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ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF INTERNAL BRANDING: THE CASE OF ABU DHABI DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

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This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctorate of Business Administration

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Declaration of Original Work

I, Amena Ahmed Abdulla Al Shaikh Al Zaabi, the undersigned, a graduate student at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU), and the author of this dissertation entitled "*Antecedents and Consequences of Internal Branding: The Case of Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development*", hereby, solemnly declare that this dissertation is my own original research work that has been done and prepared by me under the supervision of Professor Riyad Eid, in the College of Business and Economics at UAEU. This work has not previously been presented or published, or formed the basis for the award of any academic degree, diploma or a similar title at this or any other university. Any materials borrowed from other sources (whether published or unpublished) and relied upon or included in my dissertation have been properly cited and acknowledged in accordance with the appropriate academic conventions. I further declare that there is no potential conflict of interest with respect to the research, data collection, authorship, presentation and/or publication of this dissertation.

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Abstract

Internal branding is a new marketing paradigm to gain effective brand strategy that has recently emerged in the academic literature of marketing. It is a brand spirit that brings together brand loyalty, management and employees to their mutual benefit to create and deliver a value-added product or service to employees, customers and stakeholders (Keller, 1993). Generally, studies on the role of internal branding in creating a competitive organisational culture by considering antecedents that enable internal branding and its consequences do not exist within the UAE context. This study aims to show the importance of internal branding, and to develop and test a conceptual model that integrates specific constructs as antecedents and consequences of internal branding, these are external customer orientation, internal customer orientation, interdepartmental connectedness, quality of internal services, external customer satisfaction, and job satisfaction. The study takes on a quantitative approach a positivist enquiry, i.e., the primary research is in the form of a survey questionnaire and the secondary research is drawn from the literature. The questionnaire was designed and distributed amongst a selected sample of 300 employees from cross-functional sections in Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development, where they were asked to test the suggested model. The findings identified four factors as the antecedents plus two factors as the consequences of internal branding. The study proposes an empirically tested integrated model of the antecedents and consequences of internal branding that will enable organisations to implement internal branding leading to business success. The developed conceptual model could contribute superior value to the Departments of the Abu Dhabi Government in general, and to the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development to contributing a practical business solution, particularly to its success. This study is the first to propose a model that integrates the antecedents and consequence of internal branding in a government setting in the UAE. The outcomes and findings of this study will, as it is hoped, to enrich the internal branding concept and literature, along with extensively extending insightful knowledge beyond the Western schools of thought to the UAE.

Keywords: Internal branding, internal customer orientation, internal service quality, interdepartmental connectedness, job satisfaction, customer satisfaction, Abu Dhabi Department of Development, UAE.

Title and Abstract (in Arabic)

ممكنات ونتائج الترويج الداخلي: دراسة حالة عن دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بأبوظبي

الملخص

الترويج الداخلي هو مصطلح تسويقي جديد ظهر حديثاً في الدراسات البحثية ذات العلاقة بعلم التسويق وذلك بهدف وضع استراتيجية فعالة للعلامة التجارية الداخلية. إضافة إلى ذلك، يمثل المصطلح روح العلامة التجارية التي تجمع ما بين الإدارة والموظفين معاً بما فيه المصلحة المشتركة والولاء للعلامة التجارية بهدف ابتكار وتقديم منتجات أو خدمات متميزة للموظفين والعملاء والشركاء (كيلر، 1993). إلّا أن الدراسات حول دور الترويج الداخلي في وضع ثقافة تنظيمية منافسة باعتبار الممكنات التي تفسح المجال للترويج الداخلي والنتائج المترتبة عنه، بشكل عام غير موجودة وليست ضمن السياق في الإمارات العربية المتحدة. إن الهدف من هذه الدراسة هو إلقاء الضوء على أهمية الترويج الداخلي وتطوير ومراجعة نموذج تصوري يدمج البنيات التالية كممكنات ونتائج للترويج الداخلي: التوجيه بالعميل الخارجي، التوجيه بالعميل الداخلي، جودة الخدمة الداخلية، الترابط بين الإدارات، رضا العميل الخارجي والرضا الوظيفي. ويتبع هذا البحث فلسفة وضعية، ونهج كمي؛ حيث أن البحث الأساسي في صيغة استبيان والبحث الثانوي مستوحى من المؤلفات. وتم تصميم الاستبيان وتوزيعه في الإمارات العربية المتحدة وبشكل خاص في دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية في أبو ظبي حيث طُلب من عينة مختارة عددها 300 موظف من كافة الأقسام متعددة الوظائف بملء الاستبيان بغرض اختبار النموذج المقترح. وأسفرت نتائج الدراسة عن أربعة عوامل كممكنات وعاملين كنتائج للترويج الداخلي مثبته نجاح النموذج الموحد المقترح والذي تم اختباره تجريبياً لممكنات ونتائج الترويج الداخلي يتيح للمؤسسات تطبيق الترويج الداخلي لتحقيق نجاح الأعمال. إن النموذج التصوري للدراسة قد يساهم بقيمة مضافة بشكل عام للدوائر الحكومية في أبو ظبي وبشكل خاص في دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية مقدماً حلولاً عملية ومحققاً نجاح لأعمالها. كما تعتبر هذه الدراسة أول دراسة تقترح نموذج عملي يجمع بين ممكنات ونتائج الترويج الداخلي في نطاق العمل الحكومي في الإمارات العربية المتحدة. محصلة ونتائج هذه الدراسة بشكل عام

ستسهم في إثراء مفهوم وثقافة الترويج الداخلي على نطاق واسع ونقل معرفة ثاقبة تتعدى مدارس الفكر الغربي إلى الإمارات العربية المتحدة.

مفاهيم البحث الرئيسية: الترويج الداخلي، الممكنات، التوجيه بالعملاء الخارجيين، التوجيه بالعملاء الداخليين، الرضا الوظيفي، رضا العملاء.

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I extend my sincere appreciation to the upper management and the 300 anonymous employees of the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development for their fruitful participation in filling the questionnaire survey. Special thanks to Ahmed Taha for revising the official dissertation layout. The last but not the least, my sincere thanks and love devoted entirely to my kind mother who is continuously spraying her smiles and warm love to all my family members.

Dedication

To my beloved country, the UAE whose 45th birthday witnessed my DBA success,

To my Mother, the spring of all kinds of love and human feelings,

To my friendly family members who wrapped me with a thick care,

To my Dear Professor Riyad Eid, the unforgettable mentor

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List of Abbreviations

DED	Department of Economic Development
ECO	External Customer Orientation
ECS	External Customer Satisfaction
IB	Internal Branding
ICO	Internal Customer Orientation
ISQ	Internal Service Quality
JS	Job Satisfaction

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Dissertation Overview

Organisations strive toward excellence, by differentiating themselves in a competitive market seeking customer loyalty; hence, branding has become a major element in ensuring quality and consistency. A brand is a "name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, that is intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competition" (American Marketing Association definition; Keller, 2003). Recent branding initiatives have shifted their promotional focus on internal organisational context by engaging employees in the culture and strategy development to better understand the brand, live it and be committed to it (Keller, 2003). Internal Branding ensures the strategic alignment of human capital with organisational goals by continuously connecting employees to the organisation's vision and values. It is a relatively new approach, but studies in the literature have already shown its positive impact on organisational culture (Keller, 1993).

This chapter starts with an overview of the research background moving to the theoretical context of the study, along with a summary of the research context in the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development. Then the discussion presents the research objectives and questions, along with the academic contribution that the research is hoped to make to the internal branding literature. The chapter ends with an overview of the structure and chapters of the dissertation.

1.2 Research Theoretical Context

Internal branding is the series of grouped internal procedures and tools aligned together for the better empowerment and support of employees who want to meet customer expectations and ensure reliability; making sure that different functional processes such as training and communication are used well and aligned with business values (as defined by the Canadian Marketing Association; (MacLaverty, McQuillan, & Oddie, 2007). Since 1980s when firms identified the financial value of brands, branding became of a great interest to researchers (De Chernatony, 1999). Authors such as (Keller, 2008; Reichheld, 2001) identified brand as per its various emotional and rational dimensions. There has been a shift in the branding literature from brand image to brand identity by looking inside the organisation (Kapferer, 1997).

The marketing literature reports that most significant studies on branding were carried out by Aaker (1991; 1995; 2000), Kapferer (1992; 1999; 2001; 2004) and Keller (1993; 1998; 2001; 2003). Similar products which widely differ in qualities are being offered by numerous companies that demand the objectives of major differentiation tool in the markets and a reducer of risk for the customers' decision regarding their purchase. One such differentiation tool as defined by Balmer and Gray (2003), is the brand. Grönroos (2007) and Flyvbjerg (2006) state the objective of reducing the risk to be very important in more frequently happening situations where the inspection of the product by the customers is not possible.

Internal marketing has been proposed as a suitable tool for communicating internal branding within an organisation by creating successful relationships with employees (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, & Crothers, 2002; George, 1990). It uses the same marketing tools used for an organisation external brand image, internally with its employees (Green, Walls & Schrest, 1994; Mulhern & Whalen, 2006) mainly the communication practices to highly motivate employees making them customer centric (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1993). Being a sub-field of internal marketing as stated by (Gronroos, 2000; Bergstrom, Blumenthal, & Crothers, 2002; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Mahnert & Torres, 2007) internal branding requires employees' understanding and acceptance of marketing programs and efforts that can be seen as type of management strategy that develops the organisation (Gronroos, 2000).

Bergstrom, et al., (2002) and Burmann and Zeplin, (2005) defined the internal branding as a concept which combines the human resources and the disciplines of marketing. It includes three major things; communicating the brand to the employees; convincing employees of the brand worth; and effectively link and integrate every job within the organisation to deliver the brand value (Bergstrom, Blumenthal & Crothers, 2002). The effective management of employee's experiences within organisations facilitate the management of customer experiences and their perceptions towards the brand (Mahnert & Torres, 2007; King & Grace, 2008).

