees understand "the whys and the hows of the brand delivery" (Kunde, 2000, p.171)

In addition, the insignificant relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support may possibly result from the strong effect of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support, thus masking the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support. As discussed in the previous section, the brand-centred training and development activities are control tools which tend to provide specific rules and guidelines for employees to follow. In contrast, internal communication activities are control tools which communicate the institution's goals without specifying any procedures. Therefore, in order to create employee brand support, institutions should not rely solely on the internal communication media.

Apart from the reasons discussed above, the measurement adopted in this study may also be one of the factors that produce the unexpected insignificant relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and employee brand support (EBS). For a more critical consideration of the emerging insignificant relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support, apart from revisiting the literature and the interview data from the exploratory stage, the research instrument adopted in this study was also revisited in order to consider the possible impact of the measurement on this unexpected outcome. Considering the scope of the internal brand communications' measurement items adopted in this study (see Appendix M: The items of constructs), the adopted items were applied in order to measure the operation of internal brand communications according to the specification of brand messages rather than individually measuring each communication medium. The items developed to measure the internal brand communications construct therefore had broad meaning, which may have seemed ambiguous to interpret when a respondent answered the questionnaire. For instance, item IBC2: 'The school communicates brand values specifically to each group of employees, for example, departments' and item IBC4: 'The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications (e.g., school meetings)' may, to some extent, overlap [54] item BCT2: 'The school provides me with training to help me use brand values' and item BCT6: 'The school provides training activities

[54] This might produce an excessive relationship between internal brand communications (IBC) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT); see Section 6.6.2.

which are related to brand values'. The potential for overlapping (Multicollinearity) between the measures of IBC and BCT could possibly produce an insignificant relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support. However, the structural model evaluation supports the discriminant validity of the constructs, indicating that the distinctiveness between the measures of internal brand communications (IBC) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT) is probably sufficient.

Although the discussion above tends to imply that institutions should not rely solely on internal communication media to create employee brand support, the hypothesis testing indicated that there was a positive relationship between internal brand communications and the brand-centred training and development activities (H3 was supported). This finding, thus, signifies an indirect relationship between internal brand communication and employee brand support, suggesting that the influence of internal brand communication on employee brand support behaviour might be presented through brand-centred training and development activities. The results, therefore, demonstrate a full mediation role for brand-centred training and development activities, which are discussed below in greater detail. However, before this, the next section discusses the role of the immediate leaders' transformational leadership characteristics as a factor in building employee brand support.

6.5 Transformational leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader

According to the existing literature on internal branding and higher education administration, several authors note that leaders, transformational leaders in particular, are likely to influence the behavioural changes consistent with organisational values – supportive behaviour (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2005, 2006, 2009).

During the interviews, the respondents were provided with a definition of transformational leaders. In relation to the brand, transformational leaders show qualities in their behaviour which "[influence] the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and [induce] them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the brand". (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.293). As exhibited in Chapter 4, in general, the respondents agreed with this definition. In addition, the respondents also agreed that the transformational leaders play an important role in encouraging employees' behaviour to support the brand. Therefore, it is very important that the transformational leaders should understand the mission and vision of their institution and act in alignment with it. For instance, a respondent suggested that:

> *"The leaders of employees are very important in changing employees' behaviour. Employees may read the brand messages from the institution on billboards but this may not be able to change their behaviour. It is very important for the leaders of academic staff to be active. They should have a sense of institutional mission and vision and act accordingly. In addition, they should always be close and friendly towards their team. They should be involved in all the meetings and also other school activities." (Interview 18)*

In this study, hypothesis testing demonstrated that the transformational leaders were likely to have a positive impact on employee brand support and internal branding in universities. However, with regard to the characteristics of transformational leadership adopted from Northouse (2004)[55], these are not specifically related to brand values (see Appendix M). Therefore, it would be premature to confirm that a transformational leader can affect the brand support behaviour of employees and internal branding activities because there are no empirical data to support that the brand values are in fact communicated through a transformational leader's behaviour. Nevertheless, as discussed in Chapter 2, Northouse (2004, p.175) describes leaders "who exhibit transformational leadership [and who] often have a strong set of internal values and ideals … [being] effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good rather than their own self-interests". Furthermore, transformational leaders facilitate collective actions based on the institution's values, i.e., the institution's mission and vision (Leithwood, 1992; Roberts, 1985). According to Urde (2003), an organisation's values are an important part of brand value which enables employees to understand 'what we are', 'what our organisation stands for' and 'what it is that makes us who we are'. These could therefore enable employees to act in a way which supports the brand (Urde, 2003). For this reason, the items of transformational leadership characteristics adopted in the present study were expected to measure transformational

[55] Original items from Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Northouse, 2004, p.196)

leaders who tend to base their behaviour on the brand values of the institution, including the institution's values (e.g., mission and vision). Thus, their behaviour should encourage internal branding activities and also the behaviour of an academic employee to be in line with the brand.

With regard to the second research question, the direct impact of the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader on employee brand support in universities was examined from the academic staff's perspective. In the following sections, the findings are discussed in order to provide details of the way in which transformational leaders impact on brand support behaviour.

6.5.1 Transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader: A determinant of employee brand support

Hypothesis testing demonstrated a positive relationship between the immediate leaders' transformational leadership characteristics and the employee brand support of academic staff. That is, when employees perceive the transformational leadership characteristics of their immediate leader, their brand support behaviour tends to increase. In other words, the employees tend to put extra effort into relating the organisation's brand to their work activities when their immediate leaders exhibit the characteristics of transformational leadership. These findings are in line with the higher education management literature (e.g., Leithwood, 1992; Roberts, 1985), which considers a transformational leader as one who facilitates collective actions based on the institution's values, i.e., mission and vision. In addition, the findings are aligned with the previous studies conducted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) and Morhart et al. (2009), which found that leaders with transformational leadership characteristics had a positive impact on an increase in the brand-building behaviours of employees.

The statistical results reveal that transformational leadership characteristics generally affect employee brand support. In the following paragraphs, the researcher discusses the way in which transformational leadership characteristics (i.e., Idealisation influence or charisma, Inspiration motivation, Intellectual stimulation and Individual consideration) impact on employee brand support.

With the characteristic of '*idealisation influence'*, an institution's leader is expected to influence the brand support behaviour of the academic staff by being a strong role model for followers and providing the followers with a clear vision and mission. According to Sims and Manz (1982, p.56), "organisational leaders typically have a unique opportunity to influence employees through modelling". In addition, the leaders develop their followers' behaviours by being perceived as an expert (Decker, 1982). They see their leader as a role model include 'I am proud to be associated with him/her' (item II3:)and 'He/she is a role model for me'(item II4). A respondent who recognised his leader as an expert said that he was more likely to feel confident that the leader could help him to develop himself. He commented:

> *My leader is an intelligent person. It is good for academic staff like me because I want to develop myself and my leader is able to help me. I am quite proud to work with him. He kind of gives me confidence… Based on the ways my leader works with me, I feel lucky working here because my leader is an intelligent person and he is also a person of good morality." (Interview 12)*

According to the theory of social learning (Bandura, 1977), which emphasises antecedents of behaviour as a source of learning, the leader's behaviour is likely to be imitated by his/her followers as that of a role model. Leaders of an institution who act as strong role models for their followers and provide them with a clear sense of the vision and mission of the institution (which is usually a part of the institution's brand) may thereby influence the academic staff's brand support behaviour, for instance, 'I follow the brand values of my institution' (item EBS8:) and 'I consider that the institutional brand values influence my day-to-day operations'(EBS5). Respondents also mentioned the ways in which their leader's behaviour affects their brand support behaviour, as follows:

> *"The leader's behaviour affects me. It is the role model for me. If the leader follows what the university wants, I will definitely do it too…" (Interview 10)*

> *"…the behaviour of the leader (i.e., coming to work early and working hard) can be imitated by employees. Partly, I know the right behaviour for developing an organisation by observing my boss's behavior." (Interview 18)*

Apart from being a key role model, transformational leaders communicate high expectations to their followers regarding what the followers could and should do. A transformational leader can efficiently communicate high expectations to employees through items such as 'He/she provides appealing visions of what I can do'(IM2) and 'He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to achieve the university's goals'(IM4). Bandura (1977) emphasises that a leader can bring future consequences to bear on current behaviour by the anticipatory thought that encourages future-focused behaviour, because it is a way of providing both the stimulus for an appropriate action and the sustaining incentives. By providing appealing images about what their followers can do, the leaders with the characteristic of '*inspiration* motivation' could inspire and motivate their follower to apply the institutional brand values in their work activities (e.g., EBS2: 'I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to prioritise my tasks').

However, in order to efficiently communicate high expectations to employees, the transformational leader should know the general capabilities of each subordinate and be able to identify exactly how each subordinate could perform. For example, one respondent commented on a leader's behaviour which could encourage her brand support behaviour as follows:

> *"…he or she [a leader] needs to clearly see through each of their subordinates' abilities and know what each of the subordinates should do to achieve the university's goals. Their support and encouragement is very important to us." (Interview 10)*

In addition, a leader with the characteristic of '*intellectual stimulation'* will be likely to have an impact on employee brand support because she/he stimulates them to challenge their beliefs and values as well as those of the leaders and the organisations in order to be more innovative and creative (Northouse, 2004). This phenomenon can be explained by Lewin's (1947) field theory. Lewin's field theory is perceived to be a top-down approach to change management[56] (Dawson, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992), which is similar to the management styles that universities in most parts of the world have significant experience of (Tsai & Beverton, 2007). According to Lewin (1947), within a group, there are largely internal resistances to change. The resistances are outcomes of "the well-established social habits that

[56] A successful change includes three phases: 1) Unfreezing; 2) Moving; 3 Freezing (Lewin, 1947).

are grounded in the social value of the individuals who make up the group" (Lewin, 1947 cited in Ho, 2000, p.33). For this reason, in order to facilitate change, organisational leaders need forces to 'unfreeze' the original values and habits by challenging and weakening their power and influence (Lewin, 1947 cited in Ho, 2000, p.33). This can be done, for example, by 'enabling employees to think about old problems in new ways' (item IS1) and 'providing employees with new ways of looking at puzzling things' (item IS2). Employees are, for instance, able to '[...] use knowledge of the institution's brand values to prioritise [their] tasks (item EBS2). In addition, Burmann and Zeplin (2005) noted during their study that employees who are given more freedom seem to commit to the brand more than those without freedom. One member of the academic staff stated that:

> *"My boss's behaviour encourages me to support the institution brand. To me, she is a great supporter when I tell her what I want to do. But this is not an indulgence. She lets me think by myself and then she will judge the appropriateness. If it is not appropriate, she will not reject the project, but she will suggest ways of improvement. This really motivates me to work for the university because she allows me to think independently."(Interview 5)*

Furthermore, it is likely that the '*individual consideration'* characteristic of leadership is vital for motivating behaviour change. The qualitative research on internal branding conducted by Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005) shows that leaders can encourage employees' brand support behaviour by facilitating social interaction through verbal and non-verbal communication. In line with Northouse (2004), a leader with the individual characteristic of consideration is the leader who provides a supportive climate in which he/she carefully listens to the individual needs of followers (e.g., item IC3: 'He/she gives personal attention to others who seem to be rejected from the group' and item IC5: 'He/she is friendly with me') and acts as an adviser trying to assist a specific way of working (e.g., item IC1: 'He/she helps me in my personal development; item IC2: He/she gives regular feedback on my performance; and item IC4: 'He/she gives constructive feedback on how he/she thinks I am doing'). According to Podsakoff et al. (1996), the employees who perceived more individualised support coming from their leaders are generally more satisfied, productive, altruistic, conscientious and courteous. In addition, they are likely to experience more role clarity and less role conflict, trust their leaders more and exhibit more civic virtue (Podsakoff et al., 1996). Thus, a leader who '[...] gives personal attention' (item IC2) and '[...]

constructive feedback on his/her followers'(item IC4) could effectively suggest appropriate brand support behaviour for the followers. In the interviews, an academic member of staff gave her views on the impact on her brand support behaviour of her immediate leader's characteristics by saying that the personal attention and positive feedback provided by her leader has encouraged her to work more and feel valuable for the organisation. Her actual words were:

> *"I think that my boss's positive feedback made me enthusiastic to continue working and made me feel worthy to work for the organisation. Sometimes when my boss comes to talk to me in my office, I feel great." (Interview 18)*

In addition, during an interview, a member of the academic staff mentioned that her leader tends to lack the characteristic of consideration (e.g., item IC3: 'He/she gives personal attention to others (my colleagues and me) who seem to be rejected from the group' and the item IC5: 'He/she is friendly with me') as follows:

> *"He is not very friendly with us. Actually, if he were friendlier to us, this would create greater unity in the organisation… I think there is a gap between my boss and the lecturers. My boss doesn't recognise me, as there are a lot of people in the school. I am not an important person, I am just a lecturer. I do not have a high academic position like some others. Therefore, I don't really participate in the organisation activities*." *(Interview 6).*

With regard to the statement above, if the leaders of an institution do not have the trait of individual consideration, their employees may feel caged and unimportant, both negative feelings towards the company. Consequently, support from such employees can hardly be expected. This implies that it could be hard for an institution to facilitate brand support behaviour from the academic staff, if the leaders of the institution are not able to provide them with a supportive climate based on the institution's values, including listening carefully to the individual needs of followers and acting as advisers by trying to assist specific ways of working. However, comparing to the other items of transformational leadership characteristics, IC5: 'He/She is friendly to me' hold the lowest mean score in this study, implying that this item may not have a strong effect on employee brand support. Its low mean score could possibly be due to the fact that this item is more closely related to establishing psychological support in general (Straker, 2008) than to advising and directing appropriate brand support behaviours.

The discussions above signify how leaders with transformational leadership characteristics could affect employee brand support. With regard to the third research question, the direct impact of the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader on internal branding activities was also examined from the academic staff's perspective. In the next section, the statistical results of the examination are discussed, in conjunction with support from the theory presented in the literature review chapter and the information obtained from the in-depth interviews.

6.5.2 Positive relationships between the immediate leaders' transformational leadership characteristics and internal branding

The hypothesis testing demonstrated the positive relationships between the immediate leaders' transformational leadership characteristics and internal branding activities (H5, H6: supported). That is, the transformational characteristics of the immediate leaders tend to influence internal branding activities within higher education institutions, which consist of 1) brand-centred training and development activities and 2) internal brand communications. In other words, immediate leaders with transformational leadership characteristics are likely to initiate internal branding activities in their institutions. Consistent with the existing literature (Leithwood, 1992; Roberts, 1985), a leader with transformational leadership characteristics is one who typically facilitates the systems based on the institution's values (i.e., mission and vision), which is seen by Urde (2003) as part of its brand values. In addition, in an educational administration context, the task of leadership is to establish 'novelty' and 'change' by shaping the systems of the present institution in order to create new actions for the future (Jordan, 1973). Moreover, regarding the roles of leader in the brand management process, the findings of this study are in line with a study conducted by Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006), which shows that leadership initiates internal brand building.

A qualitative study conducted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) shows that a leader with transformational leadership characteristics was a success factor for internal branding. Apart from initiating internal branding activities, a transformational leader may also influence employees' perception of the institutional values. In other words, the transformational leader could enhance the employees' perception of the values which are communicated through the internal branding activities. As far as the roles of immediate leaders are concerned, the immediate leaders are "a central source of information related to job and organisation" (Jablin, 2001, p.778). Therefore, although in some institutions the immediate leaders may not be the ones who initiate internal branding activities, the immediate leaders with transformational leadership characteristics can be the ones who influence the employees' perception of brand values. For example, a respondent commented that:

> *"The things that the leader emphasised in the meeting showed that those things were important. On the one hand, I imitated his behaviours. On the other hand, it reminded me what I need to do as an organisation member.*" *(Interview 12)*

Thus, the brand values which employees perceive from their transformational leaders (e.g., item IM1: 'He/she expresses with a few simple words what I could and should do' and item IM4: 'He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to achieve the university's goals') may also emphasise their perception of the values which are communicated through the internal branding activities, thus creating employee brand support.

Nevertheless, what should be noted is the fact that, the positive relationships between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and internal branding activities could occur due to the effects response bias. As discussed in Chapter 4, the respondents might over-report favourable attitudes and under-report unfavourable attitudes owing to social desirability bias (Tellis & Chandrasekaran, 2010). Thus, an employee who has a positive feeling towards his/her (transformational) leaders might over-report the operation of internal branding activities in the school in order to hide information which could damage his/her leader's image. This phenomenon could, therefore, manipulate the positive relationships between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and the internal branding activities.

The significant relationships between transformational leadership characteristics, brand-centred training and development activities and employee brand support signify a partial mediation role of the brand-centred training and development activities in the relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff' immediate leaders and employee brand support. In the next section, the mediation roles of brand-centred training and development activities in the relationship between employee brand support and its antecedents are discussed in greater detail.

6.6 The mediation effects of brand-centred training and development activities

Regarding research hypotheses H7 and H8, this research found that the brand-centred training and development activities factor was a full mediator of the relationship between the internal brand communications and employee brand support, while being a partial mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support. These findings, therefore, highlight the vital roles of training and development activities for creating employee brand support, consistent with several studies (e.g., Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Aurand et al., 2005; Ind, 2007; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007).

In the following sections, the partial mediation effect of brand-centred training and development activities in the relationship between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support is discussed first. Then the full mediation effect of brand-centred training and development activities on the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is presented and analysed.

6.6.1 Brand-centred training and development activities: A partial mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support

This research found a direct relationship between the factors of transformational leadership characteristics, brand-centred training and development activities and employee brand support. These findings, therefore, specify a partial mediation role for the brand-centred training and development activities factor in the relationship between employee brand support and transformational leadership characteristics.

As discussed in the previous sections, the statistical results, as well as support from the existing literature and the examples from qualitative findings, reveal that employee brand support from the academic staff could be determined by the brand-centred training and development activities (see Section 6.4.1) and the transformational immediate leaders (see

Section 6.5.1). In addition, the transformational immediate leaders are likely to be a determinant of the brand-centred training and development activities (see Section 6.5.2). Thus, it is likely that the transformational immediate leaders not only directly affect employee brand support, but also affect employee brand support through the impact of the brand-centred training and development activities (initiated and/or created by the leaders) on employee brand support (see Section 6.4.1). In other words, the impact of a transformational leader on employee brand support could partly be due to the internal branding activities created or initiated by the leader, in particular the activities of brand-centred training and development which exhibit a significant relationship with employee brand support. This, therefore, points out a role as a partial mediator for the brand-centred training and development activities, which help the transformational leader in encouraging employee brand support.

Consistent with a study by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) and Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006), the transformational leaders not only directly affect employee brand support, but also influence and/or initiate internal branding activities, thereby creating employee brand support. This means that a leader may generate the brand support behaviour of a member of the academic staff by creating or initiating internal branding activities, the activities of brand-centred training and development in particular.

In addition, according to the discussion and the example from the qualitative interviews presented in section 6.5.2, an immediate leader who is not responsible for the operation of those activities may support the operation of those activities through his/her transformational leadership characteristics. This is because the brand values which employees perceive from the transformational leader could emphasise their perception of the values which are communicated through those activities, in turn creating employee brand support.

6.6.2 Brand-centred training and development activities: A full mediator of the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support

The investigation of mediation effects is likely to help the researcher to better understand the underlying mechanism of the relationships between internal branding activities and employee brand support (Baron and Kenny, 1986). The findings of this study show that the internal brand communication tools do not always create brand support behaviour directly. In fact, internal brand communications may affect employee brand support indirectly through the impact of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support. These unexpected outcomes demonstrate the full mediation role of brand-centred training and development activities on the relationship between employee brand support and internal brand communication activities.

The full mediation role of brand-centred training and development activities on the relationship between employee brand support and internal brand communications could perhaps be explained on the basis of marketing control theory (Jaworski, 1988). In line with the theory of marketing control by Jaworski (1988) discussed in the previous chapters, internal brand communications are categorised as types of input control, a subgroup of formal control (Ouchi, 1978; Jaworski, 1988). This type of control is used by organisations to communicate their brand message without specifying any processes. Employees, therefore, are likely to lack details of the hows and whys of brand delivery. Zeithaml et al. (1988, p.43) state that "when employees do not have the information necessary to perform their jobs adequately, they experience ambiguity". However, brand-centred training and development activities, as discussed above, are among the types [57]of input, process and output control which focus on behaviour and actions (Jaworski, 1988). As a result, employees will be in a position to be effective brand supporters because they are likely to understand the whys and hows of brand delivery by attending brand-centred training and development programmes. For example, an academic employee gave her opinion of the impact of internal branding activities on the employees' brand support behaviour:

> *"I think training programmes are likely to affect my behaviour more than communication media. This is because I can practise and participate with others when I do not understand something. For example, the research training programme made me understand how and where to get research funding. In addition, I realise that the university encourages and supports us to do research. It is better to have someone direct us to do things. The other communication media – for example, the university website or the intranet – I personally do not like to use them. However,*

[57] Subgroups of formal control

> *they are convenient, so they will help me if I want to find basic information."(Interview 10)*

As also discussed in Section 6.4.2, the strong effect of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support may possibly produce a full mediation relationship between the constructs of brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and employee brand support. This is because the strong effect of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support could mask the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support, thus reducing the intensity of the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support. This, therefore, produces a full mediation relationship between these constructs.

Nevertheless, as discussed in the previous section, by communicating brand values through, for instance, item IBC3: 'The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures', the media which are used as internal communication tools tend to be a convenient initial way for employees to obtain basic information about institutional brand values (Ind, 2007). At the same time, the brand-centred training and development activities (e.g., item BCT2: 'The school provides me with training to help me use brand values'; item BCT3: 'The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver brand values'; and item BCT4: 'I am aware that delivering brand values is part of the annual performance reviews') are likely to be effective tools for directing employees' behaviours towards supporting the institution's brand.

In addition, the relationship between internal brand communications and brand centred-training and development activities found in the present study suggests an important role for internal brand communications. That is, by receiving brand values (including the institution's vision, mission and goals) through internal communication activities, an employee may better perceive and understand the values attached to the brand centred-training and development activities. For example, by encouraging an employee's understanding of brand values, through the use of internal brand communication media (e.g., item IBC3: 'The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures') and school meetings (e.g., item IBC4: 'The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications), the consequent understanding of brand values could help the employee to better perceive and understand the values attached to the brand centred-training and development activities. In the literature, in order to create employee brand support, it is suggested that internal communications should be ongoing, continuous and connected with training (Wilson, 2001). Moreover, from the marketing and communication based perspective (Karmark, 2005), the values must be first communicated to employees in order to ensure that they deliver brand values to the stakeholders. This implies that, for an employee to behave in alignment with the organisation's values, he/she may need some initial or fundamental information about the organisation's brand values. From the interviews, the brand values of the institution were generally based on the messages from the communication activities. For example, one academic said:

> *"In fact, it is quite clear that the institution wants to be the best institution in the local community because the institution's mission is to actually become the university for the local community. This message is apparent everywhere, for example, in meetings, billboards, the university's website and in promotional gifts, like pens and glasses. …. I have been doing research with my colleague on marketing for silk products; the silk is one of the local industries. Actually, we also attended research training modules, and they insisted that we should conduct research that benefits the local community." (Interview 7)*

However, for a more critical consideration of the emerging relationships, the researcher revisited the measurement items included in the research instrument in order to consider the possible impact of the scope of measurement items adopted in this study on the emerging (full mediation) relationships. As discussed in Section 6.4.2, there is a possibility of overlapping between the measures of internal brand communications (IBC) and brand-centred training and development activities (BCT), due to the broad meaning of the internal brand communications (IBC)'s measurement items adopted in this study. This issue could bring about an excessive relationship between internal brand communications and the brand-centred training and development activities. In addition, as discussed earlier, the potential of overlapping (Multicollinearity) between the measures of internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities might produce an insignificant relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support. Consequently, the full mediation role of brand-centred training and development activities on the relationship between employee brand support and internal communication activities could occur. However, the structural model evaluation supported the discriminant validity of the measurement used in this study (i.e., the items of IBC and the items of BCT measured different aspects of internal branding), thus reducing concerns about the multicollinearity of the constructs.