Internal branding is identified as a driver of organisational success and employee satisfaction (King & Grace, 2008). Internal branding aligns internal organisational processes and culture; so, they are parallel with the brand (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007; Punjaisri, et al., 2009). Effective internal branding through employees is only accomplished when human resources, marketing, and management are strategically aligned (Rao & Dewar, 2005; Burmann, Zeplin & Riley, 2009). For organizations to be able to compete globally, internal branding is said to have significant impact in achieving that (Raj, 2015).

Mahnert and Torres (2007) specify that internal branding is a tool of internal marketing, which consists of activities that an organisation employs to buy-in internal customers (employees) and its core objective is to gain significant competitive advantage not by marketing the product/service or organisation brand in the marketplace, but rather by marketing the brand to internal customers. Holmgren, Schori & Wingard (2003) see internal branding as a group of strategic processes which empower and align employees to deliver the appropriate experience to the customers in a consistent manner (Holmgren, Schori & Wingard, 2003). While Arruda (2001) states that internal branding is a communication plan which provides support to the organisation brand by ensuring every employee fully understands the brand and can be able to express it while living the brand identity. Another definition by Berry & Parasuraman (1991) is that internal branding communicates and sells the brand to employees by engaging them in the organisation brand strategy, training them on brand strengthening behaviors, recognizing and rewarding them (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991).

A broader prospect of internal branding, proposed by (MacLaverty et al., 2007) who categorized the concept into seven groups: i) Leadership practices, ii) Recruitment practices, iii) Training support, iv) Internal communication, v) Reward and recognition, vi) Sustainability factors, and vii) Others relate. Internal branding is also considered as an engagement tool that helps employees deliver the brand promise (Punjaisri, Wilson, & Evanschitzky, 2008; Sartain & Schumann, 2006) with a competitive advantage (O 'Reilly III & Pfeffer, 2000).

1.3 Research Field Context

Abu Dhabi Government has taken on measurable steps towards the economy diversification with major focus on long-term comprehensive economic plans, such as the Policy Agenda and the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 to create a prominent position and to position itself among the world's best governments. Achieving this ambitious goal, it needs highly competitive performing departments in terms of customer centricity, service quality, and customer satisfaction. Lately there has been a continuous emphasis on the Abu Dhabi Government's departments to improve their operations and services, and they began to develop on the grounds of professionalism. As for local government departments within Abu Dhabi context, which follow same policies and procedures, the internal branding approach is not yet commonly implemented; so, it could introduce a significant opportunity for the departments to be more competitive and help adds insight to the government sector.

On raising the cultural level of competitiveness, performance and hence recommend future studies to tackle other variables or moderators which may develop through. Accordingly, the focus of this research and the field of this study is on one government department, which is Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development. The Department aims to achieve sustainable economic development in the emirate through the adoption of the knowledge based economy principles and organizing business and economic affairs to propose policies and relevant legislation, as well as preparing plans and development programs using best practices of economy and human resources to recruit the best use of technology and global expertise in this area (DED, 2015). In DED where customer satisfaction, customer orientation and service quality are critical factors for its success, yet the department culture needs to be developed and enhanced further to meet its mandate requirements, its aims and objectives, and the emirate's ambition.

The Department is going through challenges that may act as barriers in creating high performing culture and these are: i) Less focus on internal customer orientation, ii) Low job satisfaction, iii) Lack of interdepartmental connectedness, and iv) The quality of the provided services. Thus, this research seeks to tackle these issues and highlight the importance of internal branding in developing a conceptual model that integrates antecedents which might contribute to internal branding and its consequences. The following section thoroughly discusses the research context history, background and the department's background, strategical context, and research problem.

1.3.1 Abu Dhabi Government Context

Over the past 40 years, Abu Dhabi has witnessed dramatically rapid growth to become an important economic hub. Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan wisely left a legacy of investment of the Emirates' income from oil and gas in the development and benefit of the UAE and its people. Abu Dhabi, the capital of the UAE and the largest of the emirates has 87% of the country's total area and a population of about 34% of the whole. More than 50% of all its citizens are nationals. It also contributes more than 60% of the total output GDP of UAE and more than 90% of the country's total oil. (Figure 1) projects the emirate's target non-oil revenue until 2030 (Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030). Having reached significant improvements in terms of living standards, Abu Dhabi's government seeks to move the emirate to a knowledge-based economy with industries such as aviation, aerospace, pharmaceuticals, healthcare, equipment design and manufacturing. This requires dynamic individuals in both government and business to adopt new ideas and paradigms.

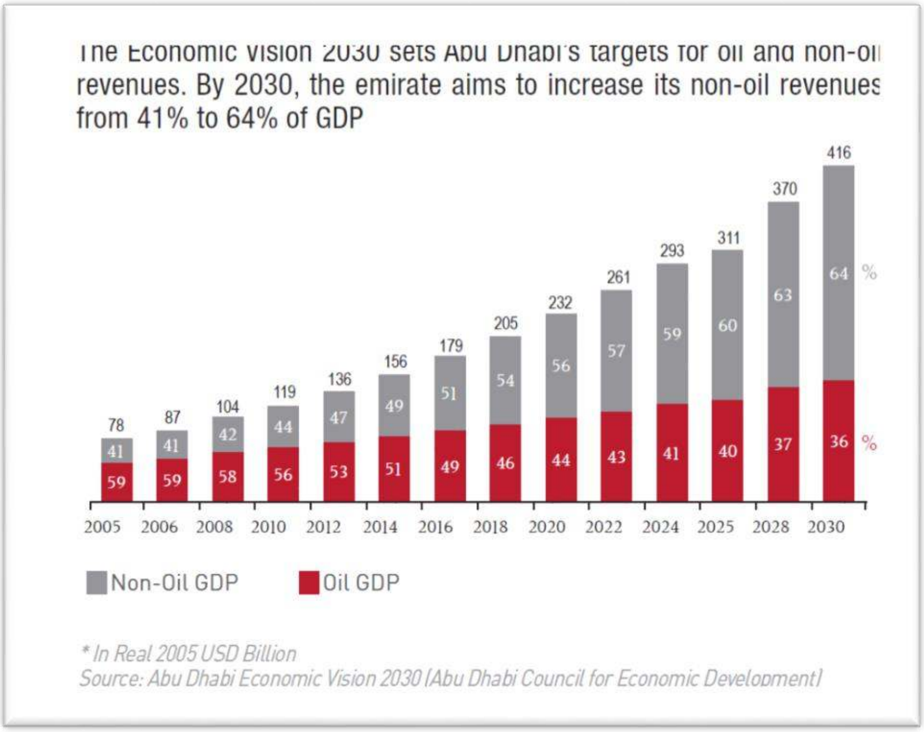

Figure 1: Abu Dhabi Target GDP 2005-2030

Existing policies and regulations were analysed and compared to those in the world's most dynamic and competitive economies. Thus, seven economic policy priorities emerged for government entities such as for Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development (DED), the case setting of the present research, to:

1) Build an open, efficient, effective, and globally integrated business environment.
2) Adopt disciplined fiscal policies that are responsive to economic cycles.
3) Establish a resilient monetary and financial market environment with manageable levels of inflation.
4) Drive significant improvement in the efficiency of the labour market.
5) Develop a sufficient and resilient infrastructure capable of supporting anticipated economic growth.
6) Develop a highly skilled, highly productive workforce.

7) Enable financial markets to become the key financiers of economic sectors and projects.

The analysis and its results were presented in the “Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030” endorsed by Abu Dhabi’s leadership and shared with the public.

1.3.2 The Department of Economic Development Context

The DED was chosen as the field for the present research because it is well positioned to play an important role in translating the emirate’s economic agendas into reality. With Abu Dhabi’s 2030 economic vision aimed at gradually reducing its dependence on oil as a major source of economic activity. His Highness Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan issued Law No. (2) for the year 2009 on establishing an Economic Development Department, in which Article II of this Law replaces the Department of Planning and Economy. The department aims to achieve sustainable economic development in the emirate by choosing the right principles for a knowledge-based economy and organizing business and economic affairs through its policies and legislation as well as preparing plans and development programs using the best economic practices to make the best use of technology and global expertise in this area (DED, 2015). The DED can recommend changes in government policies and inspire the public and private sectors to embrace the Economic Vision 2030. With the right mandate and talent, the DED could be a major force driving the shift from an oil-based economy into a diversified, dynamic, and globally competitive economy.

The DED is the primary authority on decisions related to economic development and is currently gearing itself to play an important role in achieving the emirate economic vision 2030. A goal with such long-term consequences requires the organisation to build sustainability, put together robust processes, and mobilize the potential and strengths of all its people (DED, 2015).

1.3.2.1 Vision, Mission, Values and Objectives

The DED has envisioned itself contributing to the sustainable economic development of the Emirates of Abu Dhabi as a stakeholder oriented entity. Its mission is: i) to make successful agenda for the Abu Dhabi government, ii) to enhance the competitive ability of Abu Dhabi, iii) to make Abu Dhabi a sustainable, diversified and knowledge-based economy, and iv) to ensure the prosperity of the people and economy of Abu Dhabi (DED, 2015). The DED believes in values such as leadership ability, effective communication, balance, and accountability and its objectives are:

1) To propose and form the commercial and economic policies of the emirate.
2) To expedite human resources optimization and retain the exploitation of material capabilities.
3) To implement procedures and policies which contribute in the emirate’s economic growth and to specify priorities and trends.
4) To determine the department activity fields to create a distinguished centre at the global, regional, and local level.
5) To create attractive environment in which foreign and national investors improve the investment climate of the emirate.