The findings of this study highlighted the full mediation role of brand-centred training and development activities on the relationship between employee brand support and internal communication activities. In the existing literature, the training and development activities factor is seen as one of the antecedents influencing employee brand support but not as an essential element for building employee brand support. The mediating effects embedded in the relationship between employee brand support and the internal branding factors (those of internal brand communication, brand-centred training and development activities and transformational leadership characteristics) are likely to be neglected, in particular in the higher education context. In addition, the findings reveal that internal communication tools, in the particular context of Thai business schools, may not have a significant impact on an employee's brand support behaviour, as regards the academic employees at least. This result may be in response to the effects of the research context, for example, the organisational cultures of the educational institution and the characteristics of Thai employees. As the results of this study may be affected by the research context, the next section therefore discusses the effects of the research context on building academic staff's brand support.

6.7 Building academic staff's brand support in universities: Effects of the research context

Given the direct effects found of the antecedents to employee brand support, it is likely that brand-centred training and development activities tend to pay a crucial part in building employee brand support in the university context. With regard to the roles of academic staff, as discussed above, the participants described several times how university policy, rules and guidelines affect their brand support behaviours. The information from the interviews was consistent with a study by Henkel (1997), which indicates that the roles and responsibilities of academics seem to be increasingly well-defined, as higher education institutions are being transformed into corporate enterprises. Henkel (1997) notes that the security of academic tenure, a simple career structure, independence of working (e.g., teaching and research) and an emphasis on equal values in the allocation of work, all of which represent deeply held academic values, are likely to be no longer applied. The movement of higher education institutions towards becoming corporate enterprises tends to emphasise direct control over employees (Henkel, 1997). One participant commented as follows:

> "*I think the institution is aware that we [academic staff] may not be very sure what the institution specifically wants from us. Therefore, my institution uses key performance indicators, which are called SARS, for informing us about things that I need do as an academic staff member of the institution. Actually, this tool helps me to work in the right direction, instead of doing something that is not related to the goals or mission of the institution." (Interview 6)*

In addition, the participant further explained how the key indicators affected her brand support behaviours:

> *"Actually, some of the things that I have already been doing were on the right track, but I did not realise it. For example, in my course activities, I sometimes, tried to relate the activities to local culture and local situations. Recently, since I know that supporting the local community and local culture is one of my performance indicators, I designed activities in my course that were related to the local culture and to benefit the local community, more or less. The key indicators will encourage us [academic staff] to continue doing what we have been doing, as it can officially be measured by the key performance indicators." (Interview 6)*

Furthermore, guidelines, trainings and seminars, which act as part of the brand-centred training and development activities, are likely to play a crucial role in building employee brand support in education institutions. For example, the high mean scores of item BCT2: 'The school provides me with training to help me use brand values' and item BCT6: 'The school provides training activities which are related to brand values' may imply that it is very important for a university to provide training activities that related to the institution's values in order to encourage employee to act in alignment with the brand.

These phenomena may be in response to the effects of cultural issues. A high power distance culture (Hofstede, 1984) is a typical culture of the kind usually found in higher education institutions. As discussed earlier, universities in most parts of the world have significant experience with a top-down management style – a situation in which a high level of formal controls is combined with a low level of informal controls (Tsai & Beverton, 2007). Jaworski et al. (1993) term this combination a bureaucratic system of control.

Regarding the types of control (Ouchi, 1978; Jaworski, 1988), the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader can be seen as an informal control factor which influences employee brand support through personal interaction between leaders and employees. Internal brand communications, in contrast, are used by institutions as formal control activities to communicate their brand message without specifying any processes, while brand-centred training activities are used as formal control activities to influence the probability that academic staff will understand the whys and hows of brand delivery (Jaworski et al., 1993). Concerning the bureaucratic system of control existing in many educational institutions (Jaworski et al., 1993), the factor of brand-centred training and development activities, in particular the rules and guidelines (as a part of brand-centred training and development activities), may better predict academic staff's brand support behaviour.

Moreover, Thailand has a high uncertainty avoidance culture (Hofstede, 1984). Therefore, security is a powerful motivator (Hofstede, 1983, 1984). Thai employees are reluctant to take risks. In other words, they are very willing to perform so long as they are offered security in exchange (Hofstede, 1983, 1984). In order to feel secure, they tend to base their behaviour on institutional rules and guidelines. For example, the high mean scores of item BCT2 and item BEC6 of brand-centred training and development activities, as stated above, may imply an important role of the training activities as guidelines to clarify *how to* behave in alignment with their institution's brand. The study of 'Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness' conducted by House et al.(2004) also supports the finding that Thai employees have a much higher score of uncertainty avoidance than employees from Western countries. According to House et al. (2004), employees with a high score of uncertainty avoidance are likely to prefer their job requirements and instructions to be spelled out in detail, in order for them to know what they are expected to do. In addition, House et al. (2004) suggest that orderliness and consistency should be stressed in the organisation, despite the expense of innovation. This means that if the brand-centred training and development activities are employed in an institution which has an uncertainty avoidance culture, the institution could then expect the employees to behave in alignment with the brand by following the brand values communicated through the rules and guidelines. For example, the items of employee brand support discovered during the item generation stage are all related closely to an employee's behaviour based on the institutional rules and guidelines. These items are: item EBS6: 'I consider reviews of my work performance when making decisions on my work activities'; item EBS7: 'I obey the institutional rules'; and item EBS8: 'I follow the brand values of my institution'. Having a high score of uncertainty avoidance could possibly be a reason that explains why the Thai academic staff's brand support behaviour is highly influenced by brand-centred training and development activities. A respondent also stated:

> *"… actually, in my school, there are annual performance reviews which are used for tracking how much we put the training courses into practice. If we don't apply what we have learnt, we need to explain the reason to our boss."(Interview 5)*

Regarding the unexpected outcome of the full mediation role of the brand-centred training and development activities found in this thesis, this thesis is the very first study to highlight the crucial role of brand-centred training and development activities in building employee brand support. The findings, therefore, can be the inserted boundary conditions for the relationship between employee brand support and internal branding activities, in particular within the higher education institutional context. In the next chapter, the implications and limitations of the research, as well as the future research directions, are discussed.

6.8 Summary

In summary, this chapter comments on the results of hypotheses testing. The revealed relationships are discussed and explained on the basis of the existing literature. In addition, interviews from the exploratory stage are also used as examples in the analysis of the relationships. The findings and the reasons for the revealed relationships are also discussed by revisiting the research instrument and considering the possible impact of the scope of measures adopted.

The findings support the proposition that an institution may build employee brand support by operating within itself internal brand communication activities, brand-centred training and development activities. However, this study has found an insignificant relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support, which leads to the emergence of a full mediation effect of brand-centred training and development activities in the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support.

Regarding the full mediation effect of brand-centred training and development activities in the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support, these findings imply that communicating brand values through internal media (the internal brand communication activities) may not be effective for developing employee brand support unless brand-centred training and development activities are in place. In addition, for academic staff to behave in alignment with the institutional brand value, having an immediate leader with transformational leadership characteristics is one of the key factors that directly influence an increase of desirable behaviour on the employees' part. Moreover, the level of internal brand communication activities and brand-centred training and development activities is supported, as being positively associated with immediate leaders who have transformational leadership characteristics. Therefore, leaders with transformational leadership characteristics are also needed in institutions in order to build the institution brand from the inside out.

The next chapter discusses the implications of the research in three subject areas: its theoretical, managerial and policy implications. Furthermore, the research limitations will also be presented. Finally, other possible research directions will also be suggested.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This thesis has investigated the relationships between internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities, employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders within higher education institutions. This study has, it is hoped, filled some research gaps mainly by providing alternative empirical and theoretical insights from the academic staff's perspective into the potential antecedent factors of employee brand support in higher education institutions, and by testing theories in a non-Western setting to increase their external validity. The study employed a mixed methods approach, involving a dominant quantitative component (i.e., its survey) and a less-dominant qualitative one (i.e., in-depth interviews) to develop measurement scales and test hypotheses.

According to the findings discussed in the previous chapters, the proposed conceptual model of this study was generally supported. The factor of brand-centred training and development activities was found to be positively associated with employee brand support and to fully mediate the relationship between the internal brand communications factor and employee brand support. In addition, it was found that the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively correlated with employee brand support and internal branding activities. However, the relationship between the employees' perceptions of their immediate leader's transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support is partially mediated by brand-centred training and development activities.

Regarding the discussion on the findings from the qualitative and quantitative research, both limitations and potential directions for further research have been noted. Hence, in this chapter, the research contributions (in three areas: i.e., theoretical, managerial and policy) together with the limitations of the research and future research directions are discussed in more detail. The next sections discuss the theoretical, managerial and policy implications of this research. Following this, the limitations of this study are reviewed. Finally, future research directions are suggested.

7.2 Research contributions

7.2.1 Theoretical contributions

Regarding the theoretical contributions of this study, this study offers several potential theoretical contributions to the literature, as follows:

7.2.1.1 Theory extension level

The findings advance current knowledge by adding alternative insights to higher education views on possible antecedent factors of employee brand support. As discussed earlier, the knowledge of employee brand support and internal branding activities (i.e., internal branding activities and the work of transformational leaders) in the context of higher education administration has been imported from other service sectors. The work on building a university brand 'from within by Judson et al. (2006, 2009) seems to be the most relevant to the determinants of employee brand support in the higher education context. Nevertheless, Judson et al. (2006) focus only on some specific brand communication media (i.e., university brochures, campus meetings, E-mail messages and university memos) as antecedent factors of employee brand support, while there are several other brand communication activities and media which regularly operate within an organisation, e.g., university internet, billboards and training and development activities (Karmark, 2005; Whisman, 2009). In addition, the study of Judson et al. (2006, 2009) was conducted from the administrators' perspective. The present study therefore adds knowledge to the existing literature by providing information from the perspective of the academic staff about the effects on employee brand support of internal brand communication activities and brand-centred training and development activities.

Furthermore, this research contributes to the stock of knowledge by extending the findings reported in past studies. For instance, while several researchers (Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005) suggest that transformational leadership characteristics (i.e., idealised influence or charisma; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; individual consideration) are positively related to employee brand support, they have rarely tested this relationship. A qualitative study on internal branding by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) suggests that the characteristics of idealised influence and inspirational motivation are likely to have positive effects on employees' brand support behaviour and recommends for further study the characteristics of intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Although a recent study conducted by Morhart et al. (2009) illustrates a positive relationship between transformational leaders and the brand-building behaviours of employees, the study does not consider the impact of internal branding activities, for example, training activities and internal brand communication media. In addition, their study was not conducted in a higher education context. The present research contributes to existing studies by offering the information from the perspective of university employees (academic staff), with statistical evidence, which presents brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff's immediate leaders as antecedent factors in employee brand support.

Besides, this research is the first empirical work to incorporate concepts from marketing control theory, transformational leadership theory, social learning theory and social change theory to interpret, in a more holistic manner, the relationships between employee brand support and its potential antecedent factors (e.g., brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff's immediate leaders). Very few studies have attempted to integrate the concepts of transformational leadership and internal branding activities (brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications) as potential antecedent factors of employee brand support. Moreover, they are theoretical papers or qualitative studies only (e.g., Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006). Other existing quantitative studies on the subject of internal brand building focus mainly on the relationship between a particular aspect of these factors and employee brand support. This study, however, statistically investigates and assesses the relative impacts of marketing control tools, both formal control (i.e., brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications) and informal control (i.e., the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff's immediate leaders), on employee brand support, on the basis of marketing control theory, social learning theory, transformational leadership theory and social change theory. Moreover, the relevant underlying mechanisms embedded in the relationships are also examined (i.e., the mediating effects of aspects of internal branding).

As the statistical results show that most of its hypotheses[58] are valid, the research could therefore enhance the contribution of the thesis at the theory extension level by comprehensively explaining the relationships between the constructs of interest, in a holistic manner (through the integration of the marketing control theory, the transformational leadership theory, the social learning theory and the social change theory), namely, that the marketing control tools, which are brand-centred training and development activities (formal control), internal brand communications (formal control) and the transformational leadership characteristics of staff's immediate leaders (informal control), can work collectively to generate employee brand support. This finding implies that employee brand support formation is a complex process that is influenced by multiple marketing activity factors including the factors of formal control activities and informal control activities. However, the various explanatory powers of the antecedent factors of interest are found to be unequal. This study suggests that the factors of brand-centred training and development activities and the transformational leadership characteristics (i.e., idealisation influence or charisma, inspiration motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration) of the academic staff's immediate leaders are more likely to affect employee brand support than is the factor of internal brand communications.

Furthermore, this study advances current understanding about the generative process and mechanism by which employee brand support is formed. Studies (e.g., Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Morhart et al., 2009) have already conceptualised the direct impact of internal branding activities (the brand-centred training and development activities factor and the internal brand communications factor) and transformational leaders on employee brand support. However, none of these studies has empirically examined the mediating effects involved in creating brand support behaviour in a higher education institution. The findings from this study contribute to the literature by providing a further explanation of why and how the internal branding activities and transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader can persuade academic staff to exhibit brand support behaviour. The present thesis has found that, within a university context, the brand-centred training and development activities factor is likely to be a partial mediator of the relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leader and employee brand support.

[58] H1, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8 are supported. H2 and H9 are not supported

Moreover, the factor of brand-centred training and development activities has been found to fully mediate the impact of the internal brand communications factor on employee brand support. This means that the brand-centred training and development activities factor tends to play a significant role in constructing employee brand support. That is, the brand-centred training and development activities factor directly manipulate employee brand support and also supports the transformational leadership factor in shaping employee brand support. Moreover, the full mediator role of the brand-centred training and development activities factor signifies that, within a university context, Thai universities in particular, without support from the brand-centred training and development activities factor, the internal brand communications factor may not able to efficiently generate employee brand support. For example, a Thai academic may know from communication media that the institution has been trying to brand itself as a research institution. However, without receiving relevant and sufficient practical guidelines – provided perhaps through training and development activities (e.g., research software and publication process seminars and workshops) – he/she may not efficiently perform in alignment with the required policies. These findings, therefore, add to current research by representing rationales for the relationships between employee brand support and the antecedent factors of interest, namely, internal branding activities and the transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders.

7.2.1.2 Conceptualisation and measurement level

As stated above, this study seeks to explain, in a holistic manner, the relationships between employee brand support and its potencial antecedent factors, based on a combination of marketing control theory, the transformational leadership theory, the social learning theory and the social change theory. The study, thus, contributes to the existing knowlege at the conceptualisation level by offering a conceptual model which explains the way in which employee brand support is formed through formal and informal marketing controls (i.e., internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities and transformational leaders).

Furthermore, regarding the measurement scale development conducted in Thailand, additional items were discovered for measuring the constructs of internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities, transformational leadership and employee brand support. The measurement scales for measuring the studied constructs from past studies (e.g., Aurand et al., 2005; Judson et al., 2006) were developed in a Western setting. Generally, when a construct and its measure are applied in a different research setting, the researchers need to pay more attention to the applicability and equivalence of a construct and its measure (e.g., Craig & Douglas, 2000; Kaynak & Kara, 2002). This research offers measurement items for measuring the aspects of internal branding, transformational leadership and employee brand support in the context of a higher education institution, in particular, one in a non-Western context.

Moreover, the research also provides further understanding about the dimensionality and operationalisation of the studied concepts (internal branding aspects, employee brand support and transformational leadership characteristics) from the perspective of the academic staff. According to the statistical analysis, this study shows that the concepts of internal brand communications, brand-centred training and development activities, transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support are all single-dimension concepts.

In addition, from the marketing and communication based perspective (Karmark, 2005), the literature suggests that internal branding activities consist of 1) internal brand communications and 2) brand-centred training and development activities. On the basis of the discriminant validity test, this study is the first to statistically support the multidimensionality of the construct, implying that internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities are only different aspects of the internal branding activities.

Besides, as far as the findings are concerned, this study suggests that the studied concepts are not equally salient to different employees in different settings. Concerning the measurement items of the employee brand support, research so far (e.g., Aurand et al., 2005; Judson et al., 2006, 2009), from the perspective of marketing and communication (Karmark, 2005) has emphasised employees' behaviour as the result of direct/formal controls (i.e., internal brand communications activities and training and development activities). However, the research shows that the brand-centred training and development activities (e.g., the institution's guidelines as a specific process, key performance indicators and standard procedures) tends to be the most important part in forming employee brand support.

Additionally, this study extends to current understanding about the operationalisation of internal brand communications construct. That is, from the academic staff's perspective, the operationalisation of internal brand communications construct was found to be more diverse than its theoretical elements (the internal brand communication umbrella introduced by Ind (2007) which comprises the communication of brand values through the content of messages in individual communication, group communication and general communication). According to the in-depth interviews, the aspects of one and two way communication (the chance to interact with the internal brand communication media) tend to be another important aspects which employees of Thai universities can observe and identify.

7.2.1.3 Theory testing and generalisation

By examining the proposed conceptual model of the relationships between employee brand support and the factors of internal branding and transformational leadership (as determinant factors of employee brand support) in the non-Western context, the research is expected to contribute to theory testing and generalisation. With regard to the research setting, as the cultural backgrounds of Thai people are substantially different from those in Western countries (McGill, 1995; Powpaka, 1998), examining the proposed conceptual model in Thailand was expected to provide additional insights into the previous literature.

In this study, the previous measurements available to the construct under scrutiny were verified, adapted and purified in a research setting (the Thai business school context) which is culturally different from the ones in which these measurements were first developed. According to the findings, all the scales are generally valid in their original content. However, some new items of the construct were added after the in-depth interviews. Although the number of measurement items after the purification of the scales is not the same as the original number, the statistical results exhibited a high degree of construct reliability, construct validity and discriminant validity for each construct. In addition, satisfactory fit indices supported the satisfactory nature of both the measurement and the structural model. These findings, therefore, contribute to the literature by modifying and testing the measurement scales in a research setting which is culturally different from the settings in which the measurements were first developed.

Furthermore, this study provides information about the applicability and generalisability of Western-developed theories in a non-Western context. From the perspective of the Thai employees, or at least the academic staff, the factors of internal branding (i.e., internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities) and the transformational leadership characteristics were found in this study to be the factors which build employee brand support, making these findings similar to the findings of studies conducted in Western settings (e.g., Vallater & de Chernatony, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Judson et al., 2006; Morhart et al., 2009).

From the interviews, it appeared that employees' understanding of the studied concepts was in alignment with the existing literature. However, employees in this setting emphasise a different aspect of the studied concepts. The study provides additional insights into previous findings by showing that Thai employees are more likely to relate their brand support behaviour to the factor of brand-centred training and development activities rather than any of the other antecedent factors of interest. In addition, the full mediator role of brand-centred training and development activities found in this study illustrates that, from the perspective of academic staff in Thai business schools, the internal brand communications factor may not be able to effectively shape their employee brand support as it should be, without having support from the brand-centred training and development activities factor (for example, training programmes, rules and guidelines which are related to the brand). The insignificant relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support found in this study also suggests that internal brand building strategies based only on internal communication media may not be very effective in the Thai context.

Regarding the applicability and generalisability of the findings, the findings of this study could perhaps be generalised in other schools of higher educational institutions. Business schools may not quite the same as other schools; for instance, business schools might be more market-oriented than the rest. However, the new public management and quasi market policies employed by governments around the world encourage educational institutions to be altogether more market-orientated (Walford, 1996). Moreover, higher education institutions are being transformed into corporate enterprises (Henkel, 1997), thus implying that not only business schools, but other academic schools also are forced, in some senses, to be more market oriented.

Apart from educational institutions, the findings of this study which highlight the vital roles of training and development activities in providing rules and guidelines to encourage employees' behaviour show that they could be applied in several other industries. As discussed in the previous sections, higher education institutions typically have a high power distance culture and a bureaucratic system of control (Henkel, 1997); thus, formal control activities (i.e., internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities) are likely to play a significant role in shaping an employee's behaviour to align with the brand values of the institution (Jaworski et al., 1993). The findings of this study could, therefore, be generalised in many organisations which have a high power distance culture or a bureaucratic system of control, such as a top-down management organisation. For example, in a military service organisation, the rules and guidelines are generally used to ensure that people in the organisation act in alignment with the values of the organisation. In addition, the findings of this study could be generalised in service industries where orderliness is needed (e.g., hotels, restaurants, and other hospitality services) in order to ensure that employees are able to provide services which are in line with the brand value. Moreover, the findings of this study could also be generalised to the organisation of credence goods. The organisational culture of credence goods is knowledge driven (e.g., hospitals), which demand high quality staff with skills, as well as deep and wide-ranging knowledge (Moorthi, 2002); thus, training and development programmes related to the organisation values may be very important to ensure that the employees act in line with the brand values of the organisation.

Furthermore, regarding the characteristics of Thai employees, the findings of this study could be generalised not only over South East Asian organisations, but also in the organisations of many countries in Asia and other continents. As presented in the previous chapter, Thai employees exhibit a high score of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1984; House et al., 2004). According to a study conducted by House et al. (2004), employees with a high score of uncertainty avoidance are likely to prefer their job requirements and instructions to be spelled out in detail, in order for them to know what they are expected to do. The study shows that, there are many countries around the world where employees exhibit a very high score of uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1984; House et al., 2004). These countries are in Europe (e.g., Greece, Armenia, Albania and Georgia), South America (e.g., Mexico, Venezuela, Ecuador, and El Salvador), Africa (e.g., Egypt, Morocco, Nigeria and Namibia) and Asia (e.g., Iran, China, Taiwan, Indonesia and the Philippines). With a high score of uncertainty avoidance, an employee is likely to prefer a job to be identified and communicated in detail in order to know his/her exact role in the organisation (House et al., 2004). This means that, by appropriately providing and communicating brand values through the uses of rules and guidelines in the training and development activities, these activities can be a tool for the organisations in these countries to clarify and encourage the brand support behaviour of their employees (rather than making them feel stressed and uncomfortable from being controlled by rules and guidelines). The discussions above demonstrate that the findings of this study could be applied in several other settings, implying that the generalisability of the findings should be sufficient.