The DED circuit is carried out through segments according to the organisational chart shown in Figure.2 with a focus on key operational tasks in a manner consistent with the best practices in this regard, so as to gain access to the appropriate operating modelmanaging seven sectors with an under-secretary (the General Manager);

planning and statistics, corporate support, commercial affairs, international economic affairs, policies, regulation, and support services (DED, 2015).

Figure 2: The DED's Current Organizational Chart

The DED follows the civil services law (Abu Dhabi Government Human Resources Law) in all its Human Resources policies and procedures. Table 1 shows the DED Manpower Statistics as of Quarter 1 of 2016.

Table 1: The DED Manpower Statistics as of Q1, 2016

Category	Numbers
Total Number of Employees	623
Female Employees	270
Male Employees	353
Emiratization	94%

The DED is going through a transformation stage to best structure itself to support its mandate of leading Abu Dhabi's ambitious goals. In developing the strategic plan, major considerations are included, mainly the needs of internal and external stakeholders such as the international and local business community, the public, strategic agents, suppliers, and employees. Hence, the DED follows specific methodologies including those for improving departmental strategy and rewriting the vision, mission, and values and reviewing and evaluating them. It does the same through the relevant operational indicators. Table 2 presents the DED Stakeholders along with the required needs and nature of their engagement (Source: DED Strategic Plan 2012-2016).

Table 2: The DED Stakeholders

Key Stake holders	Stakeholders' Needs	Nature of Engagement
Abu Dhabi Council for Economic Development	• Develop policies & regulations to support private sector. • Coordinate the strategies of the two entities. • Coordinate efforts to develop some shared initiatives.	Partnership in and development of joint initiatives
	• Develop policies & regulations to support the SME sector. • Cooperation in the	Partnership in and

Khalifa Fund	commercial licensing process. • Cooperate and coordinate efforts to develop the 5-year economic plan, to assess its impact on the SME sector.	development of joint initiatives.
Higher Corporation for Specialized Economic Zones	• Develop policies & regulations to support the manufacturing sector and to regulate the economic zones. • Cooperation in the commercial licensing process to license industrial establishments.	Partnership in and development of joint initiatives.
Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce and Industry	• Develop policies and regulations to support the private sector. • Coordinate the strategies of the two entities. • Coordinate efforts to develop some shared initiatives.	Partnership in and development of joint initiatives.
Citizens	• Reduce the Emirati unemployment rate. • Increase Emirati participation in the private sector. • Empower the role of women in the workforce. • Promote the best interests of the Abu Dhabi consumers through appropriate consumer rights protection and codes of practice.	Equip the Emirate`s young people to enter the workforce, maximize the participation of women nationals in the workforce, attract and retain skilled workers and stimulate faster economic growth in the regions.
Local Businesses	• Promote the overall "ease of doing business" in Abu Dhabi. • Exceed the expectations of business support provision. • Ensure the provision of accurate information, valuable advice and legal assistance and export promotion.	Listen to feedback from the Abu Dhabi business community and international businesses looking to invest in Abu Dhabi – perhaps through an International Investors Community. Engage in trade license issuing and the enforcement of contracts

It is also important to mention that the DED has made efforts to follow the Abu Dhabi Government's Excellence Award measures, which are derived from the European organisational excellence. The criteria measures cover such areas as: i) Leadership, ii) Strategy, iii) Staff, iv) Partnerships and Resources, v) Processes and Services, vi) Stakeholders Results and Feedback, vii) Staff Results and Feedback, viii) Society Results and Feedback, and ix) Major Processes Results & Feedback. In this regard, the DED adopted concepts of excellence to improve performance levels as well as to enhance employees' capabilities when using current resources. Certain improvement processes have been developed such as organisational self-evaluation, and simplify the services and processes which were mentioned in the excellence award feedback reports. RADAR, which stands for Results, Approach, Deploy, Assess & Refine, is an assessment framework and one of the most important evaluation tools used in the DED; the above criteria measures are evaluated through it. This allows correction before spreading an organisational excellence culture across the DED. Yet in DED, where customer satisfaction is critical, is currently going through improvement stage towards enhancing both customer and employee satisfaction.

1.4 Research Objectives and Questions

As per the previous discussion, the aim of this research is to highlight the importance of internal branding and to develop a theoretical framework model that integrates specific antecedents which contribute to internal branding and consequences with the following main Objectives:

1) To identify antecedents (factors) that lead to internal branding.
2) To find out consequences of internal branding.

3) To develop and clarify a conceptual model integrating antecedents, internal branding and consequences.
4) To specify and test hypothesized relationships derived from the conceptual framework.

Hence, to reach the above objectives, the following questions are addressed:

1) What is the current level of internal branding within Abu Dhabi government departments?
2) What are the antecedents that lead to creating successful internal branding?
3) What are the results and consequences of creating a successful internal branding?

1.5 Research Contribution

Existing studies on the role of internal branding in creating a competitive organisational culture by considering antecedents that enable internal branding and consequences that arise generally do not exist, nor within UAE context. Hence, this research is expected to add a high value for the internal branding context in general expanding its knowledge beyond the western school of thoughts. And for Abu Dhabi government department context in specific as the study is about a non-western government culture. As mentioned previously, this new approach and concept is not yet common in Abu Dhabi government departments, therefore the study would be a significant generalizing opportunity incorporating more helpful insight in building the role of internal branding in creating a competitive organisational culture for Abu Dhabi department of economy development, and for interested government entities seeking a competitive added value for government employees.

The major Significance of this research is that, this research would present a practical solution to challenges facing Abu Dhabi department of economic development; by proposing a framework that could be adopted by other government departments in Abu Dhabi as well as the Executive Council of Abu Dhabi government and Abu Dhabi Civil Services Department which are the monitoring and controlling bodies of local government departments. This research might also suggest further strategies to handle other moderators or variables and promote the growth of the organisation by engaging employees to reach organisational goals.

1.6 Research Outline

This research is categorized into a number of influential chapters that are discussed starting with:

- **Chapter 1 – Introduction**

This chapter discusses the overall outline of this dissertation. It is categorized into sections which include the theoretical background of the research, the study context, the research objectives and questions, and the contributions.

- **Chapter 2 - Literature Review**

This chapter discusses the relevant existing knowledge from journal articles, previous research papers and scholarly references with a major critique focus on theoretical and methodological concepts of internal branding starting with history, definitions, importance, relevant theories, concerned antecedents, variables, constructs and consequences as per the research suggested model as well as tools and techniques to promote internal branding.

- **Chapter 3 – Methodology**

This chapter addresses the operationalization and scale measures, research methodology process, research strategies, research design and methods. In addition to presenting the present study chosen methodology, research design, data collection, sample and fieldwork stages.

- **Chapter 4 - Results and Analysis**

This chapter discusses the analysis of the preliminary research findings, the descriptive analysis of the data, the purification and computation processes of the measuring constructs and the analysis of the reliability and the validity of the research measures.

- **Chapter 5 - Discussion**

This chapter highlights the key research findings resulting from the descriptive analysis, stating interpretations and opinions, and discussing the research answers to the preliminary questions in light of the hypothesis expectations as well as the topic previous literature and existing knowledge.

- **Chapter 6 – Conclusion**

This is the final chapter which presents an overview concluding the dissertation with the contribution of the study, highlighting its practical and theoretical implications. It also draws attention to the study's limitations and recommends suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the literature review discusses relevant existing knowledge from journal articles, previous research papers and scholarly references with a major critique focus on theoretical and methodological concepts of internal branding starting with history, definitions, importance, relevant theories, concerned antecedents, variables, constructs and consequences as per the suggested research model as well as tools and techniques to promote internal branding. Through this section, the model acts as a guide to identify related variables, different measured constructs (Multi-dimensional or sub-constructed) and items from questionnaires, towards hypothesis creation and questionnaire design.

2.2 Internal Branding Definitions and Importance

As researchers started realizing the importance of internal branding for organisations; a number of studies were carried out in depth (see for example: Aurand, Gorchels, & Bishop, 2005; Balmer, Powell, Punjaisri, & Wilson, 2011; Baron et al., 2009; Bergstrom et al., 2002; Devasagayam, Buff, Aurand, & Judson, 2010; Foster, Punjaisri, & Cheng, 2010; Goodman, Sharma, & Kamalanabhan, 2012; K. E. Mahnert & Torres, 2007; Menon, Jaworski, & Kohli, 1997; Mueller & Schade, 2012; Podnar & Golob, 2010; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2010; Ind, 2003; Mitchell, 2002; Jacobs, 2003; Tosti and Stotz, 2001; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006).

Of the studies conducted on internal branding, a major focus has been done on service-based organisations (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007; Punjaisri, Wilson, & Evanschitzky, 2008; Tuominen, Hirvonen, Reijonen, & Laukkanen, 2016; Erkmen& Hancer, 2015); Higher Education Sector (Asaad, & Gupta, 2016); Hotel and Tourism

Industry (Terglav, Ruzzier, & Kaše, 2016; Punjasiri & Wilson, 2007; Bowen, 1997); Industrial Sector (Biedenbach & Manzhynski, 2016); Public Sector (Sharma & Kamalanabhan, 2012); Banking (Chebat et al., 2002; Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006; De Chernatony & Cottam, 2006; Healthcare Industry (Almgren, Ek, & Göransson, 2012; Gapp & Merrilees, 2006) Non-profitable Charities (Hankinson, 2004). For example; Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) study sought to identify the internal branding role and impact on employee brand promise delivery. Devasagayam et al. (2010) study was to propose and test the appropriate factors of the brand community within the internal branding framework.

Scheys and Baert (2008) researched how employees in service organisations adapt their attitudes and behavior after the brand change. Almgren, Ek, & Göransson (2012) discussed the relationship between internal branding and affective commitment. They stated that service organisations require certain attributes to remain competitive and concluded that brand oriented recruitment; training and leadership have a positive and significant impact on the communication and affective commitment of the employees. (Gummesson, 1991; Holmgren, Schori and Wingard, 2003) investigated if internal branding makes employees live the brand by creating a process model aligned with business strategy to be used by the organisation.

The study proposed a framework which constitutes of phases such as initial work, vision and value creation, adapting, following and finally evaluating. Concluding that internal branding makes employees live the brand. Blumenthal (2001) studied how internal branding impacts employee's quality of life. The aim of the study was to reveal the misconception of internal branding and its actual value in organisations. Summarizing that internal branding is not about confirming the quality of employees' life but rather improves the quality of their life by focusing on the 5C's factors which are compensation, culture, communications, commitment and clarity.

Companies such as Southwest, Sears, IBM and McDonald have well recognized internal branding clearly reflecting it on an informed workforce committed to the brand promise (Boone, 2000). Drake et al. (2005) claim that internal branding can be created through the practice of internal marketing (IM). Ahmed et al., (2002); Gummesson, (1991); and Tansuhaj, Randall, & McCullough, (1991) suggestions on IM mix also support recent studies on internal branding that posit the link between HR and Corporate Communication disciplines for successful achievement of internal branding (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007; Vallaster & De Chernatony, 2003).

Almgren, Ek & Goransson (2012) see internal branding as the greatest untapped opportunity of communications and marketing for organisations and their brands but companies hardly recognize its importance and they mostly underestimate this process due to various reasons mainly because of their tendency to be outward directed; and their only aim is to sell more products and to acquire more profit. Thus their focus always is single minded which stays on the customers in order to accomplish their goals by finding, converting and cultivating them (Yin, 2003). Even non-profit organisations focus externally in providing support and services to stakeholders and customers (Almgren et al., 2012).

2.3 Internal Branding Impact on Organisational Culture

As per Balmer et al., (2006), a culture represents and reflects the internal and external interactions of an organisation. Backhaus & Tikoo, (2004); Wilkins and Ouchi, (1983); Janicijevic (2011) define organisational culture as activities, assumptions, shared values, beliefs, norms and attitudes developed and adopted within organisations; which use their cultures to drive better performance; and hence influence other organisational and management components. The culture theory reveals that each organisation has its unique culture (Hatch, 1993; Schein, 1995).

Based on that, organisations plan strategies, design structure, shape their leadership style and define employees' motives and needs. Therefore, different types of organisational culture imply different strategies, structure, systems and leadership styles (Janicijevic, 2011). The goal of internal marketing, also known as internal branding, is to develop a workforce that is committed to the set of values and organisational goals established by the firm (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Internal branding carries the brand "promise" made to recruits into the organisation and incorporates it as part of its culture (Frook, 2001). It requires employees to share vision, values and brand promise into their daily tasks (Reid, Luxton, & Mavondo, 2005; Pringle & Thompson, 2001; Urde, 1994, 1999; Baumgarth, 2010; L. De Chernatony, 2001).

Internal branding has to do with cultural change and requires effective alignment of internal functions such as marketing and HR (Aurand et. al, 2005). Therefore, related studies emphasized that culture is a major element in this process (Mitchell, 2002; Tosti & Stotz, 2001; Hankinson, 2001; Napoli, 2006; Morgan, 2012; O'Cass & Voola, 2011). L. De Chernatony, (1999) and Rubinstein, (1996) claim that recent academic work on branding emphasized the importance of approaching internal employees for organisations success in the market and thus values and organisational culture are critical elements (Rubinstein, 1996). Not only this but considering branding as an integrated business process across functions.

Almgren et al., (2012) and Morsing (2006) points out that a strong organisational culture is needed since it could enable to consistently commit and motivate the employees for performing branding operations. Companies which develop a successful internal brand as mentioned by King and Grace (2005) create an organisational culture that boosts all organisational levels to be involved in the branding operations, as the corporate strategy message and performance must be constant to the employees in order to effectively interact with the customers and external stakeholders. Further, Leberecht (2004) illustrated that employees have to fully perceive the brand value and internalize these values to the extent that they are aligned and involved to perform them. King and Grace (2005) claim that by motivating employees to always understand the values of corporate brand promise to all the employees, this would result in greater recognition to employee satisfaction (Leberecht, 2004; King & Grace, 2005).

However, Morrison (1994) believes that most organisations do not consider internal branding as a serious concept given that it is not characterized in one single area or function but rather it is cross-functional linking a number of departments such as marketing, communications, public relations, training, HR, customer operations, etc. (Morrison, 1994). This ensures that there is a lack of necessary internal champions to promote internal branding which leads to ultimate confusion in action (Somers, 1995). Therefore, internal branding is certainly a multi- disciplinary and a multi-departmental function that is more significant for the organisation and its brand success (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, Bravo, 2007).

According to Almgren et al., (2012), internal branding is said to develop organisational culture which in turn contributes to the business. And culture has a high impact on internal branding as cultural change might be necessary within an organisation if the existing culture fails to provide much support to internal branding programs (Mahnert & Torres, 2007). The organisational culture plays an effective role as a social tool to motivate employees and influence their behavior turning it into a positive alignment of values (L. De Chernatony, 2002; Dowling, 1994).

2.4 Internal Branding Success and Failure Factors and Outcomes

A review of the relevant marketing literature, suggested different enablers and antecedents of internal branding which have been covered by Authors such as (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, & Crothers, 2002; Conduit & Mavondo, 2001; Mahnert & Torres, 2007; Pitt & Foreman, 1999; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2010). Punjaisri & Wilson (2010) focused on brand commitment in particular, Conduit & Mavondo (2001) investigated internal customer orientation, Bergstrom et al., (2002) studied culture, commitment, coordination, communication, and compensation, which they also proved, are of high value in internal branding. Internal branding helps in developing commitment amongst employees by considering various aspects of the brand, using different marketing strategies such as brand building exercises (Kleinbaum, Stuart, & Tushman, 2008), and dedicated brand building teams in the organisation (Anosike & Eid, 2011).

It is specified that in view of high competition in the global marketplace, many destinations have turned their focus towards branding. It was found that one of the most important mediators in improving the brand competitiveness is the effectiveness of leadership by the senior management. Further dimensions of brand orientation were identified to be departmental coordination, brand culture, brand communication, brand reality and stakeholder partnership. The role of a leader is highly effective in mediating the relationship between these variables, and making the branding process an effective one (Mahnert & Torres, 2007; Hankinson, 2012).

Another finding by (Menon et al., 1997) on organisational structure, reward system, and structural issues where the authors found that the relationship between these factors appears to be very strong. The reward system should be adopted by recognizing employees who work on improving innovative quality of product. Additionally, the authors suggest that employees at the lower level of the organisation should be empowered to take decisions and this has proved to help reducing conflicts in an organisation and also improves interdepartmental connectedness (Menon et al., 1997).

Internal branding consistency also depends on management's support and smooth integration between marketing and human resources functions (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2003; Mulhern & Whalen, 2004, 2006; Mahnert & Torres, 2007). Some studies on internal branding discussed related factors of success and failures; such as Mahnert & Torres, (2007) who identified 25 key factors that are expected to play an important role in internal branding, across seven dimensions, mentioned below; and their framework includes three stages starting from planning to implementing and evaluating the internal branding process.

1) Organisation: Consists of structure, culture, narrow thinking and internal competition within an organisation. Such factors are difficult to change or modify, especially in a very large sized organisation, where the structure is complex and the culture is well inscribed in employees. Therefore, managing change in such organisations can be a major issue. However culture particularly

has a high impact on the success or failure of internal branding (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

2) Information: Covers market research, measurement, feedback and specific knowledge of the brand. In general, internal and external information should be known. Market research is of much use in this case, as market research helps in gaining knowledge and understanding the external environment of the organisation (i.e. the state of the market and its related dynamics). Measurement and feedback are also important factors as measurement refers to measuring target performance; while feedback refers to collected feedback on performance. Feedbacks are crucial as they allow management to evaluate the effectiveness of internal branding and thus make any necessary changes (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

3) Management: Includes; leadership support, communication, and brand teams. This dimension basically deals with the support of the management (i.e. the support that mangers provide to the internal branding program). Leadership support and its effectiveness are important to internal branding. The role of brand teams can be understood as the internal branding teams in the firm, whose main aim is to make sure that branding is successfully implemented and employees are adhering to the internal branding concepts. If the brand teams are effective in propagating the effect of internal branding then the chances are very high that internal branding would be successful and will remain that way but, in case, branding is not successfully marketed by the branding teams then the chances are high that the internal branding process would be a failure (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

4) Communication: Factors in this dimension include; multi-dimensional communication, alignment of internal and external messages, formality of messages, adaption, constancy and internal confusion. This dimension refers to the information that should be made available to everyone in the organisation. Communication should be maintained in such a way that it does not expose individuals to too much information or too less information and that is mainly the criteria for having successful communication. Alignment of messages are of increased importance, as if the distinction can be maintained between internal messages and external messages, then internal stakeholders (i.e. employees would be able to grasp the actual meaning of the message). Efficient communication could only be fostered, if the reinforcement is maintained in message delivery and if messages are adapted both internally and externally (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

5) Strategy: Consists of; alignment of the business objectives and the brand, budget and timing. In general, for successful execution of internal branding, it is important that there is a proper alignment between strategies and programs employed by the organisation. There should also be alignment between internal and external brands and between the objectives of the organisation. If the organisational strategy is not in accordance with the goals and objectives of the brand, then chances are high that there would be an issue in brand alignment, as strategy is an integral part of the organisation and should be aligned with the organisation's view on internal brand. Further, scheduling, timing and budgeting are other factors in strategy dimension and they are of increased importance. Having a schedule of when to promote branding the most and

when to lessen the intensity of promotion is also part of a major strategy formulation (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

6) Staff: Includes participation and support of employees, recruitment of new employees, remuneration and segmentation. Staff is also one of the major dimensions of internal branding, firms could adopt strategies of recruiting, rewarding and motivating employees and each of these can have positive aspects on internal branding among employees. As staff are the major customers of internal branding, their role is of increased importance and their involvement ensures that they are buying-in the brand and adopting it. A segmentation of internal customers might also be necessary, as segmentation of the target audience helps in devising strategies on the basis of the particular target audience (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

7) Education: The final dimension, consists of guidance, legitimacy, acceptance and mental models. Within this dimension, employees must be educated so that they would understand the underlying dynamics of internal branding. Education relates to building mental models and inscribing an attitude among employees that would enable them to properly formulate a coherent view of the internal branding process. Education is also important because if the internal customer would not be educated then the chances are high that they would not be able to understand the underlying objectives behind internal branding (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

Another three fundamental factors of success of internal branding implementation and strategy; are confidence or pride; recognition or reward and consistency. Confidence or pride refers to prompting and sustaining employees' confidence within the organisation; while recognition or reward refers to providing an appropriate system for recognizing and rewarding employees in connection to the brand promise while consistency refers to maintaining consistency in the practices of supporting practices of human resources over time (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005). According to Caruana (1999) and Berry (2000), these three fundamental factors are said to be grouped together as a single concept called the employee engagement.