7.2.2 Managerial contributions

The core managerial contribution of this study is that internal branding activities (i.e., internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities) and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders can be managed in the interests of employee brand support, in particular those of academic staff in higher educational institutions. In the context of universities, internal branding is mainly based on knowledge imported from other business sectors. The findings of this study, thus, offer practical guidelines for the managers of universities in actively managing the university's brand from the inside out. Basically, this study recommends that a university could enhance brand support behaviour from the academic staff by communicating them institutional brand values via training and development activities, internal brand communications activities and transformational immediate leaders. However, as presented in the previous section, the findings of this study could perhaps be generalised to several other industries. In practice, the suggestions from this study could be a useful guideline for the management team of educational institutions as well as those in other industries, above all, service industries, to encourage employee brand support effectively.

Among the outcomes from this study is a suggestion that management should concentrate more on operating training and development activities. The findings of this study indicate that internal brand communications activities may not directly affect employee brand support. The study suggests that the brand values which employees perceive *through these activities alone* may not be able to effectively shape employee brand support. According to the findings of this study, training and development activities (for example, the training programmes, standard procedures, rules and guidelines which are aligned with the organisation's brand) are likely to be more important than internal brand communications and transformational leaders, in educating employees in the appropriate ways of working. Therefore, in order to create employee brand support, the management team should not concentrate heavily on communicating brand values via internal brand communications activities, while ignoring the training and development activities. However, the brand values which employees perceive through the internal brand communications activities can enhance the employees' perception of the brand values which are communicated through the training and development activities (i.e., the brand-centred training and development activities), thereby influencing their brand support behaviour. Thus, internal communication activities could be used as a technique to inform employees about the brand value of the organisation, while the brand-centred training and development activities could be used as a technique for directing and, to some extent, controlling the behaviour of academic staff in alignment with the organisation's brand.

For example, in order to encourage academic staff to support the value of being 'a local university', an institution could communicate a set of policies (including, e.g., mission, vision and goals) related to these brand values through internal communication media (e.g., meetings, e mail, intranet website and brand books), coupled with training and development activities (e.g., training in ways to design courses and conduct research which benefits the local community as well as performance indicators related to supporting the local community). Employees in an organisation could employ the brand values (including organisation values, e.g., vision and mission) which are communicated through the brand-centred training and development activities, as rules and guidelines for them to act in line with. At the same time, communicating brand values through the internal brand communication media, either specifically to separate groups of employees or in general, will spread these values to employees by giving them repeated opportunities to absorb these values. This could, therefore, enhance their understanding of the brand when incorporating the brand values into their work activities.

This study suggests to management that transformational leaders are likely to have power over the formation of employee brand support and the operation of internal branding. Thus, the academic staff's immediate leaders with transformational leadership characteristics should be seen as an important factor which can greatly affect the building of brand support behaviour among academic staff. In an organisation, what is needed to influence employee brand support is transformational leaders who tend to facilitate collective actions and systems based on the institution's values, i.e., the institution's mission and vision (Leithwood, 1992; Roberts, 1985). They can encourage or initiate internal branding activities (i.e., brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communication activities), thereby indirectly creating employee brand support. Since a head of department with transformational leadership tends to identify and prioritise the training activities related to the institution's values, such activities could be supported efficiently by his/her provision of financial support for the training activities, for example, or for an academic staff member to attend the activities.

Moreover, this study found that the brand support behaviour of employees can be directly affected by transformational leaders, immediate leaders in particular. Thus, apart from operating internal branding activities, ensuring the existence of transformational leaders within the organisation is another way for management to encourage the building of employee brand support. For example, the organisations can provide their leaders with leadership training courses related to the brand, concentrating on the immediate leaders of academic staff. A study by Morhart et al. (2009) insists that brand-specific transformational leadership can be learned through management training. Therefore, by providing brand leadership training, leaders can specifically learn how to build brand support behaviour among their followers through the characteristics of transformational leadership. Regarding the characteristics of transformational leadership, this study suggests that the organisation should ensure that its leaders are capable of being a role model; providing followers with more freedom, advice, counselling and other psychological support and communicating high expectations to the followers, in order to inspire and demonstrate to followers an appealing image of what they might accomplish as brand supporters.

The scale of transformational leadership characteristics could be used by the management as a guideline for creating a leadership training programme and also for monitoring the behaviour of leaders. Organisations may also provide this guideline (the adapted scale of transformational leadership characteristics) for leaders to evaluate themselves. In addition, the organisations could adapt the measurement scale of internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development activities developed in the present study as a basic checklist to monitor the degree of internal branding activity within them. Thus, the operations and the consistency of internal branding activities and the transformational characteristics of leaders could be audited and monitored in order to ensure the effectiveness of internal branding process in building employee brand support. Moreover, the employee brand support scale could also be used by the organisations as a performance indicator to evaluate the performance of employees. By being well-informed about the effectiveness of each aspect of internal branding, the management team can manage its branding and marketing strategies more efficiently. For example, this checklist could help an organisation to ensure the co-operation between the marketing and communication department and the human resources department. This is, the organisation could use this information to identify whether the brand values attached to the brand-centred training and development activities (e.g., standard procedures and performance evaluation) are closely aligned to the brand values communicated through the internal communication media. The set of measurement scales developed in this study could, therefore, benefit the management of the educational institutions and also of other organisations.

In addition, in order to design the performance indicators and transformational leadership training activities, as well as other internal branding activities, this study suggests that the institution may pay particular attention to some factors (items) which attain a high mean score in the present study. For example, in order to design the leaders performance indicators, the institution may consider applying item II3 (I am proud to be associated with him) and item IM3 (He/she helps me find meaning in my work) as main indicators. The high mean scores of II3 and IM3 imply that it is very important for a leader to, at least, encourage the followers to be proud of working (being associated) with him/her (II3) and help followers to feel that their job is very important in developing themselves and the institution (IM3) in order to encourage them to act in alignment with the brand. Therefore, these factors should be included as the main performance indicators of the leader and used as the main parts of the transformational leadership training activities. In the same way, the factors of internal brand communications construct (such as item BCT2 'The school provides me with training to help me use brand values', item BCT3 'The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver brand values' and item BCT6 'The school provides training activities which are related to brand values') and brand-centred training and development activities construct (such as item IBC3: 'The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures' and item IBC4. 'The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications, e.g., school meetings') which exhibited a relatively high mean score should be considered and adopted as main indicators for auditing the operation of internal branding activities. This study therefore offers practical guidelines for an organisation and its leaders (immediate leaders in particular) which want to actively encourage their employees to act in support of the brand.

In addition, as this study shows, the antecedent factors of employee brand support may not all be equally effective in shaping employee brand support; this finding could be useful in guiding the management team to allocate resources effectively. For example, this study found that the factor of brand-centred training and development activities tends to be more effective as an influence on employee brand support than the other antecedent factors of interest under scrutiny (i.e., internal brand communications and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader). From the study, items related to training programmes also exhibited a relatively high mean score, such as item BCT2 'The school provides me with training to help me use brand values', BCT3 'The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver brand values' and BCT6 'The school provides training activities which are related to brand values'. Nevertheless, attending the training programme is generally time-consuming for employees and the organisation. The management may need to identify the most cost-efficient of the activities. For example, this study found in the interviews that employees mentioned several times using performance indicators as a guideline to supporting the brand. Thus, an organisation could pay more attention to this factor (i.e. item BCT4: ' [...] brand values is part of the annual performance reviews'), when adapting the measurement scale of brand-centred training and development activities as a guideline to monitor their operation.

In addition, the study notes that when an organisation communicates brand values through internal brand communications activities (using, for example, the organisation's website, memos, billboards, brand books and brochures), an employee will usually have repeated opportunities to absorb the brand values. Although the study reveals that the impact of internal brand communication media on employee brand support is likely to be lower than the impact of the training and development activities, it appears that implementation through the communication media seem to be a simpler way of conveying the brand messages and sustaining employee's interest in the brand (Ind, 2007). Thus, in order for an organisation to create employee brand support, the brand values of the organisation could be first and fundamentally communicated through the internal brand communication media within the organisation. This, therefore, enhances employees' understanding of brand value. Organisations could adapt the items of internal brand communications as a basic guideline to monitor whether or not the brand values of the organisation are communicated through the various internal communication activities, particularly the communication media, within the organisation.

Furthermore, internal branding activities and the leaders' behaviour should also be monitored from the employees' perspective. This study was conducted from the perception of employees. The study therefore has an important contribution to the management because the finding of this study assists management that brand support from employees can be expected if the internal branding activities and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leaders are perceived by the employees. It is, therefore, very important to ensure that the implemented activities are perceived effectively by the employees in the organisation. According to Kinlaw (1988, p.38), an employee's performance is not determined solely by the real conditions of the organisation (e.g., efficient workflow and information systems). It is also determined by perceived conditions. Moreover, Lewis, Pun and Lalla (2007, p. 229) state that "perception plays a significant part in determining whether employees are disengaged, i.e. a phenomenon where employees are at work but are minimising their work contribution". The sets of measurement scale developed in this study can be used by the management for monitoring, from the standpoint of the employees, the degree of: internal branding activities operations, the transformational leadership behaviour of leaders and the level of employee brand support. For example, items of brand-centred training and development activities, as well as internal brand communications, can be used by the management to identify the extent to which employees receive the organisation's embedded brand (including mission and vision) through the training and communication activities. Furthermore, the scale of transformational leadership in the present study can be provided to employees in order to give them a chance to evaluate the behaviour of their leader. Moreover, the management could provide employees with an employee brand support scale by which to evaluate their own performance and to use as a guideline by which to align their behaviour with the brand. The data can then be collected and be used to compare and identify the effectiveness of these particular activities and also to point out whether there are any activities which tend to underperform. The results could later be used to improve the performance of these activities.

To sum up, the findings of this study suggest that employee brand support formation is a complex process that is influenced by multiple marketing activity factors including the factors of formal control activities and informal control activities. Thus, by taking a holistic approach to the research, the thesis provides an inclusive model of the way in which employee brand support could be created within an organisation through the use of marketing control tools, both formal (i.e., training and development activities, and internal brand communications activities) and informal (i.e., transformational immediate leaders). The research, therefore, enhances existing managerial knowledge on internal branding because this model could be used by managers as an annual audit of the operation of the internal branding activities and their effectiveness (employee brand support). By providing a comprehensive guideline with a checklist (measurement) for management to encourage employees in their brand support behaviour through the use of training, communication activities and transformational leaders within the organisation, this study could improve the effectiveness of employee brand support formation, notably in higher education institutions.

7.2.3 Policy contributions

Since the findings of this study suggest that the employee brand support of academic staff can be built through the use of internal branding activities and the work of the transformational immediate leaders of the academic staff, any supportive policy or actions involving these factors can help institutions to accelerate the process of building this brand support.

The information from this study could help governments to effectively develop or adopt policies related to communication and training activities in order to build employee brand support in universities. Through the use of policies, government can direct higher education institutions to organise appropriate internal branding activities for their academic staff. This can be done by, for example, adopting the scales of internal brand communication and brand-centred training and development activities used in this study as key performance indicators for an institution to align itself with.

Moreover, as discussed earlier, the changes in government policies give universities more responsibility and authority (Askling et al., 1999) and the increase of competition in the higher education sector. This situation encourages universities to act in a more business-like manner and to pay more attention to the quality of leadership (Davies et al., 2001). The government could provide specific leadership training courses for the leaders in the institution, in particular, the immediate leaders of the academic staff. The transformational leadership scale can be used as a guideline for the government to create the leadership training courses and a leader's performance evaluation tool.

In terms of financial policies, the government can assist the institutions in allocating financial resources appropriately by providing rules or guidelines for the institutions to allocate their annual budget to accommodate the internal branding activities and the leadership training courses. For example, since the impact of brand-centred training and development activities on employee brand support is likely to be high, the government could provide rules or guidelines which identify the way in which the institution's budget should/must be allocated in relation to the training activities, thus directing the institution to concentrate more on the training activities related to the brand.

This study, although conducted entirely in the context of educational institutions, nonetheless has findings which should enable policy makers in general to be better informed about the ways in which institutions can actively gain brand support from their employees. Moreover, the findings can also be applied to other public services in Thailand, as guidelines to improving their strategies in building employee brand support. Particularly, the information from this thesis offers the Thai government certain guidelines from the academic staff's perspective for building employee brand support. Since the Thai government increasingly recognises the importance of academic staff as strategic tools for the improved education of Thai students (CHE, 2009), the findings of this study are, therefore, expected to be of value to the government. The present findings could assist the government in encouraging higher education institutions in Thailand to build brand support behaviour on the part of their academic staff by using the staff's immediate leaders as well as internal branding activities (i.e., brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communication activities).

7.3 Limitations of the research

In this section, the results attained by this study will be interpreted in the light of certain limitations. The following paragraphs present the limitations related to the research design, including the research setting and the measurement. In addition, the limitations arising from subjects which could not have been known from the data and the implications of using self-reported behaviour are presented below.

In terms of the research setting, this study was conducted in a single setting, for the sake of providing the researcher with better control over market and environmental differences (Conant et al., 1990). However, this does limit the external validity (i.e., the generalisability of the findings). In addition, since the research was conducted in the context of a single industry, the findings of the research may not be easily generalised in other research settings (e.g., other industries and other countries). Although the measurement items used in this study were drawn from articles which provided perspectives from several service industries, the unique characteristics of Thai business schools could affect the outcomes of internal branding activities. Regarding the circumstances of business schools, the business school, as part of a university, will have been regulated by government policy and is closely watched by the university. Nevertheless, business schools cannot rely, in managing themselves, only on government and university budgets. In order to be competitive in the education market, the management strategies of business schools are likely, by their nature, to be more market orientated than other schools. This indicates some degree of uniqueness in the business school context which could influence the effectiveness of internal branding activities. For instance, the business schools are likely to be ahead of other academic schools with regard to brand communications (Melewar & Akel, 2005).

However, as noted in the previous section, it is expected that business schools should sufficiently represent other academic schools, since not only business schools but also other schools of higher educational institutions are being transformed into corporate enterprises (Henkel, 1997). This also implies that the findings of this study could be generalised to other schools in higher educational institutions. In addition, the generalisability of the findings should be sufficient because the findings of this study could be generalised in several other contexts, for example: in the organisations which follow a top down management style; in the service industries where orderliness is needed, so as to ensure that employees are able to provide services in line with the brand value (e.g., hotels, restaurants and other hospitality services); and in the organisations of credence goods where the organisational culture is knowledge driven (e.g., hospitals). In addition, as mentioned in the previous section, the findings of this study could be generalised in organisations where employees generally exhibit a high score of uncertainty avoidance. This means that the findings of this study could be generalised in the organisations of many countries in Asia (e.g., Iran, China, Taiwan, Indonesia, the Philippines), Europe (e.g., Greece, Armenia, Albania, Georgia), South America (e.g., Mexico, Venezuela, Ecuador, El Salvador) and Africa (e.g., Egypt, Morocco, Nigeria, Namibia) (House et al., 2004). However, future empirical research should be conducted to replicate this study in different research settings, for it is possible that the unique characteristics of other settings may affect the outcomes of internal branding.

Furthermore, this research may have some limitations regarding the issues associated with the research design. First of all, this study comprehensively examined the effect of internal branding on employee brand support in universities. However, there are several variables which could affect employee brand support. Thus, it is possible that other factors could be added. For example, according to Jaworski (1988), there are three types of informal control: self-control, social control and cultural control. Although Lawler (1976) notes that the researcher should not treat 'self-control' as 'no control', the present research has been reluctant to stress this variable because it cannot be altered by management. Moreover, selecting employees on the basis of their behaviour and personal attitude can be a challenge.

The target population of this study is academics in Thai universities. However, due to the unavailability of full details about the potential respondents of this study, a non-probability sampling method was applied (a judgement sample). This could have introduced bias into the research design because there is a chance that some groups in the population were not included in the sample (Churchill, 1996). Although judgement sampling is a non-probability sampling method which provides a group of respondents who can give information for a specific study and may be adequate for creating exploratory studies, probability sampling methods are usually considered to be superior because they enable researchers to estimate the amount of sampling error present (Churchill, 1996). In addition, this study only collected data from the employees of Thai business schools. Moreover, due to the unwillingness of the target schools to take part in the research, this study gathered data from 20 Thai business schools. Although the schools are from both private and public sector and from different major parts of Thailand, collecting the data from 20 Thai business schools could possibly limit the generalisability of the results to the whole population.

Additionally, by using only the academic staff of business schools, this research may possess a respondent bias towards the academic staff of business schools and not other staff. Although the selected group of respondents was desirable for the study because their experience of brand communication within the business school could help them to estimate the value of the brand values/communication activities within institutions more accurately than others might have, the findings provided in this study may improve our understanding of the relationships between the constructs of interest but only from the perspective of the academic staff in business schools. Internal branding activities in university, however, can be viewed from several stakeholders (Judson et al., 2006), such as administrative staff and managers. Therefore, future research should also be conducted with other groups of respondents (such as administrative staff, leaders and the management team) or in other academic schools in order to test the validity and generalisability of the findings and the scales used in this study (for more detail, see Section 7.4, Directions for further research).

In addition, this study may be affected by common method bias, as its data were collected from the same source (academic staff), using the same questionnaire for measuring both the independent variables (the transformational leadership characteristics of staff members' immediate leaders) and the dependent variables (brand-centred training and development activities, internal brand communications and employee brand support). Therefore, the researcher ascertained the existence of common method variance bias among the study variables by 1) performing Harman's (1967) single-factor test; and 2) including a common methods factor in the final model (for more details, see Section 5.2.2.7 on the common method bias). It was found that the common method bias in the data was relatively limited and was unlikely to confound the interpretations of results.

The distribution of questionnaires may possibly have some limitations also. Although the researcher attempted to access a variety of groups (e.g., male and female, age groups and education) of respondents from the academic staff of business schools by distributing the questionnaires in person, the distribution of the questionnaires may not fully reflect the distribution of the population due to the time limitation and some uncontrollable factors (e.g., the unavailability of full details about the potential respondents of this study). Besides, the respondents in some groups (i.e., female respondents and the respondents with a master's degree) provided a higher proportion of replies than the respondents in other groups. As a result, this could influence the generalisability of the results to the whole population.

Another limitation of the research design may be the approach used in the qualitative interviews. The interviews were conducted with the main purpose of exploring the studied concepts in order to generate the additional measurement items for each concept (Churchill, 1979; Craig & Douglas, 2000), rather than of examining the research hypotheses. Thus, some quotes acquired from the interviews as examples explaining the relationships may not perfectly fit with the revealed relationships. The examples from the qualitative interviews may not sufficiently explain the revealed relationships, particularly the unexpected relationship found in this study. The researcher, therefore, reviewed the measurement items of the studied constructs in order to explain the revealed relationships. Moreover, for a more critical consideration, the researcher also reviewed the possible impact of the scope of measurement items on the unexpected outcomes. Additionally, the designed questions were focused on the studied concepts in order to control the scope of the discussion. Nevertheless, as presented in Chapter 4, the questions used during the interviews were open-ended. In addition, after the respondent answered each question, probing questions were asked for elaboration and clarification. The data gathered from the interviews were generally in alignment with the existing literature. Some comments from respondents were similar to items acquired from existing literature. Consequently, 13 new items were developed.

In addition, the limitation in terms of the measurements should be pointed out. As the measurement scales in this study were obtained from several sources, i.e., the literature and the findings of the qualitative study (in-depth interviews), some items may not have been appropriate items for measuring the constructs. Thus, they were dropped after the exploratory factor analysis and reliability test were performed. However, on the basis of Churchill's "paradigm for developing better measures of marketing construct" (Churchill, 1979, p.64), it is believed that the survey instrument used in this study was firmly developed. The reliability and validity of the measurement scales obtained from the literature and the qualitative findings (in-depth interviews) were supported by performing several rounds of factor analysis.

However, as discussed in the previous chapter, the scope of the measurement scale used in this study may have affected the relationships found in this study. That is, the developed items for measuring the internal brand communications construct tend to have a relatively broad meaning, which may bring about ambiguous interpretation by the respondents. For example, items IBC2 ('brand values are communicated specifically to each group') and IBC4 ('The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications, e.g., school meetings') may, to some extent, overlap the items of brand-centred training and development (BCT) activities. However, discriminant validity tests support the sufficiency of the constructs' distinctiveness. Nevertheless, this shortcoming of the measurement could, to some extent, influence the nature of: the relationship between internal brand communication and brand-centred training and development activities, and the insignificant relationship between internal brand communication and employee brand support. In addition, items to do with transformational leadership characteristics are not specifically related to the brand. The study may not be able to fully demonstrate that the brand values are in fact communicated through a transformational leader's behaviour. Therefore, the conclusion that transformational leaders enable employees to perform in alignment with the brand could be conjectural. However, the existing literature suggests that transformational leaders facilitate collective actions based on the institution's values, i.e., the institution's mission and vision (Leithwood, 1992; Roberts, 1985), which are an important part of brand value, enabling employees to understand 'what we are', 'what our organisation stands for' and 'what it is that makes us who we are' (Urde, 2003).

Further limitations relating to the subjects which this research could not acquire from the data should also be discussed. For example, it should be noted that the causality of the relationships in this research cannot be proven statistically. Therefore, the results were interpreted with caution in terms of the exact direction of the relationships between the constructs. The researcher attempted to explain the direction of the relationships between the constructs by examining the existing literature and the measurement items as well as providing some examples from the qualitative study. In addition, as this study was conducted from the academic staff perspective, the constructs of the internal branding activities were reported from the viewpoint of the employees, not the actions of the organisations. As stated earlier, the operation of internal branding activities and their effect on employees' behaviour were examined from the perception of employees, which therefore provides an important implication to the management because an employee's perception toward the organisational activities tends to play a significant part in determining his/her behaviour to support the organisation (Kinlaw, 1988; Lewis et al., 2007). However, it should be noted that the viewpoint of the employees may not reflect the actual actions of the organisations. Although, concerning social desirability bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), employees (compared to their leaders) are less likely to disguise information about internal branding activities because they have less direct responsibility for maintaining the image of the organisation, there was no clear evidence to support that the training and communication activities were exactly related to brand, or that the actual activities of brand-centred training and development as well as the internal brand communications were indeed implemented within these schools.

An issue which should be noted is that the findings of this study are from reported behaviour (Bernard, 2006). Regarding the research questions of this study, the operation of internal branding activities and the transformational leadership behaviour of the immediate leaders in the target schools were, therefore, analysed by using the data from the employees' perspective, not from the actions of the organisations. Since the information on internal branding activities was taken from the employees' perspective, the concern is that the study may not be able to completely confirm that the reported data reveal the actual operation of internal branding activities in these schools. Concerning the issues of the response bias, as discussed in Section 4.3.4, Target population, respondents tend to over-report favourable attitudes and under-report unfavourable attitudes (Tellis & Chandrasekaran, 2010). Thus, the respondents may evaluate the operation of internal branding activities on the basis of their attitude toward their organisation and their leaders, rather than the actual operation of internal branding activities. For example, as discussed Chapter 6, an employee who has a positive feeling towards his/her (transformational) leaders might over-report the operation of internal branding activities in the school in order to hide information which could damage his/her leader's image. This phenomenon may, therefore, manipulate the positive relationships between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and the internal branding activities. Besides, the description of employee brand support, the outcome of internal branding in the study, was derived from reported behaviour. Employees may over-report their employee brand support in order to protect their own image, due to the social desirability bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Social desirability bias is the tendency of some people to be prompted more by social acceptability than by their true opinion in responding to items (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, there are some limitations in using reported behaviour in this study.