Successful internal branding facilitates employee work assignments, contributions, and motivate them leading to job satisfaction (Caruana, 1999). Therefore, organisations continuously focus on internal branding to ensure employees engagement in organisational strategy and culture (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Chong, 2007; Forman & Argenti, 2005). Webster (1992) argues that employees need a theme on which they can build and direct their behaviors so these are aligned with customers' and organisation's expectations. If such a theme is absent, then employees might struggle not knowing their energy directions (Webster, 1992; Berry et al., 1990).

Although, the literature lacks research on antecedents of internal branding and outcomes, but some researchers have proposed internal communication as an instrument in implementing internal branding successfully (Chong, 2007; Machtiger, 2004; Grof, 2001). Other researchers identified elements of internal marketing such as (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2000; Podnar & Golob, 2010) and these are:

a) Motivation and satisfaction of employees.

b) Customer satisfaction and customer orientation.

c) Inter-functional integration and inter-functional coordination.

d) Marketing approach for internal customers' management and implementation of corporate and functional strategies that is particular to internal branding.

Machtiger (2004) considers depending on internal communications only is a drawback in internal branding. He claims that internal branding needs an integrated framework between management, marketing and human resources. HR plays a vital role as it is responsible for developing employees' capabilities and hence enhance the overall organisational performance (Pfeffer, 1998; Browning, 1998; Gronroos, 1978; Berry, 1981; Browning, 1998; de Chernatony & Harris, 2000; Anosike & Eid, 2011; Zerbe, et al., 1998). Also, perceived lack of measurability is stated to be a higher obstacle while adopting internal branding programs. Organisations need to establish clear metrics and clear goals, to ensure that every employee of the organisation agrees to them (Boyd & Sutherland, 2006; Flick, 2009).

Accordingly, efforts made by organisations in value understanding, value creation and enhancement, is what make customers attracted to this organisation and hence increase its competitive advantage (Gadrey & Gallouj, 1998; Wikstrom, 1996; Gummesson, 1997; Varey, 1995). Organisations are required to understand and satisfy customers' needs, develop customer orientation culture where superior value is provided; and ultimately this will drive high performance (Porter, 1985). Moreover, employees' behavior and attitudes affect consumers (Vella, Gountas, & Walker, 2009) and their perception (King & Grace, 2008).

Anosike and Eid (2011); Barclay, 1991; Bergstrom et al., 2002; Kleinbaum et al. (2008); Lee (2005); K. E. Mahnert and Torres (2007); Podnar and Golob (2010); Punjaisri and Wilson (2010) suggest that the productivity of an organisation can be improved through the use of internal marketing approaches drawn from the literature, such as customer orientation, internal customer orientation, interdepartmental connectedness, interdepartmental conflict, internal service quality and internal branding.

2.5 Existing Theories & Tools Promoting Internal Branding

Through the development of brand management literature, theorists such as (L. De Chernatony, 1999, 2001; Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001; Hutchinson, 2001; Ind, 2001; Fill, 2002; Farrell, 2002) have put great emphasis in discussing internal branding. Consequently, a number of theories have been used in internal branding literature as numbered below and the three most common of them, are discussed thoroughly in the following sub-sections.

1) The Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1959,1969; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987;Turner & Oakes, 1986; Hogg & Abrams 1988; Turner 1982; Tajfel & Turner 1979);
2) The Brand Oriented Company (Urde, 1994).
3) The Internal Brand building (de Chernatony, 2001; Keller, 1999; LePla & Parker, 1999; Macrae, 1996; Mitchell, 2002; Tosti & Stotz, 2001).
4) The Grounded Theory Ethnography (Glaser & Strauss, 1994; Goulding, 2006; Swanson & Holton, 2005; Charmaz, 2006).
5) The Resource Based View (Armstrong & Baron, 2002).

2.5.1 The Social Identity Theory

A theory used to identify customers behaviour as they are part of a social group (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001; Kane, Argote, & Levine, 2005). The original work on the Social Identity Theory was by Tajfel (1959,1969) and later developed by (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987;Turner & Oakes, 1986; Hogg & Abrams 1988; Turner 1982; Tajfel & Turner 1979). The Social Identity Theory is defined as a social theory that describes group and intergroup relations and processes emphasizing on multi-faceted relationship between individual behaviour and social context. Within Social Identity Theory, people bring about their self-concept by being involved in social groups (Tajfel, 1982). They are categorized into different social classifications, such as organisational membership, religious affiliation, age and gender (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). And hence different individuals follow different classifications (Turner, 1985).

The social classification provides the social aspect where individuals define their identities, oneness characteristics (traits, interests, attributes, abilities) in a systematic meaning in a social environment or human aggregate (Stryker & Serpe, 1982, Turner, 1982). Organisations are defined as classified work groups in a set of integrated relational networks diciplin with specified differences. The identities of individuals within these groups are derived from being members within and they may differ as per age, gender, ethnicity or nationality. Based on the social psychology literature, a strong interest has appreared among scholars, in the past 20 years, on researching self concepts and behavior context within groups dynamics and processes (see for example; Hogg & Abrams, 1999; Moreland et al. 1994; Abrams & Hogg, 1998; Hogg & Moreland, 1993). All of which facilitated the development of the social identity theory and self-categorization theory. In mid 1997, psychLit was searched for the social identity phenomena and the result was around 550 publications since 1991 (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

The Social Identity Theory focuses on intergroup behavior such as cooperation, social change and conflict (Hogg et al. 1995; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, et al., 2002). As described by Tajfel (1981) the social identity theory is "that part of the individual's self-concept which derives from knowledge of their membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership". On the other hand, the Social Identity Approach is successfully used to express different types of internal group behaviors within organisations (Hogg & Terry 2000; Haslam, 2004).

This approach includes two major theories; the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner 1979) and the self-categorization theory (Turner, 1985). The social identity theory is a multifaceted perspective or framework that focuses on influential integration of psychological group belonging, and behaviors of the group with it. A key variable within this theory, is Organisational Identification which connects behavior of individuals to organisational values represented by customer orientation (Bhattacharya & Sen 2003).

Organisational identification has long been recognized as a critical construct in the literature on organisational behavior, affecting both the satisfaction of the individual and the effectiveness of the organisation (Brown, 1969; Hall et al., 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Haslam et al. (2003) defines organisational identification as when "people engage in a process of self-stereotyping whereby their behavior is oriented towards, and structured by, the content of that group's or organisation's defining characteristics, norms and values, resulting in the internalization of a particular organisational identity". The Social Identity Approach suggests that managers must act as role models and perceive values of orientation in the first place and then communicate these to their employees and so orientation commitment and customer oriented behavior is then derived and reflected by employees (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Stock & Hoyer 2002).

The social identity theory assumes that individuals' self-identity within a social group, is largely impacted by the group members' values, norms and responsibilities, and therefore, the individuals' self-concept is not driven by their uniqueness or interests but rather by their group belonging. This means that as employees clearly and strongly identify norms and characteristics of their organisation, they are more likely to engage their attitudes and behavior constantly and act as per their organisation identity. Organisational identification is said to motivate and satisfy core human needs (e.g., affiliation & belonging; Pratt 1998).

However, empirical studies claim that organisational identification contradicts some specific constructs such as commitment behaviours. Social identity theory helps organisation identify behaviour and facilitate transformational leadership where managers can refer to specific constructs or variables such as satisfaction (Bass 1985). Theorists comment that the synergy within organisation's identity is a problem, although management representation is directed toward influencing this identity (Pondy et al., 1983). Managers believe that a positive organisational identity encourages recognition and loyalty of members and stakeholders (Martin et al., 1983).

Wieseke et al., (2007) discussed the Heuristic Model Figure (3) which shows that organisational identity aspects decide to what degree organisational identification transfers into/and represents customer orientation. The literature claims that many modern service organisations especially those seeking high quality services delivered to their customers; embody customer orientation within their identities which means that organisational identification has a direct impact on customer orientation. As by Reicher et al. (2005), leaders are “entrepreneurs of identity” and can positively influence and reinforce employees’ perceptions of organisational identity. Managers of small service organisations are considered the bone of internal customer orientation. Their behaviours are critical to service employees’ understanding and acceptance of organisational identity associated with customer orientation norms (Van Knippenberg & Hogg 2003), and the risk of unwanted norms is hence reduced.