Given the limitations of this research, as discussed above, and the under-development of university internal branding literature, there are several potential areas of internal branding studies which remain to be investigated. This underlies the directions for further research which are discussed in the following section.

7.4 Directions for further research

In the previous section, the limitations of this study were discussed. This section seeks to provide guidelines for the direction of further research in order to expand present knowledge in the research stream of internal branding and employee brand support in general, as well as in the higher education context.

First of all, this study mainly focuses on the relationship between internal branding activities and academic staff's brand support behaviour from the marketing and communication based perspective. At the same time, according to Karmark (2005), the impact of internal branding activities on employee brand support can also be seen from the norms and values based perspective. This perspective focuses on fostering brand identification through culture-embedding mechanisms in order to ensure that the personal values of an employee become congruent with the brand values. Therefore, future research could investigate the relationships between internal branding in universities and employee brand support, from the norms and values based perspective. The results from this future research could help university managers to more effectively select internal branding activities and allocate their budgets accordingly.

Moreover, it was noted during the interviews that, without physical differences, achieving differentiation becomes more and more difficult. One respondent provided an interesting comment on the brand values of educational institutions that:

> *"…The values of many universities are the same or similar to each other, not least if they are in the same country. Universities are likely to copy each other's values. The values of many educational institutions are increasingly similar to each other. They*

> *may not try to copy from each other but have been forced by social conditions or external pressure." (Interview 12)*

The comment above points to the fact that the values of educational institutions which society expects may have forced higher educational institutions to create similar values for themselves to those of each other and thus each becomes hard to differentiate from the rest. Therefore, this could be a direction for further research: it could examine the impact of employee brand support on the institution's brand-awareness from the external stakeholders' perspective. In addition, future research could also be improved by considering different units of analysis, such as the impact of internal branding activities and employee brand support on the organisation's performance or the ranking of universities. These factors could be analysed by using the organisation as the unit of analysis.

As presented above, the research was conducted in an educational institutional setting, which is limited to the context of a single industry. Regarding the circumstances of business schools, as discussed earlier, business schools may not be quite the same as other schools; for instance, business schools may be more market-oriented than the rest. Future studies should explore whether the relationships found in this study also hold in other settings, for example, other schools and other industries. Moreover, some factors unique to the research setting may have a strong influence on the brand support behaviour of academic staff and its antecedent factors in the model, such as the cultural factor. As discussed in the previous chapter, an employee in a high uncertainty avoidance culture is more willing to follow the institution's brand values, rules and guidelines in exchange for security than an employee in a low uncertainty avoidance culture would be (Hofstede, 1983). In addition, job requirements and instructions are preferred to be spelled out in detail. This cultural factor could be a direction for further research. That is, future research could examine whether the culture is a possible moderator of the relationships between employee brand support and its antecedent factors. Since this study has been conducted in Thailand, an Asian country, future research should examine the applicability of the model in a context where the uncertainty avoidance score is low, such as the Netherlands or Switzerland (House et al. 2004) as well as other non-Asian cultural settings. According to the existing literature on university marketing and branding, there are several factors which could influence the operation and the impacts of internal branding in universities. The factors which should receive attention from future researchers are, for example, the marketing strategies of old universities and new universities in the UK (Naude & Ivy, 1999); the management styles of public universities and private universities in the USA (Judson et al., 2006) and the size of universities, such as multi-campus universities and single-campus universities in the USA (Knepper, 2010).

In addition, future research should test the applicability and equivalence of the constructs and their measures when applying them in different research settings (Craig & Douglas, 2000; Kaynak & Kara, 2002) such as different countries or industries. For example, according to Shimp and Sharma (1987), future research may translate the constructs and their measures into other languages and test them in other countries. The researchers should examine whether the constructs exist in these other settings (Craig & Douglas, 2000). In addition, even when the constructs are found to exist, the researchers should also examine whether their measures are the same in these settings (Craig & Douglas, 2000). This means that future research may employ the measurements offered in this study as a platform for developing additional measurement items in relation to the research setting. In addition, future research could collect data from universities in other South-East Asian countries and further develop a model to generalise across south-east Asia.

Furthermore, future research could adopt the conceptual model offered in this study by using alternative measurement items for the construct of internal brand communications. That is, instead of employing the internal brand communications items used in this study, which tend to have a relatively broad meaning, each internal brand communications activity could be specifically measured. For example, a study by Judson et al. (2006) used the activities of meetings, e-mailing, bill-boards and publications to measure the internal brand communications activities in universities. The results could then be compared with the model offered in this study to examine whether the relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support in the model still remained insignificant.

Moreover, as stated in the previous section, the characteristics of transformational leadership adopted in this study are not specifically related to the brand. However, during the course of this research, a recent study of Morhart et al. (2009) revealed a set of items for measuring brand related-transformational leadership characteristics. Employing this set of items for future research could help researchers to better capture the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support. Furthermore, since a set of items for measuring brand related-transformational leadership characteristics is available, future research could attempt to further explore the underlying mechanism of the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support. For instance, future research could investigate whether there are any mediating or moderating effects embedded in the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support. Moreover, a set of items for measuring brand related-transactional leadership characteristics has also recently become available for future research to investigate whether the transactional leader could also affect the operation of internal branding and the brand support behaviour of academic staff.

In addition, since the brand support behaviour of academic staff in this study was self-rated, bias may have been introduced. Moreover, the information on internal branding activities and leaders' transformational leadership characteristics acquired from employees could be overstated or understated due to the respondents' attitudes towards their institution or their immediate leaders. That is, respondents may have over-reported if they had favourable attitudes or under-reported if they had unfavourable attitudes (Tellis & Chandrasekaran, 2010). Future research could, therefore, examine the actual operation of internal branding activities in the organisations by employing alternative techniques. For example, the researchers could conduct semi-structured interviews with management or an observation of the internal branding activities by analysing internal data (e.g., operational data, brand book, intranet website, training activities, training documents and performance review documents).

Moreover, future research should examine the relationships between employee brand support, internal branding and transformational leaders from different perspectives, for example, the perspectives of the leaders and of the management team. Acquiring the information from different perspectives will enable the researchers to understand further the relationships between the constructs of interest from both the employees' and the managers' perspectives, thus reducing the response bias. The researchers could further examine the gaps between the employees' and the managers' perception of internal branding activities. Moreover, the factors which create such gaps should be investigated.

Additionally, a qualitative study could be conducted to further describe the relationships between the constructs. For example, it was noted in this study that having a high score of uncertainly avoidance may be one of the factors to explain why brand-centred training and development activities highly affect employee brand support. Moreover, the internal brand communications activities studied here are likely to be less powerful in encouraging employee brand support than are the training and development activities. In addition, as regards the mediators of the brand-centred training and development activities factor in the model, this factor is likely to play a significant role in encouraging employee brand support. Apart from the reasons for the emerging relationships discussed in this study, future qualitative research could further explore these phenomena in order to provide more insightful details which might disclose other factors influencing such relationships.

7.5 Summary

This doctoral research has sought to comprehensively examine the relationships between internal branding activities (i.e., brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications), employee brand support and the transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leaders, mainly on the basis of marketing control theory, social learning theory and transformational leadership theory.

On the basis of the study's statistical results and the qualitative findings, the internal branding activities and transformational leadership characteristics of the academic staff's immediate leaders are likely to be antecedent factors of employee brand support. These results suggest that, in order for a university to create brand support behaviour among academic staff, the university should ensure that internal branding activities, i.e., brand-centred training and development activities and internal brand communications activities, are in operation. Moreover, it is crucial for the university to ensure that the immediate leaders of academic staff do exhibit transformational leadership characteristics, because such leadership characteristics not only encourage employees to give brand support, but also either initiate or influence internal branding activities, thereby creating further employee brand support. Furthermore, brand-centred training and development activities were found to have a full mediating effect on the relationship between employee brand support and internal brand communications activities. These signify an important role for brand-centred training and development activities in creating brand support behaviour among academic staff. Therefore, it is crucial for a university not only to communicate its brand values through the communication media, but to also communicate the brand values through the training and development activities within the institution in order to ensure that its academic staff understand the brand and incorporate the brand values in their day-to-day-operations. Kunde (2000, p.171) states:

> "Entrusting people with the brand is risky business – far more risky than running massive advertising campaigns, where the message – however well executed – is within your span of control. Carefully ensuring that people are committed and understand and accept both the whys and the hows of brand delivery, however, can turn a risk into a powerful asset. "

As discussed in this chapter, the researcher expects that this study will offer several potential theoretical, managerial and policy contributions. In addition, the findings could be generalised to other contexts which have in common certain characteristics, such as organisational culture, management style and employees' behaviour. However, some limitations of this research should be noted, for instance, the issues relating to the shortcomings of the measures and the research design. The researcher, therefore, also revealed possible areas for future research. For example, the relationships between employee brand support, internal branding and transformational leaders should be investigated from different perspectives (e.g., those of leaders and of management). The research could examine the gaps between the employees' and the managers' perceptions of the internal branding activities. At the same time, the factors which create such gaps could also be investigated. In addition, during the course of this research, a recent study of Morhart et al. (2009) revealed a set of items for measuring brand related-transformational leadership characteristics. Employing this set of items for future research could help researchers to better capture the relationships between transformational leadership characteristics and employee brand support.

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Appendix A: Universities in Thailand

Table A-1 Universities in Thailand (113 universities)

University types	University numbers
Limit the number of students	61(11*) universities
Not limit the number of students (Open-admissions)	2(0*) universities
Rajamongala universities (former polytechnic institutes)	9 (2*)universities
Rajabhat universities (former teacher training institutes)	41(7*) universities

Source: Adapted from

http://www.mua.go.th/

Retrieved on: 23.1.2011

Table A-2 Higher education institutions in Thailand

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Institution types</th><th>Institution numbers(179)</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Public

Academics (total): 46,199
Academics(in business schools / social sciences schools): 7,160</td><td>Public universities</td><td>63(9*)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Public autonomous universities</td><td>12(10*)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Public institutions</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>Public autonomous institutions</td><td>1</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Private
Academics (total): 7,772
Academics(in business schools / social sciences schools): 2,197</td><td>Private universities</td><td>38(1*)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Private colleges</td><td>25</td></tr>
<tr><td>Private institutions</td><td>7</td></tr>
<tr><td>Local colleges</td><td>Local colleges</td><td>19</td></tr>
</table>

Source: Adapted from

http://www.mua.go.th/

Retrieved on: 23.1.2011

*The number of participated schools in the main survey (The Central of Thailand=4; The North of Thailand =8; The North-East of Thailand =6; The South of Thailand =2)

Appendix B: Topic Guide for the Interviews

Description of respondent: **Date:** **Place:** **Duration of interview:** **Interviewer:**
The interviewer will first provide explanations about the objectives of the research to respondents (academic staff of business schools). The respondent will be asked:
An overall view of internal branding and employee brand support
The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between internal branding and the employee's brand support behaviour, from the academic staff's perspective. The marketing and branding literature suggests that organisations with consistent, unique and deeply held values are likely to perform better than those organisations with a less clear and articulated ethos (Collins and Porras, 1995; Mosley, 2007). Internal branding helps organisations to focus on their brand values by cooperatively conveying and committing to one coherent brand message (typically attached to some form of corporate mission and vision) (Urde, 2003; Mosley, 2007), in order for their employees to understand the brand values and deliver the full promise of the brand to customers. From the marketing and communication based perspective, internal branding is about aligning employee behaviour with brand values through internal communication, as well as training and development activities (Karmark, 2005). Internal branding is *a way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand's promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations* (Urde, 2003; Karmark, 2005; Ind, 2007). • Do you agree with this statement? Why? • What is your understanding of internal branding?
• How would you describe the internal branding in your school?
• What do you think are important internal branding aspects? Why?
Evidence shows that when internal banding activities have been implemented, university staffs are likely to illustrate brand support behaviour (Judson *et al.*, 2006). They tend to have a "clearer understanding of their respective universities' brand values and are subsequently better able to use these brand values in their everyday work" (Judson *et al.*, 2006, pp. 105). • Do you agree with this statement? Why? • What is your understanding of employee behaviour in support of brand?
• How would you describe the academic staff's brand support behaviour?
• Would you please describe behaviour on your part that supports your organisation's brand?

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">
• Do you think that an academic who exhibits brand support behaviour will be confident in his/her ability to clearly explain the brand values? Why?
• Do you think that an academic who exhibits brand support behaviour will use his/her knowledge of his/her institution’s brand values to better organise his/her time? Why?
• Do you think that an academic who exhibits brand support behaviour will be influenced by the brand values when making his/her decisions on customer (student) requests? Why?
• Do you think that an academic who exhibits brand support behaviour will know what skills are necessary to deliver in connection with the brand value? Why?
• Do you think that an academic who exhibits brand support behaviour will include information on brand values in his/her day-to-day operation? Why?
</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">RQ1) From the academic staff’s perspective, what is the relationship, if any, between internal branding and employee brand support?</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">• H1: Brand-centred training and development activities are positively related to employee brand support.

Jaworski, Stathakopoulos & Krishnan (1993); Gotsi and Wilson (2001), Ind (2003), Aurand et al. (2005), Mosley (2007), King and Grace (2008), Ind (2007), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007)</td>
<td>• Would you please name the training activities used by your department to convey the brand value (message) to you?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Brand-centred training activities are ways to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand’s promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through training and development activities, so as to help employees to have the necessary skills in delivering these values to customers.
• Do you agree with this statement? Why?</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Can you think of any training activities used by your department that tend to reinforce the brand messages (values)?
• Can you think of any training activities used by your department to help employees use the brand messages (values)?
• Can you think of any training activities used by your department to provide the skill set necessary to deliver the brand messages (values)?
• Do annual performance reviews of your school include any metrics on delivering the messages (values)
• Do you think that any departmental plans of you school include employees’ roles in living the brand values? Why?</td></tr>
<tr><td>• How much do training activities influence your brand support behaviour? Would you please describe how the training activities influence your brand support behaviour?</td></tr>
</table>

• H2: Internal brand communications are positively related to employee brand support. e.g. Mitchell (2002), Vallaster and de Chernatony (2003, 2006), Burmann & Zeplin (2005), Aurand et al. (2005), Judson et al. (2006), Mosley (2007), King and Grace (2008), Ind (2007); Whisman (2009)	• Would you please name the communication channels and tools used by your department to convey the brand value (message) to you?
	Internal brand communications are ways to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand's promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through communication media. • Do you agree with this statement? Why?
	• Would you please explain how much these communication channels and tools influence your brand support behaviour?
	• Can you name the communication channels and tools used by your department to communicate brand messages (values) to employees individually (one-to-one)? • Can you name the communication channels and tools used by your department to communicate brand messages (values) specifically to each group (segment) of employees? • Can you name the communication channels and tools used by your department to communicate brand messages (values) to (all) employees through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures?
RQ2) Are the leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader determinants of employee brand support?	
• H4: The transformational leadership characteristics of immediate leaders are positively related to employee brand support. Jaworski et al. (1993); Vallaster and de Chernatony (2003, 2006), Burmann & Zeplin(2005), Morhart et al. (2009)	• Can you list the characteristics of your immediate leader which tend to encourage your brand support behaviour? Why?
	As far as the brand and value of your institution is concerned, transformational leadership is a leader's behaviour that is (the definition of the transformational leader will be provided…) can "[influences] the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and [induces] them to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the brand". (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005, p. 293) • Do you agree with this statement? Why?
	• If you were a leader who is responsible for the internal branding in a university to create employee brand support, what would your communication strategy be? Which communication activities and tools would you organise? In which communication element would you invest? Why?
RQ3) Is the impact of internal branding and leadership characteristics on employee brand support direct? In other words, are there any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between internal branding factors, employee brand support and leadership characteristic factors?	

• H3: Internal brand communications are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities. (Wilson, 2001, Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Karmark, 2005 Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007) • H5: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to brand-centred training and development activities. • H6: The transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader are positively related to internal brand communications. • H7: The relationship between internal brand communications and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities. • H8: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by brand-centred training and development activities. • H9: The relationship between the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader and employee brand support is mediated by internal brand communications. Jaworski et al. (1993); Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006)	• How do you decide about how to behave in your day-to-day operations? What sort of information and information channels affect your decision? • Among all the elements that you mentioned, which most persuades you to behave in a manner that supports the brand? • In which of them do you specifically look for clues about your institution's brand value? • How do you relate the information about the brand messages (values) to each other that you received from the sources that you mentioned?
Summary	
The interviewer will summarise the key points of the discussion. In addition, the proposed conceptual framework generated from the literature will be shown. Then the interviewer will ask if the respondents would like to make any changes or additions	
The main goals of this interview are: to discover the relationship between internal branding and academic staff's brand support behaviour; to recognise the impacts of the leadership characteristics of the staff members' immediate leader on employee brand support; and to understand whether there are any mediating effects embedded in the relationship between internal branding factors, employee brand support and leadership characteristic factors, from your perspective. If you think we have missed any points, would you please mention them?	
The interviewer thanks the respondents for their kind cooperation and valuable time.	

Appendix C: The Coding of the Interviews: The Main Constructs and Definitions with Sample Quotations from the Interviews

Table C-1: Internal branding in university (two constructs)

Internal branding in university (Domain) A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand's promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations (Urde, 2003; Karmark, 2005; Ind, 2007).
"The institution communicates the policies and what they want to be by using meetings, internal letters, memos and internal radio. There is also the university intranet but the focus is on the students. For me, I like meetings. In the meeting, there will be discussions about what the institution wants us to do in relation to its mission, vision and policy. We usually talk about what we want to do to our local community, which is the focus of the institution. In the meeting, we can all discuss the projects of the institution in more detail, so I understand the objectives and the details of what we plan to do. Moreover, the meetings help us to understand each other." (Interview 3)
"The institution' brand is to educate business knowledge with morality. This is what the institution also has been communicating to employees… We first received a guideline or a booklet. Most of us start by reading through this guidebook. ..." (Interview 12).
"…The values of many universities are the same or similar to each other, not least if they are in the same country. Universities are likely to copy each other's values. The values of many educational institutions are increasingly similar to each other. They may not try to copy from each other but have been forced by social conditions or external pressure." (Interview 12)
"*There is a strategy map which extracts the institution's values that need to be communicated through the institution's activities. These activities build the understanding of brand to the academic staff. In addition, these activities reinforce value and enhance the understanding of brand to some of us who have already done things in alignment with the brand without realising." (Interview 12)*
"Actually, what the institution communicates to us is not clearly stated as the institution's brand. However, I think what they communicate through the media are likely to be the image and brand that they want to be seen from the outside. The institution informs us that its main purpose is to develop our local community. In addition, it can probably be said that they assign us projects which could benefit the community, for example, conducting research in the community or providing some community service. In fact, participating in these activities gave me the feeling that I am a part of the institution's brand. I help people in the community as I am a part of the university. I guess this is what the university wants me to do. I think this is how the communications impact on my behaviour." (Interview 6)
"The business school communicates that the university is for local students and the local community. This means that my teaching and research should focus on the university and local community. This is important because it is about how the university positions itself and also guides me in what I need to do in order to follow this direction" (Interview 7)
"Several times, I missed the training opportunities because I did not know the schedule of those training activities. I want my school to inform me the detail of the training schedule every month, especially the ones that related to my performance review. Also, if the school can provide the benefits of each training session, it will help me to choose the most important training activities to attend."(Interview 9)
"There are training activities that are related to the brand values of the institution. Before these activities are operated, the date, time, place, and also the objectives of the activities will usually be stated on the intranet or the institution's newsletter. I think, some of them are related to institution's visions…" (Interview 2)
"…I did not have a lot of time to attend the training and development activities. However, since I know that publishing research papers is one of my performance indicators and can support the institution's image, I tried to attend as many research training activities as possible." (Interview 2)

"...The meetings in my department inform me about training activities that have operated within the institution, and usually suggest which one I should attend in order to have the skill the institution requires" (Interview 16).		
Constructs(Tree node)	**Items(Free node)**	**Sample quotes from the interviews**
Internal brand communication (construct) A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand's promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through communication media. Ind (1997), Joudson et al. (2006) , Karmark (2005), and Ind (2007).	• Brand messages (values) are communicated to employees individually (one-to-one) • Brand messages (values) are communicated specifically to each group (segment) of employees. • Brand messages (values) are communicated to (all) employees through internal mass communications, for example newsletters, memos and brochures **<u>Items generated from the interviews:</u>** • The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications (e.g., school meetings). • The school communicates brand values to me via one-way communication.	*"Mainly, we have a university newsletter. In addition there is a university song, which is played every day. The song tends to affect my behaviour. Well, I hear it every day. I know what the university wants to be, because it is embodied in the song... There are also university promotional items, which carry the messages of the university missions and its vision." (Interview 6)* *"In fact, it is quite clear that the institution wants to be the best institution in the local community because the institution's mission is to actually become the university for the local community. This message is apparent everywhere, for example, in meetings, billboards, the university's website and in promotional gifts, like pens and glasses. [...]Well, I have been doing research with my colleague on marketing for silk products, the silk is one of the local industries. Actually, we also attended research training modules, and they insisted that we should conduct research that benefits the local community." (Interview 7)* *"The institution communicates the policies and what they want to be by using meetings, internal letters, memos and internal radio. There is also the university intranet but the focus is on the students. For me, I like meetings. In the meeting, there will be discussions about what the institution wants us to do in relation to its mission, vision and policy. We usually talk about what we want to do to our local community, which is the focus of the institution. In the meeting, we can all discuss the projects of the institution in more detail, so I understand the objectives and the details of what we plan to do. Moreover, the meetings help us to understand each other." (Interview 3)* *"... Well, the messages on billboards do help me to know the institution's goals but I do not remember much. As for the messages I have seen on the university website, I never really pay attention to them. ..." (Interview 13)* *"The institution' brand is to educate business knowledge with morality. This is what the institution also has been communicating to employees... We first received a guideline/booklet. Most of us start by reading through this guidebook. Then, the HR department contacts us for all the training and development activities. In addition, there is a department called "planning and development" where we update all the information about the institution. This department distributes internal communications, for example, university booklets, small posters and other university publications. In addition, if we want to know the information related to the institution's plans and activities, we can contact this department." (Interview 12)* *"Sometimes, there are group meetings, for example, new lecturers' meetings and department meetings. In the new lecturers' meeting that I attended, the dean of school talked about what the institution expects us to do as a new lecturer. I was impressed by this meeting because knowing specifically what the institution expects from me gives me a good sense of direction so that I can work in alignment with the institution's goals."(Interview 1)* *"Mostly, they [the internal brand communications] are mass communication activities and usually they are indirect communications." (Interview 6)* *"The form of communication which tends to affect my behaviour to support the institution brand would be meetings. Well, the messages on billboards do help me to know the institution's goals but I do not remember*

		much. As for the messages I have seen on the university website, I never really pay attention to them. The meetings allow two-way communication. There is a chance for me to interact with the source of information. This makes me understand and remember things better." (Interview 13) *"In the meeting with the president of my institution, things I get from a meeting affect my behaviour because it offers two-way communication. In the meeting, the goals of the organisation, its mission and vision were explained clearly – we were allowed to ask questions if we did not understand something. I think we tended to understand things in the same way after the meeting. I like the two-way communication activities because if I do not understand I can ask and give my opinion." (Interview 11)* *"On the Web, I usually feel that there are so many things going on. A meeting would be better because it is a two-way communication. In a meeting, when you are not clear about something they are talking about, you can ask for more information."(Interview 1)*
Brand-centred training and development (construct) A way to enable employees to understand the values inherent in the brand and organisation in order for them to deliver the brand's promises to the consumers in their day-to-day operations by conveying the brand messages through training and development activities, so as to help employees to have the necessary skills in delivering these values to customers.	• The brand messages (values) are reinforced through training activities • Training is provided to help employees use these values • The skill set necessary to deliver these values is considered in staffing decisions • Annual performance reviews include metrics on delivering the values • Departmental plans include employees' roles in living the brand values **<u>Items generated from the interviews:</u>** • The school provides training activities that are	*"I think training programmes are likely to affect my behaviour more than communication media. This is because I can practise and participate with others when I do not understand something. For example, the research training programme made me understand how and where to get research funding. In addition, I realise that the university encourages and supports us to do research. It is better to have someone direct us to do things. The other communication media – for example, the university website or the intranet – I personally do not like to use them. However, they are convenient, so they will help me if I want to find basic information."(Interview 10)* *"...I did not have a lot of time to attend the training and development activities. However, since I know that publishing research papers is one of my performance indicators and can support the institution's image, I tried to attend as many research training activities as possible." (Interview 2)* *"If you want us to publish in international journals, just provide us training programmes. It helps us. One example is that it is university policy to publish lessons on-line. I wanted to do this but had had no training on how to do this. After attending an Internet-lesson training programme provided by the school, I started developing Internet lessons for my students." (Interview 9)* *"...The meetings in my department inform me about training activities that have operated within the institution, and usually suggest which one I should attend in order to have the skill the institution requires" (Interview 16).* *"There is a training activity, called 'quality assurance training'. From the training, I learnt about the institution's goals and what I need to do to support the goals. I was notified about the assessment of my work quality [performance indicators], so that I knew the ways of working in alignment with my institution's goals, for example, how to integrate knowledge about local culture in the activities and assignment of the course." (Interview 17)* *"The brand values came in the form of KPIs [key performance indicators]. The institution communicates the policy, mission and vision through the KPIs ... Training programmes related to the KIP are provided in my institution. I have attended some of them. In order to work in alignment with the brand of institution, my work is usually based the KPIs." (Interview 11)* *"The annual performance reviews of my institution are likely to be in alignment with the institution's mission,*