Managers’ influence can act as a moderator effect on the relation between employees’ identity and customer orientation. The SIA posits that organisational identity which internalize behaviors of collective interests, may lead to customer orientation by motivating employees to incorporate and experience norms which include customer orientation (Dutton et al. 1994; Ellemers et al. 1997; Van Dick 2004; Ellemers et al. 2004). Accordingly, the distinctive motivational significance of Organisational Identity is derived from the “self-definitional” benefits of identification and acting on behalf of the organisation.

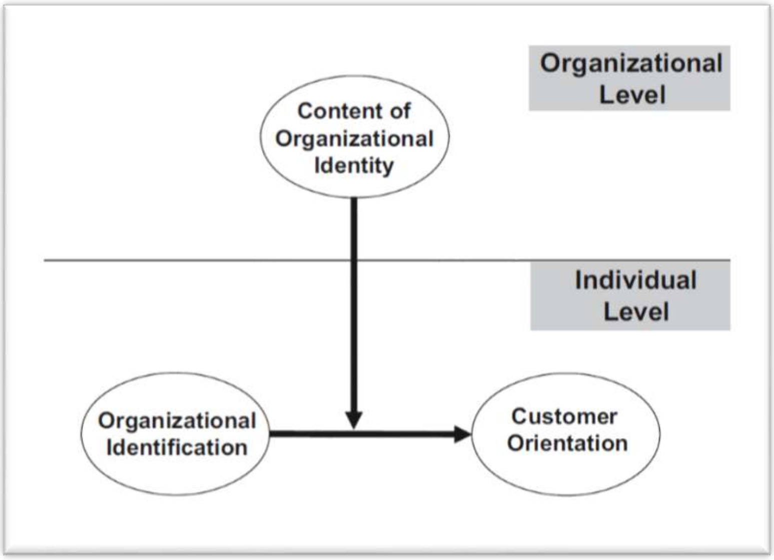

Figure 3: The Heuristic Model

Further, service organisations literature (see for example: Homburg & Stock 2005; Kelley 1992) emphasized on how customer orientation leads to customer satisfaction. Service organisations success is a result of customers and frontline employees' interaction. When customer orientation is identified and declared by agreeable manners, emotional intelligence, job resourcefulness and need for activity (Licata et al. 2003; Rozell et al. 2004; Brown et al. 2002); the social identity approach adds contribution to the customer orientation literature (Haslam, 2004). Previous studies on customer orientation's enablers other than the human resources formal tools such as training and incentives, found that customer orientation is a stable character of service employees as well as a result of work behaviour and social identity-based impact within organisational groups.

Therefore, customer orientation value should be well embodied within the unique elements of the organisation's identity and this should also be recognised by the concerned employees (Albert & Whetten 1985; Pratt 1998). Empirical research shows that customer orientation has a correlation with job satisfaction and commitment (Hartline & Ferrell 1996; Stock & Hoyer 2002; Hartline et al. 2000). On the other hand, conflicts which arise between departmental roles are usually influenced by the nature of the hierarchical domain which normally have a means-end chain. For example, an identified group work as (a department), is more important than intra-group differences or similarities and therefore the profile of the group work becomes lower than the higher identified organisation group (March & Simon, 1958).

Organisational socialisation is evaluated by a planned observation through symbolic management interactions or activities and social identities. Identification impacts individuals' internalisation of values and belonging to an organisation. Not only this but the identification techniques and processes used by leaders becomes the organisation's priority. The social identity theory focuses on specific means which reduces dis-functional interaction and improves positive differentiation. Identification is the concept of belonging to a group and the behaviour that an individual engages in or gain satisfaction from and which may serve to the group success or failure. It is linked to group's distinctiveness and can still exist and continue even when failure is likely. As per the organisational behaviour context, identification motivates newcomers to be committed to the organisation and easily endure its values and beliefs (Blake et al. 1989).

The Social Identity Theory (Brewer 1991; Tajfel & Turner 1985) agrees that people within this concept develop a social identity by classifying themselves as members of contextual manners-based categories (Kramer 1991) and they do not need to feel so attached to consider themselves group members (Brewer, 1991). Being the first to examine the role of "oneness or belongingness" of groups with organisations, Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that Organisational Identification appears when individuals' organisational perception becomes self-representing (Pratt 1998).

Recent Organisational Identification research report that in seeking identification, people may also appear in non-formal membership (Pratt 1998; Scott & Lane 2000) and this cause them to be psychologically attached to the organisation, and hence positively motivated to achieve organisational goals (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Further, in order to increase the level of employees' organisational identification, salience self-categories need to be raised which is considered an important process to achieve social power (Rehicher et al., 2005). Employee satisfaction's tools or actions come with varieties of identity-based aspects which create behavior and attitude (Van Knippenberg & Hogg 2003). Organisations interested in increasing their employees' job satisfaction may interpret the commonly used job characteristics model of (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

2.5.2 The Brand-Oriented Company

Is a theory proposed by (Urde, 1994) which implies linking brand building to the organisation's vision? It also focuses on brands as resources, strategic facets and concerns developing a brand identity along with a constant interaction of desirable objectives and targeted customers towards a competitive advantage. It is about creating value through company's' brands; by significantly transforming services and/or products into brands. A brand-oriented company requires creating, developing and protecting the brand identity while managing operations in a value adding way (Melin, 1997; Urde, 1994, 1997, 1999).

Brand orientation is the finding of case studies of practice such as DuPont, Nestlé, Tetra Pak, Nicorette, Volvo (Melin, 1997; Urde, 1997), and the empirical strategic brand management literature (see for example: Olins, 1978; Aaker, 1991; Kapferer, 2008; King, 1991). "Brand orientation is an approach in which the process of the organisation revolves around the creation, development, and protection of brand identity in an ongoing interaction with target customers with the aim of achieving lasting competitive advantages in the form of brands" (Urde, 1999). Brand Orientation defines the brand as resources within a strategic platform (Melin, 1997; Urde, 1994, 1997; Itami & Roehl, 1987).

The Brand-Oriented Company conceptual framework appears as a unity. An organisation management controls the communication and creates a brand vision while acting like a sender when delivering it and the receiver is the targeted group. Such messages usually include a variety of parts such as the corporate name, identity and positioning, all of which directed toward long-term goals. When the corporate name and identity become an integral part of brand, the coordination of the communication is particularly vital (King, 1991). Within this perspective, the brand vision is seen as a guiding star derived from the strategy which by itself should be well-defined and represent the organisation's uniqueness. The brand vision directs organisational efforts and energy towards its recognition (Murphy, 1990). In this regard, the management faces the challenge of consistently communicating an attractive image to the targeted group (Park et al. 1986).

The image of the brand-oriented company which is reflected by all its actions and its market value, is a result of its brand loyalty, perceived quality and positive affiliations with an added value (Aaker, 1991). A brand-oriented company seeks and delivers uniqueness within its brand. Its framework outlines the basis through a comprehensive communication mind-set and expands the operations context in terms of organizing and controlling, by focusing on critical strategic brand based goals (Hamel & Prahalad, 1989) while maintaining a stable total brand equity (Aaker, 1991). This concept requires formulating a vision based branding strategy to specify the relationship between corporate and brand name (Doyle, 1992). As well as utilizing marketing activities of communication and coordination on a constant basis towards improving the brand investment. Competence is core and required to pave the way towards successful brand orientation (Urde, 1994; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990).

Brand orientation is also defined as a specific corporate culture, an inside-out integrated concept combining three major levels in which values and identity interact influentially. These are: the brand (core values and promise), the organisation (work and behavior) and the stakeholders (customer values perception of the brand), (Hankinson, 2001; Reid, Luxton, & Mavondo, 2005; Simoes & Dibb, 2001). Organisations gain higher brand orientation when linking mission, vision and values (Collins & Porras, 1998; Urde, 2003) or vision, culture & image (Hatch & Schultz, 2001, 2008). Culture is the building block and vision is the magnet and image is the external element of the brand. All of which develops a strategic competitive advantage (Melin, 1997).

Balmer and Greyser (2003) point out that the emergence of corporate branding and its multiple identities contributed to brand orientation. As used by Baumgarth (2009, 2010), Schein's work on corporate culture describes the internal aspects of brand orientation such as "living the brand" concept (de Chernatony, 2010; de Chernatony, Drury, & Segal-Horn, 2003; Ind, 2003, 2007; Ind & Bjerke, 2007; Mitchell, 2002; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007). Other brand-oriented patterns are: corporate identity, corporate design (Birkigt & Stadler, 2002; Olins, 1978; Van Riel & Balmer, 1997), marketing communication (Cornelissen, 2000; Ewing & Napoli, 2005; Schultz, Tannenbaum, & Lauterborn, 1994), the effect of brand orientation on senior level practices (Hankinson, 2002). Different empirical contexts (see for example; Baumgarth, 2009, 2010; Bridson & Evans, 2004; Gromark & Melin, 2011; Napoli, 2006; Wong & Merrilees, 2007, 2008) claim that there is a positive relationship between brand orientation and performance and customer orientation is the backbone of brand-orientation which signifies the brand identity as a focal point for organisational strategy, behavior and culture. Brand-orientated companies eventually shift to market orientation (customer orientation) and maintain a strong brand relationship with customers (Urde, 2003, 2009).

Customer orientation is sometimes defined as market orientation (see for example: Deshpandé, et al., 1993; Drucker, 1954; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990). Market orientation is described as a unique organisational culture (Deshpandé et al., 1993; Homburg & Pesser, 2000; Narver & Slater, 1990) or behaviors and instruments used to improve customer and employees satisfaction (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Shapiro, 1988) such as market segmentation (Beane & Ennis, 1987; Wedel & Kamakura, 2002), customer relationship management (Reinartz, Krafft, & Hoyer, 2004), customer satisfaction surveys, and customer lifetime value which are also helpful performance indicators for customer oriented companies (Keiningham et al., 2005; Rust, Lemon, & Zeithaml, 2004; Venkatesan & Kumar, 2004).