Karmark (2005), Aurand et al. (2005)	related to brand values • The school supports me in attending training activities that are related to brand values.	*vision and policy." (Interview 5)* *"For me, the KPIs are something that communicates what the university would like to be."(Interview 5)* *"Personally, I think the institution pays attention to the role of academic staff in supporting the institution brand. The institution provides me with support activities and mentors who give me personal advice during the training. Also, there is a list of criteria that academic staffs have to meet in order to get promoted." (Interview 6)* *"The institution wants us [academic staff] to support the institution mission. As they are trying to be become the best local research institution, they try to support us by providing the research training course and financial resources for the attending research training courses as well as for conducting research in local community." (Interview 7)* *"My institution encourages academic staff to conduct research. There are research training modules. I attended them. I have started conducting in-class research. The institution also encourages academics who have only a master's degree to get a PhD degree abroad by providing us with courses in English and scholarships for a PhD course in the USA and UK ... Apart from teaching and doing research, I try to organise my time by preparing myself to apply for a PhD course in USA. Actually, these kinds of support activities help me to know specifically what they want me to do. It is a work directive." (Interview 17)* *"After I had an IT Training course, I knew how to develop web sites. I then created a web site that benefits my students. Basically, the university policy is to lean more towards technology. In addition, after I attended a teaching training course, I changed my style of teaching. Students seem to be very happy with the change. Actually, in my school, there are annual performance reviews which are used for tracking how much we put the training courses into practice. If we don't apply what we have learnt, we need to explain the reason to our boss." (Interview 5)* *"I think what the institution wants us to do is designed and comes out in the form of the KPI [Key performance indicators] which are related to the mission and vision of the intuition. I usually follow the institution's KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)* *"I think the institution is aware that we [academic staff] may not be very sure what the institution specifically wants from us. Therefore, my institution uses key performance indicators, which are called SARS, for informing us about things that I need do as an academic staff member of the institution. Actually, this tool helps me to work in the right direction, instead of doing something that is not related to the goals or mission of the institution." (Interview 6)* *"There are training activities that are related to the brand values of the institution. Before these activities are operated, the date, time, place, and also the objectives of the activities will usually be stated on the intranet or the institution's newsletter. I think, some of them are related to institution's visions…" (Interview 2)*

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

Table C-2: Employees brand support (one constructs)

Employees brand support(construct)

Staff's understanding and incorporating of brand values into work activities (Aurand et al.,2005) and Joudson et al., 2006)

"For academic staff to support the brand of their institution, they should clearly understand what the organisation wants to be. They should communicate a positive image of the institution to others in many ways. For example, physically, as visual identity may be called, like wearing the university uniform or university colour and symbols, as well as using the university template for their PowerPoint slides. In addition, their work activities should be related to the process directed by the institution. Moreover, they should be able to talk about this process to people outside the institution, as this is a way to promote the university." (Interview 12)

Constructs (Tree node)	Items(Free node)	Sample quotes from the interviews
Employees brand support Staff's understanding and incorporating of brand values into work activities Aurand et al. (2005) and Joudson et al. (2006)	• I am confident in my ability to clearly explain the brand values • I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to better organise my time • The brand values influence my decisions on customer (student) requests • I know what skills are necessary to deliver on the brand value • I include information on brand values in my day-to-day operation **Items generated from the interviews:** • I consider the performance reviews of the school when making decisions on my work	*"Brand values in the messages, such as institutional mission and vision, which are posted around my institution, remind me what I should do to support the brand" (Interview 18).* *"The business school communicates the message that the university is for local students and the local community. This means that my teaching and research focuses on the university and local community. It is important because it is about how the university positions itself and also guides me to do what I need to do to move in this direction." (Interview 7)* *"For academic staff to support the brand of their institution, they should clearly understand what the organisation wants to be. They should communicate a positive image of the institution to others in many ways…" (Interview 12)* *"My institution encourages academic staff to conduct research. There are research training modules. I attended them. I have started conducting in-class research. The institution also encourages academics who have only a master's degree to get a PhD degree abroad by providing us with courses in English and scholarships for a PhD course in the USA and UK ... Apart from teaching and doing research, I try to organise my time by preparing myself to apply for a PhD course in USA. Actually, these kinds of support activities help me to know specifically what they want me to do. It is a work directive." (Interview 17)* *"After I had an IT Training course, I knew how to develop web sites. I then created a web site that benefits my students. Basically, the university policy is to lean more towards technology ..." (Interview 5)* *"For me, it [my employee brand support] would be about performing my best at work by following the process and rules given by the institution such as KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)* *"I think what the institution wants us to do is designed and comes out in the form of the KPI [Key performance indicators] which are related to the mission and vision of the intuition. I usually follow the institution's KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)*

	activities • I obey the institutional rules • I follow brand values of my institution	*"Actually, some of the things that I have already been doing were on the right track, but I did not realise it. For example, in my course activities, I sometimes, tried to relate the activities to local culture and local situations. Recently, since I know that supporting the local community and local culture is one of my performance indicators, I designed activities in my course that were related to the local culture and to benefit the local community, more or less. The key indicators will encourage us [academic staff] to continue doing what we have been doing, as it can officially be measured by the key performance indicators." (Interview 6)* *"For me, it [employee brand support] would be about performing my best at work by following the process and rules given by such institutions as KPI [Key Performance Indicators]." (Interview 11)*

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

Table C-3: Transformational leadership characteristics of academic staff's immediate leader (one construct)

Transformational leadership characteristics(domain)

Transformational leaders have qualities shown in their behaviour that "[influences] the value systems and aspirations of the individual members of the organisation and [induces] them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the brand". (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.293)*.

"The leaders of employees are very important in changing employees' behaviour. Employees may read the brand messages from the institution on billboards but this may not be able to change their behaviour. It is very important for the leaders of academic staff to be active. They should have a sense of institutional mission and vision and act accordingly. In addition, they should always be close and friendly towards their team. They should be involved in all the meetings and also other school activities." (Interview 18)

"My leader is an intelligent person. It is good for academic staff like me because I want to develop myself and my leader is able to help me. I am quite proud to work with him. He kind of gives me confidence. Also, he is a very open minded person, always listens to my opinions. Although my opinions are different from his, he does not reject them. He kind of advised me how to make them better. He tends to give a good suggestion for the academic staff who want to be successful like him. Based on the ways my leader works with me, I feel lucky working here because my leader is an intelligent person and he is also a person of good morality." (Interview 12).

"The motto, mission, and vision published on the University web pages were remembered by employees, thus guiding employee behaviour. Also, the behaviour of the leader (i.e., coming to work early and working hard) can be imitated by employees. Partly, I know the right behaviour for developing an organisation by observing my boss's behaviour." (Interview 18)

*A construct of transformational leadership is investigated by measuring four types of transformational leadership characteristics.

Construct(Tree node)		Items(Free node)	Sample quotes from the interviews
Transformational leadership characteristics *(Construct)	<u>*Idealisation influence or charisma*</u> Leaders who act as strong role models for their followers and provide followers with a clear vision and a sense of mission. The followers then identify with these leaders and want to imitate them	• He/she makes me feel good to be around him/her. • I have complete faith in him/her. • I am proud to be associated with him/her. **<u>Items generated from the interviews:</u>** • He/she is a role model for me	*"The leader's behaviour affects me. It is the role model for me. If the leader follows what the university wants, I will definitely do it too…" (Interview 10)* *"My leader is an intelligent person. This is good for academic staff like me because I want to develop myself and my leader is able to help me. I am quite proud to work with him…Based on the ways my leader works with me, I feel lucky working here because he is intelligent and also someone of good character". (Interview 12)* *"…They should have a sense of institutional mission and vision and act accordingly..." (Interview 18)*
	<u>*Inspiration motivation*</u> Leaders who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision within the organisation	• He/she expresses with a few simple words what I could and should do. • He/she provides appealing images about what I can do. • He/she helps me find meaning in my work. **<u>Items generated from the</u>**	*"… The leader may not needs to clearly see through each of their subordinates' abilities and know what each of the subordinates should do to achieve the university's goals. Their support and encouragement is very important to us." (Interview 10)* *"The things that the leader emphasised in the meeting showed that those things were important. On the one hand, I imitated his behaviours. On the other hand, it reminded me what I need to do as an organisation member." (Interview 12)*

		<u>interviews:</u> • He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to achieve the university's goals	*"… He tends to give a good suggestion for the academic staff who want to be successful like him.…" (Interview 12)*
	<u>Intellectual stimulation</u> Leaders who stimulate followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leaders and the organisation.	• He/she enables me to think about old problems in new ways. • He/she provides me with new ways of looking at puzzling things. • He/she gets me to rethink ideas that I had never questioned before. **<u>Items generated from the interviews:</u>** • He/she lets me think by myself and then he/she judges the appropriateness; IS5. • He/she will not reject my project if the project is not appropriate, but he/she will suggest improvements	*"My boss's behaviour encourages me to support the institution brand. To me, she is a great supporter when I tell her what I want to do. But this is not an indulgence. She lets me think by myself and then she will judge the appropriateness. If it is not appropriate, she will not reject the project, but she will suggest ways of improvement. This really motivates me to work for the university because she allows me to think independently."(Interview 5)* *"… Also, He is a very open minded person, always listens to my opinions. Although my opinions are different from his, he does not reject them. He kind of advises me how I can make it better…" (Interview 12)*
	<u>Individual consideration</u> Leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers and act as advisers trying to assist specific ways of working	• He/she helps me to develop myself. • He/she lets me know how he/she thinks I am doing. • He/she gives personal attention to others who seem rejected. **<u>Items generated from the interviews:</u>** • He/she gives constructive feedback on how he/she thinks I am doing; • He/she is friendly with me).	*"I think that my boss's positive feedback made me enthusiastic to continue working and made me feel worthy to work for the organisation. Sometimes when my boss comes to talk to me in my office, I feel great" (Interview 18)* *"He is not very friendly with us. Actually, if he were friendlier to us, this would create greater unity in the organisation… I think there is a gap between my boss and the lecturers. My boss doesn't recognise me, as there are a lot of people in the school. I am not an important person, I am just a lecturer, I do not have a high academic position like some others. Therefore, I don't really participate in the organisation activities."(Interview 6)* *"…In addition, they should always be close and friendly towards their team. They should be involved in all the meetings and also other school activities…" (Interview 18)*

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

Appendix D: Pilot Study Questionnaire

The effects of internal branding on employee brand support in Thai universities: a study from the academic staff's perspective

Brunel University, UK, funded by Mahasarakham University (MSU), Thailand.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

This research aims to explore the effects of internal branding on brand support behaviour of academic staff (employee brand support) in Thai universities and the impact of the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff member's immediate leader on the relationship between internal branding and employee brand support.

This questionnaire aims to collect data on the level of internal branding aspects (internal brand communications; brand-centred training and development activities), employee brand support and perceived transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader of business management schools located in Thailand.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information you provide will be kept strictly confidential:

- ❑ It will not be possible to identify the respondents and universities involved in this study.
- ❑ The data will be used for statistical purposes only and released in aggregated form. No single name will be disclosed.

YOUR SUPPORT IS VERY IMPORTANT

The success of this investigation depends entirely on the data contributed by the academic staff (lecturers) of Thai universities, such as yourself.

ADVANTAGE FOR YOU AS AN EMPLOYEE

The data collected from you and others can be used to make suggestions to the top management of Thai universities about possible areas of internal brand communications and training improvement. These will enhance your satisfaction in working with the institution and develop your willingness to support the institution brand.

Thank you for your co-operation,

Narissara Kaewsurin
Brunel Business School, Brunel University and Mahasarakham University

If you require more information about the questionnaire, please contact: Narissara Kaewsurin, Faculty of Accountancy and Bussiness Management, Mahasarakham University, Khamriang Sub-district, Kantarawichai District, Maha Sarakham 44150 THAILAND Tel: 081-8764988 Email: Narissara.Kaewsurin@brunel.ac.uk

The effects of internal branding on employee brand support in Thai universities: a study from the academic staff's perspective

HOW TO FILL IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please tick ☑ the option which best represents your opinion. If some questions are not applicable to you, simply tick ☑ the "Not Applicable" option. However, <u>there is no right or wrong answer in this questionnaire</u>. Its importance lies in obtaining your opinion on specific aspects of internal branding in your schools.

2. This questionnaire (5 pages) is structured so that its completion will be easy and quick. It should take <u>approximately 8-10 minutes</u> to complete.

Appendix D

- Below are statements about the institution you are currently working at.
- **<u>Brand values include brand messages, institutional policies, institutional missions and institutional vision (Urde, 2003; Judson et al., 2006).</u>**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements, as indicated by a score from '1' to '7'? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree)

SECTION A – OPINION ABOUT INTERNAL BRAND COMMUNICATIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**'Not Applicable'**
1. The school communicates brand values to me individually (one-to-one).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The school communicates brand values specifically to each group of employees, for example, departments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal forms of mass communication, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications (e.g., school meetings).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The school communicates brand values to me via one-way communication.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1

SECTION B –OPINION OF BRAND CENTRED-TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'Not Applicable'**
1. The school reinforces/delivers brand values through training activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The school provides me with training to help me use brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver these values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. There are dimensions of delivering brand values in annual performance reviews.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The school pays attention to my roles in order to support the brand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. The school provides training activities which are related to brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. The school supports me in attending training activities which are related to brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2

SECTION C –EMPLOYEE BRAND SUPPORT

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	'Not Applicable'
1. I am confident in my ability to clearly explain brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to better organise my time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The brand values influence my decisions on customer (student) requests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I know what skills are necessary to deliver brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I include information on brand values in my day-to-day operation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I consider the performance reviews of the school when making decisions on my work activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I obey the institutional rules.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I follow the brand values of my institution.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix D

SECTION D – OPINION OF THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IMMEDIATE LEADER

These are the characteristics of my immediate leader	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'Not Applicable'**
1. He/she makes me feel good to be around him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I have complete faith in him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am proud to be associated with him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. He/she is a role model for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. He/she expresses with a few simple words what I could and should do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. He/she provides appealing images about what I can do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. He/she helps me find meaning in my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to attain the university's goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. He/she enables me to think about old problems in new ways.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. He/she provides me with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. He/she gets me to rethink ideas that I have never questioned before.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. He/she lets me think by myself and then he/she judges the appropriateness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. He/she will not reject my project if the project is not appropriate, but will suggest improvements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. He/she helps me to develop myself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. He/she lets me know how he/she thinks I am doing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. He/she gives personal attention to others who seem rejected.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. He/she gives constructive feedback how he/she thinks I am doing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. He/she is friendly with me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix E

SECTION E –PROFILE

In order to encourage insight into your opinion of the effects of internal branding on employee brand support in Thai universities, please answer the following questions. The questions concern your position and other information about your profile. Confidentiality is assured. No individual data will be reported.

1. Your Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age ……………………….……

3. What is your job title? ....

4. How long have you worked for this university? …....Years....….Months

5. How long have you worked with your immediate supervisor? ....Years ....Months

6. Do you have subordinates? ☐ Yes ☐ No

7. Which of the following best represents your current average income (including overtime, bonuses and other extras) received from the institution per month?

☐ Below 10,000 baht	☐ 10,001-20,000 baht	☐ 20,001-30,000 baht
☐ 30,001-40,000 baht	☐ 40,001-50,000 baht	☐ 50,001-60,000 baht
☐ 60,001-70,000 baht	☐ 70,001-80,000 baht	☐ 80,001-90,000 baht
☐ 90,001-100,000 baht	☐ Above 100,000 baht	

8. Level of your education ☐ Below Master's level ☐ Master's degree ☐ PhD

9. Please use the space below to make any observations about the institution or the questionnaire itself:

____

____

____

Thank you very much for your co-operation

Appendix E: Descriptive Statistics of Pilot Data

Table E: Pilot data's descriptive statistics

	N[59]	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SMEAN(IBC1)	95	1.0	7.0	4.438	1.7379
SMEAN(IBC2)	95	1.0	7.0	3.728	1.7510
SMEAN(IBC3)	95	1.0	7.0	5.505	1.7374
SMEAN(IBC4)	95	1.0	7.0	4.453	1.8667
SMEAN(IBC5)	95	1.0	7.0	4.085	1.8431
SMEAN(BCT1)	95	1.0	7.0	4.645	1.7051
SMEAN(BCT2)	95	1.0	7.0	4.484	1.6168
SMEAN(BCT3)	95	1.0	7.0	4.591	1.5315
SMEAN(BCT4)	95	1.0	7.0	4.527	1.5750
SMEAN(BCT5)	95	1.0	7.0	5.602	1.4153
SMEAN(BCT6)	95	1.0	7.0	4.862	1.6019
SMEAN(BCT7)	95	1.0	7.0	4.853	1.6757
SMEAN(EBS1)	95	2.0	7.0	4.915	1.1998
SMEAN(EBS2)	95	1.0	7.0	4.736	1.3356
SMEAN(EBS3)	95	1.0	7.0	4.935	1.4718
SMEAN(EBS4)	95	1.0	7.0	4.914	1.3734
SMEAN(EBS5)	95	1.0	7.0	4.266	1.4672
SMEAN(EBS6)	95	1.0	7.0	4.629	1.4320
SMEAN(EBS7)	95	2.0	7.0	5.979	1.1390
SMEAN(EBS8)	95	1.0	7.0	5.284	1.4117
SMEAN(ii1)	95	1.0	7.0	5.054	1.4540
SMEAN(ii2)	95	1.0	7.0	5.215	1.4355
SMEAN(ii3)	95	1.0	7.0	4.936	1.5004
SMEAN(ii4)	95	1.0	7.0	4.691	1.5370
SMEAN(im1)	95	1.0	7.0	4.947	1.3943
SMEAN(im2)	95	1.0	7.0	4.936	1.5832
SMEAN(im3)	95	1.0	7.0	4.742	1.5704
SMEAN(im4)	95	1.0	7.0	5.116	1.5768
SMEAN(is1)	95	1.0	7.0	4.436	1.6148
SMEAN(is2)	95	1.0	7.0	4.348	1.6531
SMEAN(is3)	95	1.0	7.0	4.710	1.6281
SMEAN(is4)	95	1.0	7.0	4.063	2.2399
SMEAN(is5)	95	1.0	7.0	4.073	2.0220
SMEAN(ic1)	95	1.0	7.0	5.053	1.6136
SMEAN(ic2)	95	1.0	7.0	4.747	1.5409
SMEAN(ic3)	95	1.0	7.0	4.772	1.5025
SMEAN(ic4)	95	1.0	7.0	4.677	1.5585
SMEAN(ic5)	95	1.0	7.0	5.568	1.3500
Valid N (listwise)	95				

[59] After missing data imputation-The data was checked for missing value patterns, none of the cases had more than 5% missing values59. The missing values were then replaced with estimated mean (EM) values.

Appendix F: Main Survey Questionnaire

The determinants of employee brand support in Thai universities: An employee-level model incorporating internal branding elements and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader

Brunel University, UK and funded by Mahasarakham University (MSU), Thailand.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

This research aims to explore the determinants of the academic staff's brand support behavior (employee brand support) in Thai universities, by examining the relationship between employee brand support, internal branding elements and the transformational leadership characteristics of the staff member's immediate leader.

This questionnaire is looking to collect data on the aspects of: 1. internal branding (internal brand communications and brand-centred training and development); 2. the perceived transformational leadership characteristics of immediate leader; and 3. employee brand support. These data are being collected from academic staff at business management schools located in Thailand.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information you provide will be kept strictly confidential:

- It will not be possible to identify the respondents and universities involved in this study.
- The data will be used for statistical purposes only and released in aggregated form. No individual's name will be disclosed.

YOUR SUPPORT IS VERY IMPORTANT

The success of this investigation depends entirely on the data contributed by the academic staff (lecturers) of Thai universities, such as yourself.

ADVANTAGE FOR YOU AS AN EMPLOYEE

The data collected from you and others can be used to make recommendations to the top management of Thai universities about the possible development of internal brand communications and training. These will enhance your work satisfaction in working with the institution, and inform you more deeply of the institution's brand.

Thank you for your co-operation,

Narissara Kaewsurin
Brunel Business School, Brunel University and Mahasarakham University

If you require more information about the questionnaire, please contact: Narissara Kaewsurin, Faculty of Accountancy and Business Management, Mahasarakham University, Khamriang Sub-district, Kantarawichai District, Maha Sarakham 44150 THAILAND Tel: 081-8764988 Email: Narissara.Kaewsurin@brunel.ac.uk

The determinants of employee brand support in Thai universities: An employee-level model incorporating internal branding elements and the transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader

HOW TO FILL IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

3. Please tick ☑ the option which best represents your opinion. If some questions are not applicable to you, simply tick ☑ the "Not Applicable" option. However, <u>there is no right or wrong answer in this questionnaire</u>. The intention is to obtain your opinion on the specific aspects of 1) internal branding; 2) the perceived transformational leadership characteristics of immediate leader; and 3) employee brand support in your school.

4. This questionnaire (5 pages) is structured so that its completion will be easy and quick. It should take <u>approximately 8-10 minutes</u> to complete.