Companies seeking customer centricity and market orientation would match their needs, and would then evolve into brand oriented companies, and so their market share would increase as well (Urde, 1999). The recent literature on market orientation has been industry oriented, which shows that market orientation is positively associated with performance. This helps managers to identify factors that encourage the creation of a customer oriented culture (Chee & Peng, 1996; Liu, 1995; Morgan & Morgan, 1991).

2.5.3 The Internal Brand Building

Internal brand building is defined as a process in which employees align their behavior with the organisational identity (e.g. de Chernatony, 2001; Keller, 1999; LePla and Parker, 1999; Macrae, 1996; Mitchell, 2002; Tosti and Stotz, 2001). Through this process, employees act as key players along with a consistent brand behavior that decides how the brand identity is perceived by stakeholders and hence they develop the brand image (e.g. Urde, 1994; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; Balmer and Soenen, 1999). In this sense, leadership should constantly play a critical role, in charge of stimulating the brand identity and mediating between the employees and the organisational rules and systems; all of which encourage desirable behaviors and pave the way to integrating the internal brand building (Giddens, 1979). Recent research on internal branding, has promoted brand supporting behaviors and, among these, supervisory behavior appears as a critical factor (Miles & Mangold 2004; Wieseke et al. 2009). However, the challenge of this rather depends on the way in which the organisational structure supports this process. Burmann et al. (2009) claim that building and managing a reliable and strong internal brand is becoming more significant where traditionally the external branding activities have been able to achieve such objectives, whereas today the objectives are recognized increasingly by internal branding activities in addition to other features such as employees' performance and the quality of the provided product and/or service, which they necessarily need to stay competitive (Burmann et al., 2009). In service organisations, also, the delivery of the brand is determined by employees' effectiveness at showing organisational core values to customers (Balmer & Gray, 2003). De Chernatony (2002) posits that, within service organisations, employees' behavior is what shapes the corporate brand. Therefore, internal branding activities are as important as external ones in conveying brand promise to customers (Cleaver, 1999). Internal branding is a multi-disciplinary practice which requires cross-functional teams for both institutionalization and program design. It is an important factor for the brand and business success because it connects the strategy and its implementation (Mahnert & Torres, 2007).

Within the Internal Brand Building, employees act as "brand ambassadors" and this means that each and every action of theirs should have a regular interaction with brand meaning (Vallaster & de Chernatony 2005; de Chernatony et al., 2006). This can be a success if external brand values are integrated internally as an organisational guiding principle for employees (LePla & Parker, 1999; Tosti & Stotz, 2001; Urde, 2003). Internal brand building is carried out by consistently satisfying customers and thus encouraging a strong corporate brand. Researchers (see for example: Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday, 1998; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) find that successful internal brand building is positively associated with employee commitment. Accordingly, this concept incorporates and encourages employees' commitment through brand supporting behaviors that lead to superior value (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Brodie et al., 2006).

Corporate branding is defined as "a cluster of functional and emotional values, which promises stakeholders a particular experience" (de Chernatony, 2002). According to scholars' reports, the brand-building approach comes in phases which are translated into three common steps Figure.4, namely, brand audit considering internal elements (vision, mission and culture) along with the consideration of influencing stakeholders (customers, competitors). In this way the information resulting from the brand audit will move it to the next building stage (de Chernatony, 2001; Knox & Bickerton, 2003; de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2003; Urde, 2003; Aaker, 1996; Karlsson, 2006; Keller, 2003). That is the brand identity, which develops meaningful organisational associations with an added value to customers. The third phase is the brand statement and the way in which it is perceived by customers and employees (de Chernatony, 2002; Aaker, 1996).

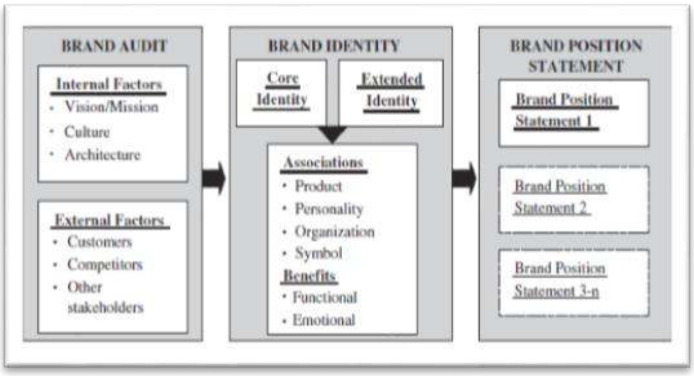

Figure 4: The Brand Building Framework

The literature also reveals that building a strong organisational brand faces challenges, such as the overall approach of the firm and how consistent and strong its management is (Wallström, et al., 2008). To build an internal brand successfully, leaders must develop a supportive structure by means of a strategic vision, the organisational culture, communication, behavior and identity, which as a whole communicates and delivers brand related messages to employees (Hatch & Schultz, 2003, 2001, 1997; Schultz et al., 2000).

The organisational culture helps communicate the brand promise to employees. Scholars such as Aaker, 1996 and de Chernatony & Drury, 2005 point out that value adding brands create and maintain a synergy between their organisations' cultures and values (Barley, 1989). By contrast, the way that employees react towards branding structures or systems may vary according to their functional or social background which may lead to brand misconception. The brand building behaviour of employees is also called the employees' contribution to a customer-oriented organisation.

Scholars have come up with a list of supporting employee brand-building behaviours (see for example: Heskett et al., 1997, 2003; Arnett, et al., 2003; Bhattacharya & Sen 2003; Miles & Mangold 2004; Algesheimer et al., 2005; Bettencourt & Brown 2003; Bettencourt et al., 2005; MacKenzie et al., 1998; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). When organisations make efforts to implement internal branding, employees feel more responsible and become more supportive and accountable to the brand promise (Devasagayam et al. 2010). Additionally, studies on internal branding (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005) use the Behavioural Science Perspective on the way that employees consider their organisation and its brand.

Another theory is the Grounded Theory Ethnography which is a method used to understand organisational culture in a specific organisational setting (Glaser & Strauss, 1994; Goulding, 2006; Swanson & Holton, 2005; Charmaz, 2006). "Grounded Theory Ethnography gives priority to the studied phenomenon or process rather than the setting itself" (Charmaz, 2006). This theory is based on comparing data from the start of the research with what is added during it, continuously analyzing it instead of waiting for it all to be collected to find out relationships and hence theorize interpretations (Glaser & Strauss, 1994). The Resource Based View (Armstrong & Baron, 2002) is another theory used in brand management, and is based on the development of internal resources that are unique. This can be achieved through human resource activities in alignment with strategy and communication (Armstrong & Baron, 2002).

In order to implement, sustain and promote the internal branding process, a variety of techniques should be applied. According to Creswell (2009) and Farrell (2002) encouraging the appropriate behaviors of employees is the key to implementation, which suggests that a major role in a successful cycle of internal branding is played by human resources. Seven key principles are suggested by Harold & Perry (1981) and Lloyd (2002) as tools or techniques to be employed in organisations. They are: co-creation, larger purpose, empowerment, education, accountability, shared incentives and measurement. Ind & Bjerke (2007) focus on the organisation wide approach that can be adopted for better service delivery. Customer experience delivery is the responsibility of organisations; it requires a combination of organisational culture, human resources, marketing, evaluation, and leadership, to create brand equity. An organisation's approach is determined by considering all the factors concerned with consistent perceived quality, loyalty, and association. In this way, excellent customer experience can be achieved. An organisation wide approach should be applied to enhance the brand equity among customers (Ind & Bjerke, 2007).

As claimed by Causon (2004), internal branding has been identified as a tool for increasing the level of empowerment of employees within organisations. In this regard, a brand model has been developed in which the main elements are: i) brand vision, which is focused on giving employees a better view of the brand, ii). brand mission, which is focused on giving employees an overview of the mission and the underlying aims and objectives that need to be achieved through the brand, iii) brand values, as the foundation and philosophy upon which the brand is built, iv) brand positioning, which is an overview to the employee in terms of differentiation of the reasons why the brand is different from other brands, v) brand essence, which defines the uniqueness of the brand, and vi) brand personality, which is the way that the brand should look, feel, and communicate. This framework can be very helpful in empowering employees because it gives them detailed in-depth information about the organisation and its philosophy. Palta & Pandit (2012); analyzing the internal branding of an Indian bank, find that that the most important aspect of the internal branding process is to keep focused on the people within the organisation. Further, employees are needed to demonstrate strong commitment to the brand and should be able to identify themselves with the organisation's mission, vision, goals, and objectives (Palta & Pandit, 2012).

2.6 Research Concerned Variables: Antecedents and Consequences

2.6.1 External Customer Orientation (ECO)

The need to develop a market orientation in organisations is clear in the marketing literature (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). The strategic marketing literature describes customer orientation as a firm's unique capability and distinctive tool (Appiah-Adu & Singh, 1998). Customer orientation means using information in an effective and efficient way that changes employees' behaviors and provides services from an added value perspective (Shapiro, 1998; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narvar & Slater, 1990). From 1950 onwards, studies on orientation in organisations have shown specific barriers such as structure and management support and abilities (Chaganti & Sambharya, 1987; Messikomer, 1987).

However, recent studies on the topic emphasize various antecedents to the development of customer orientation (Wong et al., 1989; Kohli & Jaworski, 1993). Studies such as Narver & Slater, 1990; Shapiro, 1998; Doyle & Wong, 1998; Harris 1996a; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990 claim that customer orientation is directly linked to the organisation's success. Organisations that are customer-centric are more likely to have high performance (Sawhney & Piper, 2002). Hajjat, 2002; Deshpande et al., 1993; Nahm et al., 2004 and Heikkila, 2002 have all looked at customer orientation in a single organisational context and some of them report its measurements and validity. This construct has been the subject of discussion in a number of studies which have also emphasized its positive relation to a firm's development (Doyle & Wong, 1998; Harris, 1996a; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990; Shapiro, 1988; Anosike & Eid, 2011).