Appendix F

SECTION A – OPINION OF BRAND-CENTRED TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

- Below are statements about the institution you are currently working at.
- **<u>Brand values include brand messages, institutional policies, institutional missions and institutional vision.</u>**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements as indicated by scores from '1' to '7'? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree). If some questions are not applicable to you, simply tick ☑ the "Not Applicable" option.

	1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree							
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'Not Applicable'**
1. The school delivers brand values through training activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The school provides me with training to help me use brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I am aware that delivering brand values is part of the annual performance reviews.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The school considers my role in supporting the brand.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. The school provides training activities which are related to brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. The school supports me in attending training activities which are related to brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1

Appendix F

SECTION B – OPINION OF INTERNAL BRAND COMMUNICATIONS

- Below are statements about the institution you are currently working at.
- <u>**Brand values include brand messages, institutional policies, institutional missions and institutional vision.**</u>

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements based on the scores from '1' to '7'? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree). If some questions are not applicable to you, simply tick ☑ the "Not Applicable" option.

	1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree							
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'Not Applicable'**
1. The school communicates brand values to me personally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The school communicates brand values specifically to each group of employees, for example, departments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications (e.g., school meetings).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2

SECTION C – OPINION OF EMPLOYEE BRAND SUPPORT

- Below are statements about the institution you are currently working at.
- **Brand values include brand messages, institutional policies, institutional missions and institutional vision.**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements based on the scores from '1' to '7'? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree). If some questions are not applicable to you, simply tick ☑ the "Not Applicable" option.

	1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree							
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'Not Applicable'**
1. I am confident in my ability to clearly explain the institution's brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to prioritise my tasks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The brand values influence my decisions on student requests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I know what skills are necessary to deliver brand values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I consider that the institutional brand values influence my day-to-day operations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I consider reviews of my work performance when making decisions on my work activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I obey the institutional rules.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I follow the brand values of my institution.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix F

SECTION D – OPINION OF THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS OF THE IMMEDIATE LEADER

- Below are statements about the institution you are currently working at.
- **Brand values include brand messages, institutional policies, institutional missions and institutional visions.**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements based on the scores from '1' to '7'? (1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree). If some questions are not applicable to you, simply tick ☑ the "Not Applicable" option.

	1 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 7 = Strongly Agree							
These are the characteristics of my immediate leader	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'Not Applicable'**
1. He/she makes me feel comfortable to be around him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I have complete faith in him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am proud to be associated with him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. He/she is a role model for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. He/she expresses with a few simple words what I could and should do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. He/she provides appealing visions of what I can do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. He/she helps me find meaning in my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to achieve the university's goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. He/she enables me to think about old problems in new ways.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. He/she provides me with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. He/she gets me to rethink ideas that I have never questioned before.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. He/she helps me in my personal development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. He/she gives regular feedback on my performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. He/she gives personal attention to others (my colleagues and me) who seem to be rejected from the group.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. He/she gives constructive feedback on how he/she thinks I am doing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. He/she is friendly with me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix F

SECTION E –PROFILE

In order to encourage insight into your opinion about the effects of internal branding on employee brand support in Thai universities, please answer the following questions. The questions concern your position and other information about your profile. Confidentiality is assured. No individual data will be reported.

1. Your Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age ……………………….……

3. What is your job title? ....

4. How long have you worked for this university? …....Years....….Months

5. How long have you worked with your immediate supervisor? ....Years ....Months

6. Do you have subordinates? ☐ Yes ☐ No

7. Which of the following best represents your current average income (including overtime, bonuses and other extras) received from the institution per month?

☐ Below 10,000 baht ☐ 10,001-20,000 baht ☐ 20,001-30,000 baht
☐ 30,001-40,000 baht ☐ 40,001-50,000 baht ☐ 50,001-60,000 baht
☐ 60,001-70,000 baht ☐ 70,001-80,000 baht ☐ 80,001-90,000 baht
☐ 90,001 - 100,000 baht ☐ Above 100,000 baht

8. Level of your education ☐ Below Master's level ☐ Master's degree ☐ PhD

9. Please use the space below to make any observations about the institution or the questionnaire itself:

Thank you very much for your co-operation

5

Appendix G: Descriptive Statistics of Main Survey Data

Table G: Main survey data' descriptive Statistics

	N[60]	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SMEAN(BCT1)	347	1.0	7.0	4.939	1.5012	-.622	.131	-.053	.261
SMEAN(BCT2)	347	1.0	7.0	4.718	1.5578	-.478	.131	-.286	.261
SMEAN(BCT3)	347	1.0	7.0	4.797	1.5203	-.545	.131	-.090	.261
SMEAN(BCT4)	347	1.0	7.0	4.658	1.4739	-.380	.131	-.358	.261
SMEAN(BCT5)	347	1.0	7.0	5.490	1.4006	-.824	.131	.096	.261
SMEAN(BCT6)	347	1.0	7.0	4.965	1.5297	-.619	.131	-.144	.261
SMEAN(BCT7)	347	1.0	7.0	4.830	1.6011	-.574	.131	-.229	.261
SMEAN(IBC1)	347	1.0	7.0	4.150	1.7439	-.156	.131	-.807	.261
SMEAN(IBC2)	347	1.0	7.0	3.884	1.6634	-.092	.131	-.707	.261
SMEAN(IBC3)	347	1.0	7.0	5.190	1.5979	-.694	.131	-.215	.261
SMEAN(IBC4)	347	1.0	7.0	4.506	1.7258	-.302	.131	-.753	.261
SMEAN(EBS1)	347	1.0	7.0	4.888	1.3984	-.545	.131	.298	.261
SMEAN(EBS2)	347	1.0	7.0	4.795	1.4570	-.368	.131	-.103	.261
SMEAN(EBS3)	347	1.0	7.0	5.046	1.4676	-.731	.131	.378	.261
SMEAN(EBS4)	347	1.0	7.0	5.023	1.4283	-.556	.131	.153	.261
SMEAN(EBS5)	347	1.0	7.0	4.602	1.4967	-.433	.131	-.010	.261
SMEAN(EBS6)	347	1.0	7.0	4.801	1.5350	-.452	.131	-.182	.261
SMEAN(EBS7)	347	2.0	7.0	5.899	1.1063	-.946	.131	.499	.261
SMEAN(EBS8)	347	1.0	7.0	5.331	1.3546	-.787	.131	.487	.261
SMEAN(ii1)	347	1.0	7.0	5.228	1.3311	-.535	.131	-.052	.261
SMEAN(ii2)	347	1.0	7.0	5.242	1.3554	-.559	.131	-.197	.261
SMEAN(ii3)	347	1.0	7.0	5.161	1.3884	-.526	.131	-.294	.261
SMEAN(ii4)	347	1.0	7.0	4.850	1.4784	-.415	.131	-.476	.261
SMEAN(im1)	347	1.0	7.0	5.161	1.3201	-.444	.131	-.086	.261
SMEAN(im2)	347	1.0	7.0	5.133	1.4263	-.686	.131	.113	.261
SMEAN(im3)	347	1.0	7.0	4.916	1.4650	-.592	.131	-.003	.261
SMEAN(im4)	347	1.0	7.0	5.245	1.4021	-.582	.131	-.241	.261
SMEAN(is1)	347	1.0	7.0	4.625	1.5612	-.526	.131	-.206	.261
SMEAN(is2)	347	1.0	7.0	4.524	1.5642	-.406	.131	-.431	.261
SMEAN(is3)	347	1.0	7.0	4.790	1.5817	-.606	.131	-.245	.261
SMEAN(ic1)	347	1.0	7.0	5.081	1.5279	-.876	.131	.502	.261
SMEAN(ic2)	347	1.0	7.0	4.757	1.5962	-.490	.131	-.386	.261
SMEAN(ic3)	347	1.0	7.0	4.882	1.4744	-.295	.131	-.525	.261
SMEAN(ic4)	347	1.0	7.0	4.769	1.5049	-.457	.131	-.289	.261
SMEAN(ic5)	347	1.0	7.0	5.545	1.3322	-.679	.131	-.052	.261

[60] After missing data imputation-The data was checked for missing value patterns, none of the cases had more than 5% missing values60. The missing values were then replaced with estimated mean (EM) values.

Appendix H: Univariate Statistics

Table H: Univariate Statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing		No. of Extremes[a]	
				Count	Percent	Low	High
BCT1	344	4.94	1.508	3	.9	11	0
BCT2	344	4.72	1.565	3	.9	14	0
BCT3	344	4.80	1.527	3	.9	14	0
BCT4	345	4.66	1.478	2	.6	10	0
BCT5	347	5.49	1.401	0	.0	13	0
BCT6	346	4.97	1.532	1	.3	10	0
BCT7	347	4.83	1.601	0	.0	15	0
IBC1	347	4.15	1.744	0	.0	0	0
IBC2	346	3.88	1.666	1	.3	0	0
IBC3	347	5.19	1.598	0	.0	0	0
IBC4	346	4.51	1.728	1	.3	0	0
EBS1	347	4.89	1.398	0	.0	9	0
EBS2	347	4.80	1.457	0	.0	10	0
EBS3	347	5.05	1.468	0	.0	12	0
EBS4	347	5.02	1.428	0	.0	8	0
EBS5	347	4.60	1.497	0	.0	15	0
EBS6	346	4.80	1.537	1	.3	12	0
EBS7	347	5.90	1.106	0	.0	3	0
EBS8	347	5.33	1.355	0	.0	30	0
ii1	347	5.23	1.331	0	.0	3	0
ii2	347	5.24	1.355	0	.0	3	0
ii3	347	5.16	1.388	0	.0	3	0
ii4	347	4.85	1.478	0	.0	6	0
im1	347	5.16	1.320	0	.0	4	0
im2	347	5.13	1.426	0	.0	8	0
im3	347	4.92	1.465	0	.0	11	0
im4	347	5.24	1.402	0	.0	3	0
is1	347	4.63	1.561	0	.0	19	0
is2	347	4.52	1.564	0	.0	15	0
is3	347	4.79	1.582	0	.0	15	0
ic1	346	5.08	1.530	1	.3	16	0
ic2	346	4.76	1.599	1	.3	14	0
ic3	347	4.88	1.474	0	.0	5	0
ic4	347	4.77	1.505	0	.0	10	0
ic5	347	5.54	1.332	0	.0	9	0

a. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5*IQR, Q3 + 1.5*IQR).

Appendix I: Test of Univariate Normality and Multivariate

Table I: Test of Univariate Normality and multivariate (Continuous Variables)

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis		Skewness and Kurtosis	
	Z-Score	P-Value	Z-Score	P-Value	Chi-Square	P-Value
IBC1_1	-1.197	0.231	-5.240	0.000	28.886	0.000
IBC2_1	-0.708	0.479	-4.171	0.000	17.896	0.000
IBC3_1	-4.895	0.000	-0.815	0.415	24.630	0.000
IBC4_1	-2.284	0.022	-4.635	0.000	26.697	0.000
BCT1_1	-4.456	0.000	-0.092	0.927	19.862	0.000
BCT2_1	-3.518	0.000	-1.176	0.240	13.760	0.001
BCT3_1	-3.965	0.000	-0.248	0.804	15.779	0.000
BCT4_1	-2.848	0.004	-1.571	0.116	10.581	0.005
BCT5_1	-5.639	0.000	0.481	0.630	32.031	0.000
BCT6_1	-4.434	0.000	-0.483	0.629	19.891	0.000
BCT7_1	-4.153	0.000	-0.885	0.376	18.032	0.000
EBS1_1	-3.962	0.000	1.148	0.251	17.015	0.000
EBS2_1	-2.759	0.006	-0.302	0.762	7.702	0.021
EBS3_1	-5.113	0.000	1.383	0.167	28.060	0.000
EBS4_1	-4.033	0.000	0.680	0.496	16.726	0.000
EBS5_1	-3.215	0.001	0.080	0.936	10.341	0.006
EBS6_1	-3.346	0.001	-0.660	0.509	11.632	0.003
EBS7_1	-6.292	0.000	1.713	0.087	42.523	0.000
EBS8_1	-5.434	0.000	1.682	0.093	32.359	0.000
ii1_1	-3.897	0.000	-0.090	0.929	15.197	0.001
ii2_1	-4.053	0.000	-0.733	0.464	16.962	0.000
ii3_1	-3.841	0.000	-1.220	0.223	16.241	0.000
ii4_1	-3.088	0.002	-2.309	0.021	14.870	0.001
im1_1	-3.291	0.001	-0.231	0.818	10.881	0.004
im2_1	-4.846	0.000	0.542	0.588	23.773	0.000
im3_1	-4.268	0.000	0.109	0.913	18.226	0.000
im4_1	-4.203	0.000	-0.947	0.343	18.564	0.000
is1_1	-3.838	0.000	-0.776	0.438	15.328	0.000
is2_1	-3.026	0.002	-2.013	0.044	13.207	0.001
is3_1	-4.356	0.000	-0.965	0.334	19.911	0.000
ic1_1	-5.923	0.000	1.721	0.085	38.039	0.000
ic2_1	-3.599	0.000	-1.740	0.082	15.978	0.000
ic3_1	-2.240	0.025	-2.645	0.008	12.012	0.002
ic4_1	3.379	0.001	-1.194	0.232	12.847	0.002

Test of Multivariate Normality	Value	Z-Score	P-Value	Value	Z-Score	P-Value	Chi-Square	P-Value
Relative Multivariate Kurtosis = **1.294**	343.635	72.901	0.000	1583.776	24.950	0.000	5937.014	0.000

Appendix J: Test of Homogeneity of Variance (Levene's Test)

Table J: Test of Homogeneity of Variance (Levene's test)

	Ex *F*(1, 345)=1.921, *ns*.	**Levene Statistic**	**df1**	**df2**	**Sig.**
SMEAN (BCT1)	Based on Mean	1.921	1	345	.167
	Based on Median	1.158	1	345	.283
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.158	1	344.998	.283
	Based on trimmed mean	1.299	1	345	.255
SMEAN (BCT2)	Based on Mean	2.420	1	345	.121
	Based on Median	2.404	1	345	.122
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.404	1	341.519	.122
	Based on trimmed mean	2.843	1	345	.093
SMEAN (BCT3)	Based on Mean	3.123	1	345	.078
	Based on Median	2.536	1	345	.112
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.536	1	335.328	.112
	Based on trimmed mean	3.126	1	345	.078
SMEAN (BCT4)	Based on Mean	1.061	1	345	.304
	Based on Median	.773	1	345	.380
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.773	1	338.817	.380
	Based on trimmed mean	1.259	1	345	.263
SMEAN (BCT5)	Based on Mean	.746	1	345	.388
	Based on Median	1.324	1	345	.251
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.324	1	338.003	.251
	Based on trimmed mean	.978	1	345	.323
SMEAN (BCT6)	Based on Mean	1.891	1	345	.170
	Based on Median	1.652	1	345	.199
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.652	1	334.915	.200
	Based on trimmed mean	1.735	1	345	.189
SMEAN (BCT7)	Based on Mean	.079	1	345	.779
	Based on Median	.083	1	345	.774
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.083	1	344.889	.774
	Based on trimmed mean	.024	1	345	.877
SMEAN (IBC1)	Based on Mean	5.833	1	345	.016[61]
	Based on Median	5.057	1	345	.025
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	5.057	1	342.394	.025
	Based on trimmed mean	5.905	1	345	.016
SMEAN (IBC2)	Based on Mean	.254	1	345	.615
	Based on Median	.543	1	345	.462
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.543	1	342.599	.462
	Based on trimmed mean	.243	1	345	.622

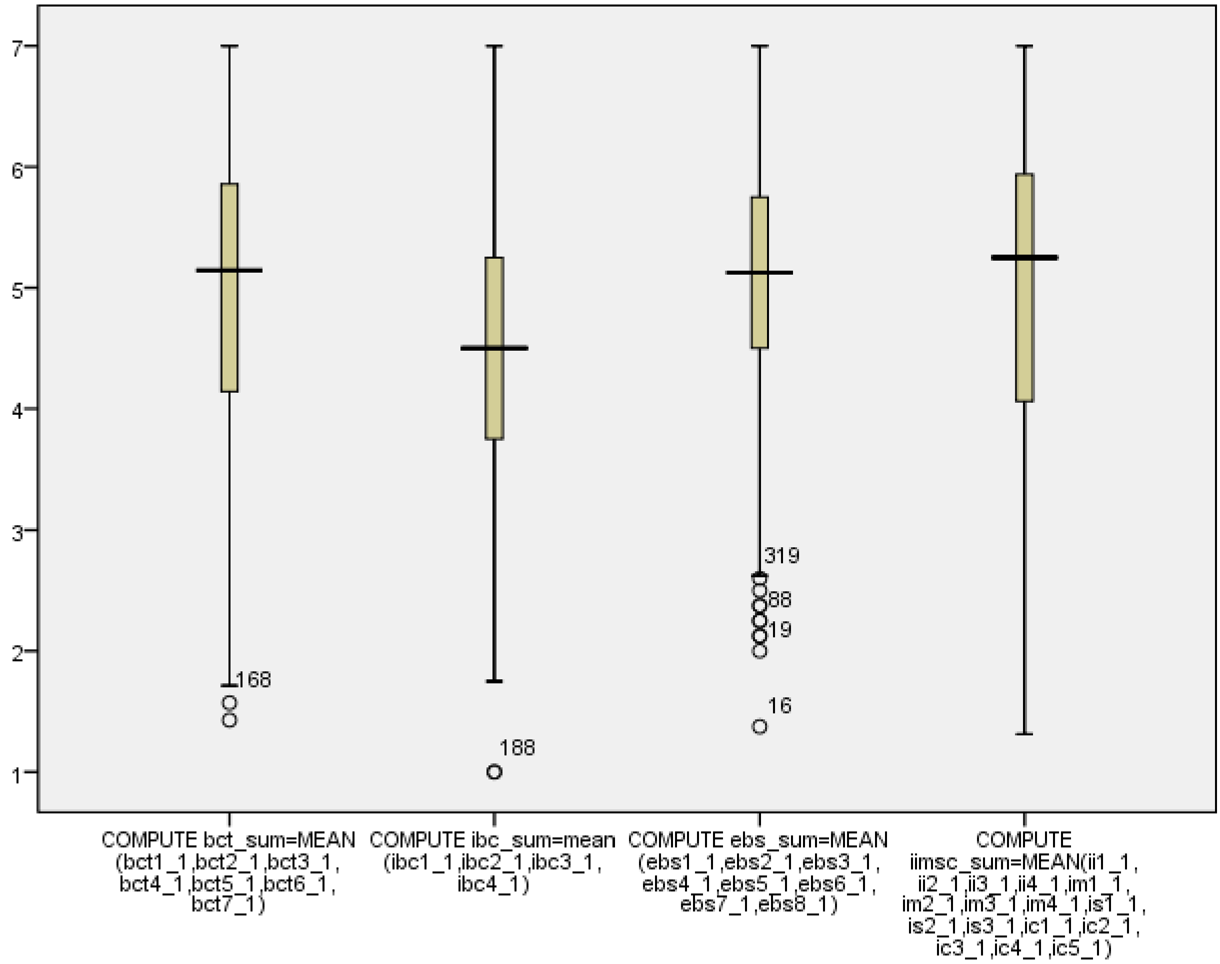
[61] The researcher obtained the variances by running the analysis for different groups of data in SPSS. Only the Levene's test for IBC1 was found to be significant ($p < 0.05$). However, the variance ratio of IBC1 was (3.694/2.753) 1.341, which smaller than 1.67 (the critical value for comparing to 2 variances). Therefore, the variances were not significantly different for IBC1.

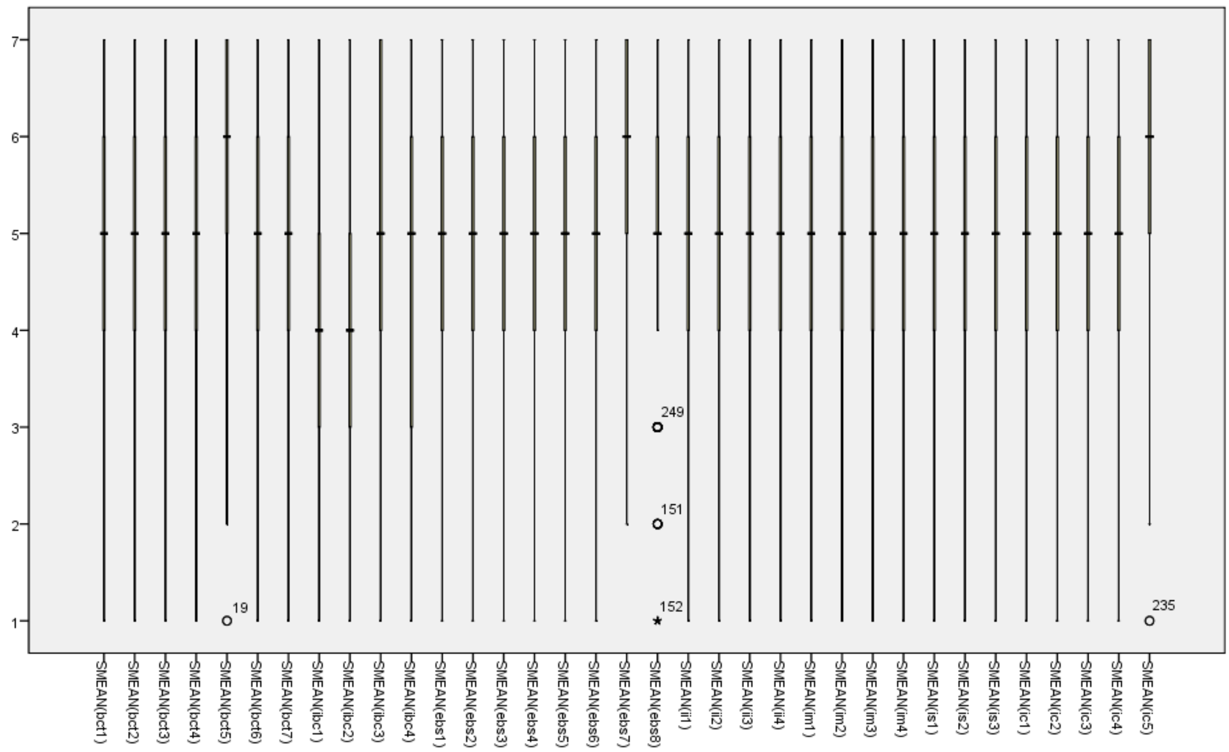
SMEAN (IBC3)	Based on Mean	.011	1	345	.917
	Based on Median	.012	1	345	.914
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.012	1	338.836	.914
	Based on trimmed mean	.001	1	345	.972
SMEAN (IBC4)	Based on Mean	.044	1	345	.834
	Based on Median	.005	1	345	.944
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.005	1	344.182	.944
	Based on trimmed mean	.043	1	345	.836
SMEAN (EBS1)	Based on Mean	1.196	1	345	.275
	Based on Median	.055	1	345	.815
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.055	1	322.310	.815
	Based on trimmed mean	.627	1	345	.429
SMEAN (EBS2)	Based on Mean	2.020	1	345	.156
	Based on Median	1.964	1	345	.162
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.964	1	336.194	.162
	Based on trimmed mean	2.241	1	345	.135
SMEAN (EBS3)	Based on Mean	.812	1	345	.368
	Based on Median	.605	1	345	.437
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.605	1	337.186	.437
	Based on trimmed mean	.303	1	345	.582
SMEAN (EBS4)	Based on Mean	.956	1	345	.329
	Based on Median	.659	1	345	.418
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.659	1	338.084	.418
	Based on trimmed mean	.545	1	345	.461
SMEAN (EBS5)	Based on Mean	.871	1	345	.351
	Based on Median	1.312	1	345	.253
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.312	1	341.993	.253
	Based on trimmed mean	.984	1	345	.322
SMEAN (EBS6)	Based on Mean	2.596	1	345	.108
	Based on Median	1.697	1	345	.194
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.697	1	336.079	.194
	Based on trimmed mean	2.348	1	345	.126
SMEAN (EBS7)	Based on Mean	2.258	1	345	.134
	Based on Median	.907	1	345	.342
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.907	1	340.416	.342
	Based on trimmed mean	1.776	1	345	.184
SMEAN (EBS8)	Based on Mean	3.083	1	345	.080
	Based on Median	1.525	1	345	.218
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.525	1	303.677	.218
	Based on trimmed mean	2.764	1	345	.097
SMEAN(ii1)	Based on Mean	.212	1	345	.645
	Based on Median	.114	1	345	.736

	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.114	1	329.867	.736
	Based on trimmed mean	.101	1	345	.751
SMEAN(ii2)	Based on Mean	.038	1	345	.845
	Based on Median	.001	1	345	.970
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.001	1	331.144	.970
	Based on trimmed mean	.066	1	345	.797
SMEAN(ii3)	Based on Mean	1.930	1	345	.166
	Based on Median	2.061	1	345	.152
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.061	1	339.663	.152
	Based on trimmed mean	1.782	1	345	.183
SMEAN(ii4)	Based on Mean	1.170	1	345	.280
	Based on Median	1.026	1	345	.312
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.026	1	342.866	.312
	Based on trimmed mean	.973	1	345	.325
SMEAN(im1)	Based on Mean	.715	1	345	.398
	Based on Median	.148	1	345	.701
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.148	1	303.830	.701
	Based on trimmed mean	.434	1	345	.511
SMEAN(im2)	Based on Mean	.029	1	345	.866
	Based on Median	.009	1	345	.924
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.009	1	295.803	.924
	Based on trimmed mean	.002	1	345	.966
SMEAN(im3)	Based on Mean	.209	1	345	.648
	Based on Median	.186	1	345	.667
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.186	1	343.050	.667
	Based on trimmed mean	.176	1	345	.675
SMEAN(im4)	Based on Mean	1.284	1	345	.258
	Based on Median	.484	1	345	.487
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.484	1	323.823	.487
	Based on trimmed mean	1.015	1	345	.314
SMEAN(is1)	Based on Mean	.807	1	345	.370
	Based on Median	.207	1	345	.649
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.207	1	338.457	.649
	Based on trimmed mean	.615	1	345	.433
SMEAN(is2)	Based on Mean	.035	1	345	.852
	Based on Median	.043	1	345	.836
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.043	1	344.190	.836
	Based on trimmed mean	.037	1	345	.848
SMEAN(is3)	Based on Mean	2.026	1	345	.156
	Based on Median	1.145	1	345	.285
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.145	1	336.288	.285
	Based on trimmed mean	1.700	1	345	.193

SMEAN(ic1)	Based on Mean	.502	1	345	.479
	Based on Median	1.037	1	345	.309
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.037	1	341.423	.309
	Based on trimmed mean	.849	1	345	.358
SMEAN(ic2)	Based on Mean	.307	1	345	.580
	Based on Median	.095	1	345	.758
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.095	1	339.163	.758
	Based on trimmed mean	.304	1	345	.582
SMEAN(ic3)	Based on Mean	.000	1	345	.985
	Based on Median	.001	1	345	.978
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.001	1	344.997	.978
	Based on trimmed mean	.002	1	345	.960
SMEAN(ic4)	Based on Mean	.046	1	345	.830
	Based on Median	.020	1	345	.886
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.020	1	344.989	.886
	Based on trimmed mean	.021	1	345	.885
SMEAN(ic5)	Based on Mean	.764	1	345	.383
	Based on Median	.808	1	345	.369
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.808	1	344.383	.369
	Based on trimmed mean	.733	1	345	.393

Appendix K: Outliers (Box-Whisker Diagram)





Appendix L: Topic Guide (L-1), Pilot Questionnaire (L-2) and Main Survey Questionnaire (L-3), Thai Version

Appendix L
Appendix L-1: Topic guide (Thai version)

ผู้สัมภาษณ์เริ่มจากการอธิบายเกี่ยวกับวัตถุประสงค์ของการวิจัยให้กับผู้ถูกสัมภาษณ์ซึ่งเป็นพนักงานวิชาการของคณะบริหารธุรกิจในประเทศไทย โดยผู้ถูกสัมภาษณ์จะถูกถามเกี่ยวกับภาพรวมของการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรและพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงาน

วัตถุประสงค์การศึกษาในครั้งนี้คือเพื่อตรวจสอบความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรและพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานวิชาการจากมุมมองของพนักงานวิชาการ ตำราและงานวิจัยทางการตลาดได้กล่าวว่าในองค์กรที่คุณค่าขององค์กรมีความสอดคล้องเป็นหนึ่งเดียวและฝังลึกภายในองค์กร ผลการทำงานขององค์กรเหล่านี้มีแนวโน้มที่จะมีประสิทธิภาพสูงกว่าบรรดาองค์กรที่คุณค่าและวัฒนธรรมในองค์กรมีความชัดเจนน้อย (Collins and Porras, 1995; Mosley, 2007) การสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรช่วยให้องค์กรเห็นความสำคัญกับคุณค่าของแบรนด์ขององค์กร โดยการสื่อสารคุณค่าของแบรนด์ผ่านทางข้อความหรืออาจเรียกว่าผ่านทางข้อความของแบรนด์อย่างเป็นหนึ่งเดียวกัน (โดยปกติมักจะอยู่ในรูปแบบของพันธกิจ และวิสัยทัศน์ขององค์กร) (Urde, 2003; Mosley, 2007) เพื่อที่จะให้พนักงานเข้าใจคุณค่าของแบรนด์และสามารถให้บริการลูกค้าตามที่แบรนด์ได้สัญญาไว้กับลูกค้า ในมุมมองทางการตลาดและการสื่อสาร การสื่อการแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรนั้นคือการจัดการพฤติกรรมของพนักงานให้สัมพันธ์กับคุณค่าของแบรนด์โดยใช้เครื่องมือการสื่อสารภายในองค์กร ตลอดจนกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมและการพัฒนาต่างๆ (Karmark, 2005) การสื่อการแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรคือวิธีการทำให้พนักงานเข้าใจคุณค่าของแบรนด์ขององค์กร และเพื่อให้พนักงานมีความสามารถในการให้บริการลูกค้าในแต่ละวันของการปฏิบัติงาน ตามที่แบรนด์ได้สัญญาไว้กับลูกค้า (Urde, 2003; Karmark, 2005; Ind , 2007).

- คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความข้างต้นหรือไม่? และเพราะเหตุใด?
- ในความคิดเห็นของคุณ คุณคิดว่าการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรคืออะไร?
- คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไรกับการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรของคุณ?
- คุณคิดว่าอะไรบ้างที่เป็นส่วนสำคัญในการสื่อสารแบรนภายในองค์กรของคุณ? และเพราะเหตุใด?

หลักฐานจากตำราและงานวิจัยทางการตลาดแสดงให้เห็นว่าเมื่อนำเครื่องมือการในสื่อสารแบรนด์มาใช้ในมหาวิทยาลัย พนักงานของมหาวิทยาลัยจะแสดงพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ (Judson *et al.*, 2006, หน้า 105) โดยพนักงานมักจะมี “ความเข้าใจอย่างชัดเจนในคุณค่าของแบรนด์ของมหาวิทยาลัย และสามารถใช้คุณค่าของแบรนด์เหล่านี้ในชีวิตประจำวันของการปฏิบัติงาน” (Judson *et al.*, 2006, หน้า 105).

- คุณเห็นด้วยกับข้อความข้างต้นหรือไม่? และเพราะเหตุใด?
- ในความคิดเห็นของคุณ คุณคิดว่าพฤติกรรมของพนักงานซึ่งสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรเป็นอย่างไร
- คุณจะอธิบายเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมของพนักงานวิชาการซึ่งถือเป็นการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรว่าอย่างไร
- แล้วพฤติกรรมของคุณที่ถือเป็นการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรเป็นอย่างไร?
- คุณคิดว่าพนักงานวิชาการซึ่งมีพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรจะสามารถอธิบายคุณค่าของแบรนด์ได้หรือไม่? และเพราะเหตุใด?
- คุณคิดว่าพนักงานวิชาการซึ่งมีพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรจะใช้ความรู้ความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับคุณค่าของแบรนด์มาใช้เพื่อจัดการเวลาในการทำงานของพวกเขาได้ดีขึ้นหรือไม่? และเพราะเหตุใด?
- คุณคิดว่าพนักงานวิชาการซึ่งมีพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรจะตัดสินใจในการทำงานหรือการให้บริการกับนักนักศึกษา โดยอยู่บนพื้นฐานของคุณค่าของแบรนด์หรือไม่ และเพราะเหตุใด?
- คุณคิดว่าพนักงานวิชาการซึ่งมีพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรจะรู้ทักษะที่จำเป็นในการให้บริการบนพื้นฐานของคุณค่าของแบรนด์หรือไม่? และเพราะเหตุใด?
- คุณคิดว่าพนักงานวิชาการซึ่งมีพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรจะใช่ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับคุณค่าในแบรนด์ของเขาในการปฏิบัติงานแต่ละวันของพวกเขาหรือไม่? และเพราะเหตุใด?

Appendix L

คำถามงานวิจัยข้อที่ 1*: จากมุมมองของพนักงานวิชาการ มีความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรและพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรหรือไม่? และเป็นอย่างไร?*

- กรุณาบอกกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมที่องค์กรของคุณใช้ในการสื่อสารคุณค่าของแบรนด์หรือข้อความเกี่ยวกับ แบรนด์มาที่คุณ
- คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่ว่า การฝึกอบรมที่สัมพันกับคุณค่าของแบรนด์ ทำให้พนักงานเข้าใจในแบรนด์และสมมารถนำความเข้าใจนั้นไปให้ในการทำงานด้วย?
- กรุณาบอกกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมที่คณะของคุณใช้ในการสื่อสารทักษะที่จำเป็นสำหรับคุณในการทำงานเพื่อที่จะสนับสนุนแบรนด์?
- ในคณะของคุณมีกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมอะไรบ้างที่มีแนวโน้มที่จะเน้นย้ำคุณค่าหรือข้อความของแบรนด์?
- ในคณะของคุณมีกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมอะไรบ้างที่ช่วยให้คุณใช้นำคุณค่าหรือข้อความของแบรนด์มาใช้ในการทำงานได้?
- ในคณะของคุณมีกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมอะไรบ้างที่ให้ทักษะที่จำเป็นในการนำคุณค่าหรือข้อความของแบรนด์มาใช้ในการทำงานได้?
- รายงายประจำปีเพื่อตรวจสอบประสิทธิภาพในการทำงานในคณะของคุณมีการใช้ตัวชี้วัดด้านการนำคุณค่าหรือข้อความของแบรนด์มาใช้ในการทำงานหรือไม่? อย่างไร?
- บทบาทของคุณในการส่งเสริมแบรนด์ขององค์กรเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของแผนการปฏิบัติงานในคณะของคุณหรือไม่? อย่างไร?
- กิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมมีอิทธิพลต่อพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของคุณมากแค่ไหน? โปรดอธิบายว่ากิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมมีอิทธิพลต่อพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของคุณอย่างไร?
- กรุณาบอกช่องทางการสื่อสารและเครื่องมือที่องค์กรของคุณใช้ในการสิ่อสารคุณค่าของแบรนด์หรือข้อความเกี่ยวกับ แบรนด์มาที่คุณ
- คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่ว่า การสื่อสารคุณค่าของแบรนด์ ทำให้พนักงานเข้าใจในแบรนด์และสมมารถนำความเข้าใจนั้นไปให้ในการทำงานด้วย
- กรุณาอธิบายว่าช่องทางการสื่อสารและเครื่องมือเหล่านี้มีอิทธิพลต่อพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรมากแค่ไหน?
- คุณสามารถบอกช่องทางการสื่อสารและเครื่องมือที่คณะของคุณใช้เพื่อสื่อสารข้อความหรือคุณค่าของแบรนด์ถึงพนักงานวิชาการเป็นรายบุคคลได้หรือไม่? ถ้าได้มีอะไรบ้าง?
- คุณสามารถบอกช่องทางการสื่อสารและเครื่องมือที่คณะของคุณใช้เพื่อสื่อสารข้อความหรือคุณค่าของแบรนด์ถึงพนักงานวิชาการแบบเฉพาะเจาะจงในแต่ละกลุ่มของพนักงานได้หรือไม่? ถ้าได้มีอะไรบ้าง?
- คุณสามารถบอกช่องทางการสื่อสารและเครื่องมือที่คณะของคุณใช้เพื่อสื่อสารข้อความหรือคุณค่าของแบรนด์ถึงพนักงานวิชาการทั้งหมดทุกคนผ่านการสื่อสารมวลชนเช่นจดหมายข่าว บันทึกข้อความและ โบรชัวร์ได้หรือไม่? ถ้าได้มีอะไรบ้าง?

คำถามงานวิจัยข้อที่ 2*: ลักษณะความเป็นผู้นำของหัวหน้าสายงานในองค์กรมีความสำคัญต่อความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภารในองค์กรและพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานวิชาการ อย่างไร?*

- ขอให้คุณกล่าวถึงลักษณะของหัวหน้าที่ทำให้คุณมีพฤติกรรมที่สนับสนุนแบรนด์? และเพราะเหตุใด?
- คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่ว่า Transformational leader หรือ ผู้นำในการเปลี่ยน
สามารถทำให้คุณเข้าใจในแบรนด์และสมมารถนำความเข้าใจนั้นไปให้ในการทำงานด้วย
- สมมุติว่าถ้าหากคุณได้ปฏิบัติหน้าที่เป็นหัวหน้าคณะซึ่งต้องรับผิดชอบในการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรเพื่อสร้างพฤติกรรมการการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานวิชาการ สิ่งที่จะเป็นกลยุทธ์ในการสื่อสารแบรนด์ของคุณคืออะไร? กิจกรรมการสื่อสารและเครื่องมือในสื่อสารใดที่คุณต้องการจะใช้คืออะไร? และคุณจะลงทุนเป็นพิเศษในองค์ประกอบใดของการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร? เพราะเหตุใด?

Appendix L

คำถามงานวิจัยข้อที่ 3*: ความสัมพันธ์อื่นๆของการสื่อสารแบรนด์แบบภายในกับการใช้แบรนด์มาเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการฝึกอบรมและพัฒนาบุคลากร) จะมีประสิทธิภาพมากกว่าและบุคลิกความเป็นผู้นำของหัวหน้า ที่จะทำให้พนักงานสนับสนุนแบรนด์?*

- เมื่อพิจารณาจากเครื่องมือในการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรที่ได้กล่าวถึงมาแล้ว ข้อมูลประเภทไหนและช่องทางการสื่อสารแบบใดที่มีผลต่อการตัดสินใจเกี่ยวกับการปฏิบัติตัวเของคุณในแต่ละวันของการทำงาน?

- เมื่อพิจารณาจากองค์ประกอบทั้งหมดที่คุณได้ตอบมาแล้ว เครื่องมือการสื่อสารแบบใดที่มี่ส่งผลให้คุณปฏิบัติตนในลักษณะที่สนับสนุนแบรนด์?

- เครื่องมือการสื่อสารใดที่คุณมักจะใช้ในการ ศึกษาและทำความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับคุณค่าของแบรนด์ขององค์กร?

- คุณเชื่อมโยงความรู้เกี่ยวกับสารและคุณค่าของแบรนด์กับข้อมูลซึ่งคุณได้จากแหล่งข้อมูลเหล่านี้อย่างไร?

ผู้สัมภาษณ์จะสรุปจุดสำคัญของการสนทนา นอกจากนี้จะเสนอแบบจำลองของผลของการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรต่อพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ขององค์กรซึ่งถูกสร้างขึ้นโดยใช้ข้อมูลจากตำราและงานวิจัยทางการตลาด จากนั้นผู้สัมภาษณ์จะถามผู้ถูกสัมภาษณ์ว่าต้องการเปลี่ยนแปลงหรือเพิ่มอะไรหรือไม่?

วัตถุประสงค์ของการศึกษาในครั้งนี้คือเพื่อตรวจสอบความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรและพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานวิชาการจากมุมมองของพนักงานวิชาการ และเพื่อที่จะเข้าใจว่าเครื่องมือการสื่อสาร

แบรนด์ประเภทใดที่มีความสามารถที่จะก่อให้เกิด พฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานวิชาการ และเพื่อที่จะทราบถึงบทบาทและความสำคัญของลักษณะความเป็นผู้นำของหัวหน้าสายงาน ต่อความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการสื่อสาร

แบรนด์ภายในองค์กรและพฤติกรรมสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานวิชาการจากมุมมองของตัวคุณซึ่งเป็นพนักงานสายวิชาการ หากคุณคิดว่าเรายังไม่ได้พูดถึงบางจุดที่สำคัญ โปรดแจ้งด้วยนะคะ?

ขอบคุณมากๆสำหรับความร่วมมือ และเวลาในการมาให้สัมภาษณ์ครั้งนี้

Appendix L-2: Pilot questionnaire (Thai version)

แบบสอบถามฉบับนำร่อง

การศึกษาผลของการสร้างตราสถาบัน (แบรนด์)ภายในองค์กรกับพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบันของพนักงานในคณะบริหารธุรกิจ/การบัญชี/การจัดการของมหาวิทยาลัยไทย: จากมุมมองของพนักงานสายผู้สอน

Brunel University, สหราชอาณาจักร และ ได้รับเงินสนับสนุนจากมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม, ประเทศไทย

วัตถุประสงค์การวิจัย

จุดมุ่งหมายของการศึกษาวิจัยนี้คือเพื่อตรวจสอบว่าการสร้างตราสถาบัน(แบรนด์)ภายในองค์กรมีผลต่อพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบัน ของพนักงานสายผู้สอนอย่างไร นอกจากนี้ยังมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจผลกระทบของ "บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้างานสายผู้สอนต่อความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการสร้างตราสถาบันภายในองค์กรและ พฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์พนักงาน

ข้อมูลที่จะเก็บจากพนักงานสายผู้สอนของคณะการจัดการและบริหารธุรกิจในประเทศไทย ได้แก่: 1. ระดับการสร้างแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร (การสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร และการฝึกอบรม-พัฒนาพนักงานซึ่งเน้นแบรนด์เป็นสำคัญ); 2. ระดับของพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบันของพนักงานสายผู้สอน; และ 3. ระดับการรับรู้ถึง "บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้า

ข้อตกลงรักษาความลับทางการวิจัย

- ผู้ทำวิจัยจะเก็บข้อมูลของท่านเป็นความลับ โดยชื่อผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามและชื่อมหาวิทยาลัยซึ่งมีส่วนร่วมในการศึกษานี้จะไม่ถูกเปิดเผย
- ข้อมูลเหล่านี้จะถูกนำมาใช้เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์สถิติเท่านั้น โดยการแสดงข้อมูลจะเป็นแบบภาพรวม จะไม่มีชื่อผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามหรือชื่อมหาวิทยาลัยถูกเปิดเผย

ความร่วมมือของท่านมีส่วนสำคัญอย่างยิ่ง

การศึกษานี้จะประสบความสำเร็จเนื่องด้วยข้อมูลจากพนักงานสายผู้สอนจากมหาวิทยาลัยของไทยอย่างท่าน

ประโยชน์ที่ท่านอาจได้รับการศึกษาครั้งนี้

ข้อมูลจากท่านสามารถใช้แนะนำฝ่ายบริหารของมหาวิทยาลัยเกี่ยวกับการสื่อสารตราสถาบันภายในองค์กรและการปรับปรุง การฝึกอบรมต่างๆ ซึ่งอาจช่วยให้คุณพร้อมที่จะทำงานเพื่อสนับสนุนตราสถาบัน และช่วยให้คุณทำงานได้อย่างมีความสุขมากขึ้น

ขอขอบคุณอย่างยิ่งในความร่วมมือ

นริศรา แก้วสุรินทร์ Brunel Business School, Brunel University และมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

หากท่านต้องการข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถามกรุณาติดต่อ นริศรา แก้วสุรินทร์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม , ตำบลขามเรียง, อำเภอกัณทรวิชัย, มหาสารคาม 44,150 โทร: 082-1563007 อีเมล์: Narissara.Kaewsurin@brunel.ac.uk

Appendix L

การศึกษาผลของการสร้างตราสถาบัน (แบรนด์)ภายในองค์กรกับพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบันของพนักงานในคณะบริหารธุรกิจ/การบัญชี/การจัดการของมหาวิทยาลัยไทย: จากมุมมองของพนักงานสายผู้สอน

วิธีการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้

1. กรุณาเลือก ☑ ตัวเลือกที่สามารถแสดงความเห็นของคุณได้ดีที่สุด ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตอบคำถามหรือคุณไม่เข้าใจคำถามกรุณาเลือก ☑ "ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง" <u>ไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิดในแบบสอบถามนี้</u> จุดมุ่งหมายหลักคือ เพื่อให้ทราบความเห็นของคุณเกี่ยวกับการสร้าง แบรนด์ภายในคณะของคุณ

2. แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด 5 หน้า โดยได้ถูกจัดเตรียมรูปแบบไว้ล่วงหน้าเพื่อให้สามารถตอบคำถามได้ง่ายและรวดเร็ว ดังนั้นระยะเวลาในการตอบแบบสอบถามโดยประมาณคือ <u>8-10 นาที</u>

Appendix L

- ข้อความที่แสดงด้านล่างนี้เป็นข้อความเกี่ยวกับสถาบันที่คุณกำลังทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน

- **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** มีความหมายรวมไปถึง นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน

จากคะแนน '1 'กับ '7' คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับข้อความต่อไปนี้? (1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก, 4 = ทั้งเห็นด้วยและไม่เห็นด้วย และ 7 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก)

ส่วน ก – ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับกิจกรรมการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในคณะ

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'
1. คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มาที่ฉันโดยตรง (แบบเป็นรายบุคคล)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.รูปแบบที่คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มาที่ฉัน จะแตกต่างกันออกไปในแต่ละกลุ่ม/แผนก	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) กับฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานของฉัน โดยใช้เครื่องมือการสื่อสารแบบ มวลชน เช่น การประชุม จดหมายข่าว บันทึก และ แผ่นพับประชาสัมพันธ์	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) โดยใช้การสื่อสารสองทาง ซึ่งฉันได้มีส่วนโต้ตอบและออกความเห็น (เช่น การประชุมคณะ การพบปะพูดคุย)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มาที่ฉัน โดยใช้การสื่อสารที่ฉันเป็นเพียงผู้รับสาร เท่านั้น (การสื่อสารแบบทางเดียว)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ส่วน ข – ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับสื่อสารของแบรนด์ผ่านทางกิจกรรมการอบรมและพัฒนา

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'
1. คณะเน้นย้ำ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับ แบรนด์ของสถาบัน) โดยใช้กิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมและพัฒนา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. การฝึกอบรมที่ทางคณะจัดให้ช่วยให้ฉันสามารถทำงานอยู่บนพื้นฐานของ **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. การฝึกอบรมที่ทางคณะจัดให้ เป็นการฝึกอบรมที่เน้นทักษะ/ความชำนาญ ที่จำเป็นในการทำงานเพื่อให้อยู่บนพื้นฐาน**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. จากแบบประเมินประจำปีที่คณะใช้ในวัดประสิทธิภาพของการทำงานของฉัน การทำงาน ที่สัมพันธ์กับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับ แบรนด์ของสถาบัน) ถือเป็นส่วนหนึ่งซึ่งมีผลต่อการวัดประสิทธิภาพของการทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. คณะของฉันถือว่าบทบาทของอาจารย์สายผู้สอน มีส่วนสำคัญในการส่งเสริม**คุณค่าของ แบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. กิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมในคณะเกี่ยวข้องกับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. คณะสนับสนุนให้ฉันไปร่วมกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน ค – พฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานสายผู้สอน

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'
1. ฉันสามารถอธิบาย**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. ฉันใช้ความรู้และความเข้าใจใน**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) เพื่อบริหารและจัดการเวลาในทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. ฉันตัดสินใจในการทำงาน และ ให้บริการนักศึกษาโดยยึดหลักพื้นฐานของ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. ฉันรู้ว่าความเชี่ยวชาญประเภทใดบ้างที่จำเป็นในการให้บริการตามพื้นฐานของ **คุณค่าของ แบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. ฉันใช้ข้อมูลที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) ในการทำงานแต่ละวันของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. ตัวประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงานที่ทางคณะจัดขึ้นโดยอ้างอิง กับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความ ที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มีผลต่อการตัดสินใจในกิจกรรมการทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. ฉันปฏิบัติตามกฎระเบียบสถาบัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. ฉันปฏิบัติตาม**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน ง – ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับ "บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้า

ลักษณะเหล่านี้คือหัวหน้าของฉัน (นึกถึง<u>หัวหน้าสายงาน</u>ซึ่งเป็นผู้บังคับบัญชาที่ใกล้คุณที่สุด)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'**
1. ฉันรู้สึกดีที่ได้ทำงานร่วมกับเขา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2 ฉันเชื่อมั่นในตัวเขา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. ฉันภูมิใจที่ได้มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับเขา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. เขาเป็นแบบอย่างที่ดีสำหรับฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5 เขาใช้คำง่ายๆในการบอกฉันว่าฉันควรทำอะไรและสามารถทำอะไร	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. เขาช่วยให้ฉันมีความคิดในแง่บวกกับงานที่ฉันกำลังจะต้องทำ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. เขาช่วยฉันรู้ถึงความหมายและคุณค่าในงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. เขาบอกให้ฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานของฉันทราบสิ่งที่เราควรทำเพื่อบรรลุเป้าหมาย ของ มหาวิทยาลัย	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. เขามีส่วนทำให้ฉันคิดแก้ไขปัญหาเก่าๆด้วยวิธีใหม่ๆ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. เขามีส่วนทำให้ฉันมองสิ่งต่างๆที่ดูเหมือนยากด้วยวิธีการใหม่ๆ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. เขาทำให้ฉันพิจารณาในสิ่งที่ฉันไม่เคยสนใจก่อน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. เขาให้อิสระฉันในการคิด โดยที่เขาจะตัดสินความคิดของฉันตามความเหมาะสม	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. เขามักจะไม่ปฏิเสธโครงการของฉัน ถ้าโครงการไม่เหมาะสมเขาจะแนะนำสำหรับการ ปรับปรุง	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. เขามีส่วนช่วยให้ฉันพัฒนาตัวเอง	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. เขาบอกให้ฉันทราบว่า เขาเห็นว่าการทำงานของฉันเป็นอย่างไร มีประสิทธิภาพแค่ไหน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. เขาจะสนใจ ดูแลเป็นกันเองกับฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงาน โดยเฉพาะกับคนที่ดูเหมือนกำลังมี ปัญหา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. เขาจะให้ความคิดเห็นและคำแนะนำเกี่ยวกับวิธีการทำงาน และประสิทธิภาพการทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. เขาเป็นมิตรกับฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน จ – ข้อมูลทั่วไป

เพื่อให้เข้าใจลึกซึ้งกับความคิดเห็นของคุณเกี่ยวกับผลของการสร้างแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรกับพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานในมหาวิทยาลัยไทย กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้ คำถามเหล่านี้เกี่ยวกับข้อมูลทั่วไปของคุณ ผู้ทำวิจัยขอยืนยันว่าว่าข้อมูลนี้จะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ จะไม่มีข้อมูลส่วนบุคคลถูกเปิดเผย

1. เพศ: ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง

2. อายุ ____________________

3. ชื่อตำแหน่งทางวิชาการ ☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี คือ ____________________

4. คุณทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยนี้นานเท่าไร(ณ วันที่ 30 ตุลาคม 2552)? __________ ปี __________ เดือน

5. ระยะเวลาในการปฏิบัติงานกับหัวหน้าคนปัจจุบัน (ณ วันที่ 30 ตุลาคม 2552)? __________ ปี __________ เดือน

6. คุณมีผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาหรือไม่? ☐ มี ☐ ไม่มี

7. รายได้เฉลี่ย (ทุกประเภท) ต่อเดือนที่ได้รับจากสถาบันการศึกษา

☐ ต่ำกว่า 10,000 บาท	☐ 10,001-20,000 บาท	☐ 20,001-30,000 บาท	☐ 30,001-40,000 บาท
☐ 40,001-50,000 บาท	☐ 50,001-60,000 บาท	☐ 60,001-70,000 บาท	☐ 70,001-80,000 บาท
☐ 80,001-90,000 บาท	☐ 90,001-100,000 บาท	☐ สูงกว่า 100,000 บาท	

8. การศึกษา ☐ ต่ำกว่าปริญญาโท ☐ ปริญญาโท ☐ ปริญญาเอก

9. กรุณาใช้พื้นที่ส่วนนี้ให้ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับสถาบันของคุณหรือแสดงความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถาม

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ขอบคุณอย่างสูงสำหรับความร่วมมือของคุณ

Appendix L

Appendix L-3: Main survey questionnaire (Thai version)

แบบสอบถาม

สิ่งที่ก่อให้เกิดพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบันของพนักงานในคณะบริหารธุรกิจ/การบัญชี/การจัดการ ของมหาวิทยาลัยไทย: ตัวแบบจากมุมมองของพนักงานสายผู้สอนโดยการเชื่อมโยงระหว่างการสร้างแบรนด์จากภายในองค์กร (Internal branding) และ"บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership)

Brunel University, สหราชอาณาจักร และ ได้รับเงินสนับสนุนจากมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม, ประเทศไทย

วัตถุประสงค์การวิจัย

จุดมุ่งหมายของการศึกษาวิจัยนี้คือเพื่อศึกษาสิ่งที่ก่อให้เกิดพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบันของพนักงานในคณะบริหารธุรกิจ/การบัญชี/การจัดการ ของมหาวิทยาลัยไทย โดยการตรวจสอบความสัมพันระหว่างพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบัน ของพนักงานสายผู้ สอน, การสร้างตราสถาบัน(แบรนด์)ภายในองค์กรมีผลต่อ และ"บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้างานสายผู้สอน

ข้อมูลที่จะเก็บจากพนักงานสายผู้สอนของคณะการจัดการและบริหารธุรกิจในประเทศไทย ได้แก่: 1. ระดับการสร้างแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร (การสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร และการฝึกอบรม-พัฒนาพนักงานซึ่งเน้นแบรนด์เป็นสำคัญ); 2. ระดับการรับรู้ถึง "บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้า; และ 3. ระดับของพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบัน ของพนักงานสายผู้สอน

ข้อตกลงรักษาความลับทางการวิจัย

- ผู้ทำวิจัยจะเก็บข้อมูลของท่านเป็นความลับ โดยชื่อผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามและชื่อมหาวิทยาลัยซึ่งมีส่วนร่วมในการศึกษานี้จะไม่ถูกเปิดเผย
- ข้อมูลเหล่านี้จะถูกนำมาใช้เพื่อวัตถุประสงค์สถิติเท่านั้น โดยการแสดงข้อมูลจะเป็นแบบภาพรวม จะไม่มีชื่อผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม หรือชื่อมหาวิทยาลัยถูกเปิดเผย

ความร่วมมือของท่านมีส่วนสำคัญอย่างยิ่ง

การศึกษานี้จะประสบความสำเร็จเนื่องด้วยข้อมูลจากพนักงานสายผู้สอนจากมหาวิทยาลัยของไทยอย่างท่าน

ประโยชน์ที่ท่านอาจได้รับการศึกษาครั้งนี้

ข้อมูลจากท่านสามารถใช้แนะนำฝ่ายบริหารของมหาวิทยาลัยเกี่ยวกับการสื่อสารตราสถาบันภายในองค์กรและการปรับปรุง การฝึกอบรมต่างๆ ซึ่งอาจช่วยให้คุณพร้อมที่จะทำงานเพื่อสนับสนุนตราสถาบัน และช่วยให้คุณทำงานได้อย่างมีความสุขมากขึ้น

ขอขอบคุณอย่างยิ่งในความร่วมมือ

นริศรา แก้วสุรินทร์ Brunel Business School, Brunel University และมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

หากท่านต้องการข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถามกรุณาติดต่อ นริศรา แก้วสุรินทร์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการมหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม , ตำบลขามเรียง, อำเภอกันทรวิชัย, มหาสารคาม 44,150 โทร: 082-1563007 อีเมล์: Narissara.Kaewsurin@brunel.ac.uk

Appendix L

สิ่งที่ก่อให้เกิดพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบันของพนักงานในคณะบริหารธุรกิจ/การบัญชี/การจัดการ ของมหาวิทยาลัยไทย: ตัวแบบจากมุมมองของพนักงานสายผู้สอนโดยการเชื่อมโยงระหว่างการสร้างแบรนด์จากภายในองค์กร (Internal branding) และ“บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง” (Transformational Leadership)

วิธีการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้

1.กรุณาเลือก ☑ ตัวเลือกที่สามารถแสดงความเห็นของคุณได้ดีที่สุด ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตอบคำถามหรือคุณไม่เข้าใจคำถามกรุณาเลือก ☑ “ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง” ไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิดในแบบสอบถามนี้ จุดมุ่งหมายหลักคือ เพื่อให้ทราบความเห็นของคุณเกี่ยวกับ: 1. ระดับการสร้างแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร (การสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในองค์กร และการฝึกอบรม-พัฒนาพนักงานซึ่งเน้นแบรนด์เป็นสำคัญ); 2. ระดับการรับรู้ถึง “บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำการเปลี่ยนแปลง” (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้า; และ 3. ระดับของพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนตราสถาบัน ของพนักงานสายผู้สอน

2.แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด 5 หน้า โดยได้ถูกจัดเตรียมรูปแบบไว้ล่วงหน้าเพื่อให้สามารถตอบคำถามได้ง่ายและรวดเร็ว ดังนั้นระยะเวลาในการตอบแบบสอบถามโดยประมาณคือ 8-10 นาที

Appendix L

ส่วน ก - ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับสื่อสารของแบรนด์ผ่านทางกิจกรรมการอบรมและพัฒนา

- ข้อความที่แสดงด้านล่างนี้เป็นข้อความเกี่ยวกับสถาบันที่คุณกำลังทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน
- **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** มีความหมายรวมไปถึง นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน

จากคะแนน '1 'กับ '7' คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับข้อความต่อไปนี้? (1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก, 4 = ทั้งเห็นด้วยและไม่เห็นด้วย และ 7 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก)

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'**
1. คณะเน้นย้ำ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน) โดยใช้กิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมและพัฒนา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. การฝึกอบรมที่ทางคณะจัดให้ช่วยให้ฉันสามารถทำงานอยู่บนพื้นฐานของ **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. การฝึกอบรมที่ทางคณะจัดให้ เป็นการฝึกอบรมที่เน้นทักษะ/ความชำนาญ ที่จำเป็นในการทำงานเพื่อให้อยู่บนพื้นฐาน**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. จากแบบประเมินประจำปีที่คณะใช้ในวัดประสิทธิภาพของการทำงานของฉัน การทำงาน ที่สัมพันธ์กับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับ แบรนด์ของสถาบัน) ถือเป็นส่วนหนึ่งซึ่งมีผลต่อการวัดประสิทธิภาพของการทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. คณะของฉันถือว่าบทบาทของอาจารย์สายผู้สอน มีส่วนสำคัญในการส่งเสริม**คุณค่าของ แบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. กิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมในคณะเกี่ยวข้องกับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. คณะสนับสนุนให้ฉันไปร่วมกิจกรรมการฝึกอบรมที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน ข – ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับกิจกรรมการสื่อสารแบรนด์ภายในคณะ

- ข้อความที่แสดงด้านล่างนี้เป็นข้อความเกี่ยวกับสถาบันที่คุณกำลังทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน
- **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** มีความหมายรวมไปถึง นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน

จากคะแนน '1 'กับ '7' คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับข้อความต่อไปนี้? (1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก, 4 = ทั้งเห็นด้วยและไม่เห็นด้วย และ 7 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'
1. คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มาที่ฉันโดยตรง (แบบเป็นรายบุคคล)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.รูปแบบที่คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มาที่ฉัน จะแตกต่างกันออกไปในแต่ละกลุ่ม/แผนก	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) กับฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานของฉัน โดยใช้เครื่องมือการสื่อสารแบบ มวลชน เช่น การประชุม จดหมายข่าว บันทึก และ แผ่นพับประชาสัมพันธ์	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. คณะสื่อสาร**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) โดยใช้การสื่อสารสองทาง ซึ่งฉันได้มีส่วนโต้ตอบและออกความเห็น (เช่น การประชุมคณะ การพบปะพูดคุย)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน ค – พฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานสายผู้สอน

- ข้อความที่แสดงด้านล่างนี้เป็นข้อความเกี่ยวกับสถาบันที่คุณกำลังทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน
- **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** มีความหมายรวมไปถึง นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน

จากคะแนน '1 'กับ '7' คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับข้อความต่อไปนี้? (1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก, 4 = ทั้งเห็นด้วยและไม่เห็นด้วย และ 7 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก)

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'**
1. ฉันสามารถอธิบาย**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. ฉันใช้ความรู้และความเข้าใจใน**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) เพื่อบริหารและจัดการเวลาในทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. ฉันตัดสินใจในการทำงาน และ ให้บริการนักศึกษาโดยยึดหลักพื้นฐานของ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. ฉันรู้ว่าความเชี่ยวชาญประเภทใดบ้างที่จำเป็นในการให้บริการตามพื้นฐานของ **คุณค่าของ แบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. ฉันใช้ข้อมูลที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) ในการทำงานแต่ละวันของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. ตัวประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงานที่ทางคณะจัดขึ้นโดยอ้างอิง กับ**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความ ที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>) มีผลต่อการตัดสินใจในกิจกรรมการทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. ฉันปฏิบัติตามกฎระเบียบสถาบัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. ฉันปฏิบัติตาม**คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** (เช่น นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์<u>ของสถาบัน</u>)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน ง – ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับ "บุคลิกลักษณะผู้นำเปลี่ยนแปลง" (Transformational Leadership) ของหัวหน้า

- ข้อความที่แสดงด้านล่างนี้เป็นข้อความเกี่ยวกับสถาบันที่คุณกำลังทำงานอยู่ในปัจจุบัน
- **คุณค่าของแบรนด์*** มีความหมายรวมไปถึง นโยบาย พันธกิจ วิสัยทัศน์ หรือ ข้อความที่เกี่ยวกับแบรนด์ของสถาบัน

จากคะแนน '1 'กับ '7' คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับข้อความต่อไปนี้? (1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก, 4 = ทั้งเห็นด้วยและไม่เห็นด้วย และ 7 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างมาก)

ลักษณะเหล่านี้คือหัวหน้าของฉัน (นึกถึงหัวหน้าสายงานซึ่งเป็นผู้บังคับบัญชาที่ใกล้คุณที่สุด)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**'ไม่เกี่ยวข้อง'**
1. ฉันรู้สึกดีที่ได้ทำงานร่วมกับเขา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2 ฉันเชื่อมั่นในตัวเขา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. ฉันภูมิใจที่ได้มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับเขา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. เขาเป็นแบบอย่างที่ดีสำหรับฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5 เขาใช้คำง่ายๆในการบอกฉันว่าฉันควรทำอะไรและสามารถทำอะไร	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. เขาช่วยให้ฉันมีความคิดในแง่บวกกับงานที่ฉันกำลังจะต้องทำ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. เขาช่วยฉันรู้ถึงความหมายและคุณค่าในงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. เขาบอกให้ฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงานของฉันทราบสิ่งที่เราควรทำเพื่อบรรลุเป้าหมาย ของมหาวิทยาลัย	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. เขามีส่วนทำให้ฉันคิดแก้ไขปัญหาเก่าๆด้วยวิธีใหม่ๆ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. เขามีส่วนทำให้ฉันมองสิ่งต่างๆที่ดูเหมือนยากด้วยวิธีการใหม่ๆ	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. เขาทำให้ฉันพิจารณาในสิ่งที่ฉันไม่เคยสนใจก่อน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. เขามีส่วนช่วยให้ฉันพัฒนาตัวเอง	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. เขาบอกให้ฉันทราบว่า เขาเห็นว่าการทำงานของฉันเป็นอย่างไร มีประสิทธิภาพแค่ไหน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. เขาจะสนใจ ดูแลเป็นกันเองกับฉันและเพื่อนร่วมงาน โดยเฉพาะกับคนที่ดูเหมือนกำลังมี ปัญหา	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. เขาจะให้ความคิดเห็นและคำแนะนำเกี่ยวกับวิธีการทำงาน และประสิทธิภาพการทำงานของฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. เขาเป็นมิตรกับฉัน	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix L

ส่วน จ – ข้อมูลทั่วไป

เพื่อให้เข้าใจลึกซึ้งกับความคิดเห็นของคุณเกี่ยวกับผลของการสร้างแบรนด์ภายในองค์กรกับพฤติกรรมการสนับสนุนแบรนด์ของพนักงานในมหาวิทยาลัยไทย กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้ คำถามเหล่านี้เกี่ยวกับข้อมูลทั่วไปของคุณ ผู้ทำวิจัยขอยืนยันว่าว่าข้อมูลนี้จะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ จะไม่มีข้อมูลส่วนบุคคลถูกเปิดเผย

1. เพศ: ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง

2. อายุ ____________________

3. ชื่อตำแหน่งทางวิชาการ ☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี คือ ____________________

4. คุณทำงานที่มหาวิทยาลัยนี้นานเท่าไร(ณ วันที่ 30 ตุลาคม 2552)? ________ ปี ________ เดือน

5. ระยะเวลาในการปฏิบัติงานกับหัวหน้าคนปัจจุบัน (ณ วันที่ 30 ตุลาคม 2552)? ________ ปี ________ เดือน

6. คุณมีผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาหรือไม่? ☐ ไม่มี ☐ มี

7. รายได้เฉลี่ย (ทุกประเภท) ต่อเดือนที่ได้รับจากสถาบันการศึกษา

☐ ต่ำกว่า 10,000 บาท ☐ 10,001-20,000 บาท ☐ 20,001-30,000 บาท ☐ 30,001-40,000 บาท

☐ 40,001-50,000 บาท ☐ 50,001-60,000 บาท ☐ 60,001-70,000 บาท ☐ 70,001-80,000 บาท

☐ 80,001-90,000 บาท ☐ 90,001-100,000 บาท ☐ สูงกว่า 100,000 บาท

8. การศึกษา ☐ ต่ำกว่าปริญญาโท ☐ ปริญญาโท ☐ ปริญญาเอก

9. กรุณาใช้พื้นที่ส่วนนี้ให้ความเห็นเกี่ยวกับสถาบันของคุณหรือแสดงความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับแบบสอบถาม

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ขอบคุณอย่างสูงสำหรับความร่วมมือของคุณ

Appendix M: The Items of Constructs

Developed based extent literature, qualitative interviews and a pilot survey[62]

Constructs	Items	Major references
	Internal branding	
Internal brand communications	IBC1. The school communicates brand values to me personally. IBC2. The school communicates brand values specifically to each group of employees, for example, departments. IBC3. The school communicates brand values to my colleagues and me through internal mass communications, for example, newsletters, memos and brochures IBC4. The school communicates brand values to me via two-way communications (e.g., school meetings).	Judson et al.(2006) based on Ind (1997)
Brand-centred training and development activities	BCT1. The school delivers brand values through training activities. BCT2. The school provides me with training to help me use brand values. BCT3. The school provides me with the skill set necessary to deliver brand values. BCT4. I am aware that delivering brand values is part of the annual performance reviews. BCT5. The school considers my role in supporting the brand. BCT6. The school provides training activities which are related to brand values. BCT7. The school supports me in attending training activities which are related to brand values.	Adapted from original items of the study by Aurand et al. (2005)
	Employees brand support	
Employees brand support	EBS1. I am confident in my ability to clearly explain the institution's brand values. EBS2. I use my knowledge of my institution's brand values to prioritise my tasks. EBS3. The brand values influence my decisions on student requests. EBS4. I know what skills are necessary to deliver brand values. EBS5. I consider that the institutional brand values influence my day-to-day operations. EBS6. I consider reviews of my work performance when making decisions on my work activities. EBS7. I obey the institutional rules. EBS8. I follow the brand values of my institution.	Adapted from original items from the study by Aurand et al. (2005)
	Transformational leadership characteristics of the immediate leader	
Idealisation influence or charisma	II1. He/she makes me feel comfortable to be around him/her. II2. I have complete faith in him/her. II3. I am proud to be associated with him/her. II4. He/she is a role model for me	Original items from Bass and Avolio (1994 cited in Northouse, 2004, p.196)
Inspiration motivation	IM1. He/she expresses with a few simple words what I could and should do. IM2. He/she provides appealing visions of what I can do. IM3. He/she helps me find meaning in my work. IM4. He/she tells my colleagues and me what each of us should do to achieve the university's goals	
Intellectual stimulation	IS1. He/she enables me to think about old problems in new ways. IS2. He/she provides me with new ways of looking at puzzling things. IS3. He/she gets me to rethink ideas that I have never questioned before.	
Individual consideration	IC1. He/she helps me in my personal development. IC2. He/she gives regular feedback on my performance. IC3. He/she gives personal attention to others (my colleagues and me) who seem to be rejected from the group. IC4. He/she gives constructive feedback on how he/she thinks I am doing IC5. He/she is friendly with me	

Source: developed by the researcher for the present study

[62] According to the suggestions of experts and respondents (during the pilot study), the language of some items has been re-arranged.