Anosike & Eid (2011) state that customer orientation (CO) is critical for the success of a business, and to a certain extent decides how the organisation is going to perform in the future High performing organisations are often seen to develop customer satisfaction at the heart of their philosophy, and are more customer oriented. One of the main reasons why customer orientation is becoming a priority for businesses all over the world is that progress in technological, economic and social ways has made traditional business models highly irrelevant, and so there is a need for new ones that can attain the underlying goals and objectives of organisations, while at the same time helping to realize customer satisfaction (Anosike & Eid, 2011). The importance of customer orientation is supported by Conduit & Mavondo, 2001. Customer Orientation (CO) needs enhanced employee training, internal and external communication, and management support. A relational link was found between cooperative organisational cultures, planning formality and competitive organisational benefits (Chae & Hill, 2000) while Appiah-Adu and Singh (1998) claim a link between customer orientation and performance.

Ecological considerations by organisations work as an attracting construct for customers. A study by Stone, Joseph & Blodgett (2004) on creating an eco-oriented corporate culture focused on sustainable growth and development. The corporate recognition of the organisation and sustainable operations play a major role in affecting and attracting customers and increasing the firm's reputation. Stone et al. (2004) investigated and emphasized on the internal requisites as well as the external situation of the organisation which impact the responsiveness and dissemination of the organisation to its environmental responsibility. Eco-oriented culture emanates in the organisation from balanced internal and external factors (Stone, Joseph & Blodgett, 2004).

Halliday (2002) posits that there are some barriers to customer orientation, illustrating one of the most important dimensions in delivering customer orientation which is the close alignment of cultural dynamics of an organisation. Organisational cultural issues such as the lack of proper communication and coordination, have high impact on the implementation of customer orientation and might influence the service quality delivery (Halliday, 2002). Internal communication is considered the first step in internal branding process (Zucker, 2002) to encourage employees' behavior to the brand, through customer orientation (George & Gronroos, 1991). And organisational leadership and management support are critical aspect in customer orientation (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001).

Accordingly, (Jeong & Hong, 2007) came up with few aspects and measures that concluded positive link to customer orientation. For example, Customer-Closeness; which is discussed in various studies (Tu et al., 2004; Nahm et al., 2004; Samaranayake, 2005) and is defined as continuously commit and communicate with customers with a proactive readiness to understand and provide their changing needs effectively (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001). Murakoshi (1994) claims that the Japanese advanced market is a result of the industrial shift in Japan from product orientation focus to high customer-orientation.

Another item is Customer-flexible; which is the level of awareness of customers' preferences and expectations along with intention and willingness to respond in dynamic rapidly changing markets (Lau, 1996; Gupta & Somers, 1996; Kerwin, 2003; Sethi & Sethi, 1990; Sanchez, 1995). A third item is Customer-accessible which refers to the degree, an organisation is willing to make critical information available to customers. And in this sense, customer orientation is regarded as providing important information as per customers' needs rather than friendly customer service and internal operational details (Cho & Park, 2003).

This item requires a specific strategy to develop a product and/or service delivery system that is linked to communicate with and support customers (Boyer et al., 2002) especially that accessibility waiting time might interfere as a negative factor impacting customers' trust. Industrially recognized leading firms with a diversified cultures and unique product and/or service traits such as (Toyota vs Hewlett Packard, ITC vs Korean Shipbuilding manufacturers, Whirlpool vs Starbucks), outperform their competitors with their shared mind-sets and value chain cross-functional practices such as techniques and procedures integrated to fulfil end customers' requirements (Childershouse et al., 2003; Perry & Sohal, 2001; Wu et al., 2004) by prioritizing their customers' offerings and engaging their end users in their business network linkage (Hanson, 2000; Bauer et al., 2002).

Not only this but effective flow of information (technical as in infrastructure and social as in relationships) is as important to create a valuable highly performing customer orientation network in terms of:

1) Operational Outcomes: cost, quality, and time
2) Customer Outcomes: satisfaction, loyalty, and retention
3) Information Outcomes: innovation and collaborative timely problem solving (Jeong & Hong, 2007).

2.6.2 Internal Customer Orientation (ICO)

Internal customer orientation is different from the term customer orientation. Internal customer orientation is related to the participation of customers in the process of the organisation (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001). Internal customer orientation importance was originally mentioned in the service literature (Lukas & Maignan, 1996). The marketing literature reveals that employees in an organisation are internal customers (Gummesson, 1987; Bowen & Schneider, 1988; George, 1990; Lukas & Maignan, 1996).

As per the internal branding as well as the marketing literature, a group of related constructs, sub-constructs and items are emphasized upon and discussed through. Conduit & Mavondo (2001) attempted to analyze the relationship between internal customer orientation and market orientation of the brand. Internal customers' notion suggests that an employee is both, a supplier and a customer to other employees in an organisation. Internal customers provide goods and/or services to end users (customers) and hence generate customer satisfaction (Mohr-Jackson, 1991). Internal customer orientation is adapted from internal marketing for internal purposes. It involves the use of marketing-like tools to convey organisational objectives and to know how successfully internal marketing tasks are achieved. ICO may have a positive impact to drive competitive organisational culture and customer satisfaction (Conduit & Mavondo, 2011). In this process, employees are required to identify other employees as internal customers, rather than focusing on external end customers' needs only (Mohr-Jackson, 1991).

Shih and Fan (2009), posit that for a business to live up to the expectations of its customers, first it needs to require understanding that its primary focus is its own employees. Therefore, as employees circulate high quality product and/or service to those in the downstream, they must get higher quality product and/or service from those in the upstream (Lukas & Maignan, 1996). The relationship between employee engagement and internal branding is that, only when an employee is able to get the process and promise of the brand, he or she will surely be able to deliver it to customers. Since employees are important for internal branding, what is important to them also needs to be considered important (Ghauri & Gronhag, 2005).

Farrell (2002) argues that organisations should ensure what customers and employees expect from companies and what should be delivered by employees. Not only this, but even business competitive advantage is also gained effectively by internal branding through employees (Jacobs, 2003). Recent studies of marketing literature (see; Herington, Johnson, & Scott, 2006) consider organisation–employee relationship mandatory to the customer–organisation relationship which leads to business success. Related literature has also revealed that employees highly impact customers while service interaction (de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001; Denby-Jones, 1995). Employees act as a critical bone in this chain of networks; and in service organisations, they are the major stone of the whole chain of relationships (Gummesson, 1999; Kandampully & Duddy, 1999; Anderson & Weitz, 1989).

As per Punjaisri et. al (2008), internal branding encourages employees' behaviors to adequately present the brand and deliver its promise. However, existing branding research lacks the required process to drive such supporting behaviors and employees' understanding of the promise (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2002). Drake, Gulman, and Roberts (2005) regarded internal branding as a marketing tool which motivates employees to be a committed workforce and reflect customers' experiences as per the brand promise. Employees are the bridge between the strategy and the implementation of the business (Wallace, Chernatony, Buil, 2011). Driving forces, sub-constructs or measuring items of ICO engagement and their needs; are elements such as confidence or pride, recognition, reward and consistency, which have to be understood as a step-in sustaining and developing internal branding initiatives (Vallaster & Chernatony, 2005; Engelund & Buchhave, 2009).

Farrell (2002) believes that if an organisation expects employees to be advocates of the brand, then it needs to provide them with respect, trust, engage, recognize them and appreciate their contribution. Internal customers' engagement and involvement are pivotal for them to display outwards the behavior of the brand and to enact the brand fully. Kapferer (2008) and Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, and Berthon (2002) state that, engagement is enabled by the process of internal branding.

Boyd and Sutherland (2006) identified internal branding as a critical concept focused on employees in an organisation. It is also stated that, being employee focused or customer focused is not different from one another, but is actually closely connected. Berry (1981) and Gronroos (1981) were the first to introduce the idea that companies should give (due weight-age) to their internal customers, the same way they handle external customers and products. Since then the concept of internal marketing had picked up pace and had been realized by many organisations as a method to increase their product and service quality (Berry, 1981; Gronroos, 1981).

Scheys and Baert (2008) argue that employees’ behavior also acts as a crucial element in determining and facilitating the internal branding process and whenever there is an internal orientation of the brand, it is essential for employees to adapt their behavior and attitudes to deliver business end results. Job effectiveness, job satisfaction, service recovery performance and employees’ turnover intention reductions are found to be positively related to internal customer orientation (Rod & Ashill, 2010). It is also found that ICO and internal branding are largely influenced by the intention of the employees to stay in the organisation and the perceived person-organisation fit of the employees. It is claimed that it is more or less dependent on how the person perceives their role and other operations in an organisation. If the employee doesn’t have enough information of their role in the organisation or their underlying objectives or if they perceive it in a wrong manner, or in a negative manner, then there would be problems in the internal branding process and the orientation of the internal customer (Matanda & Ndubisi, 2013).

On integrating CO, ICO and ISQ, Anosike and Eid (2011) indicate that internal customer orientation generates internal service quality which as a result supports customer orientation. It is also posited that for customer satisfaction to be achieved, organisations need to stress on balancing their internal and external orientation (De Chernatony, et al., 2003). Davis (2000) introduced a useful four-stage/phase brand management model Figure 4, which can be used for internal branding orientation; this model includes:

a) Developing a brand vision.

b) Determining the brand picture.

c) Devising a brand asset management strategy.

d) Devising a supportive culture.

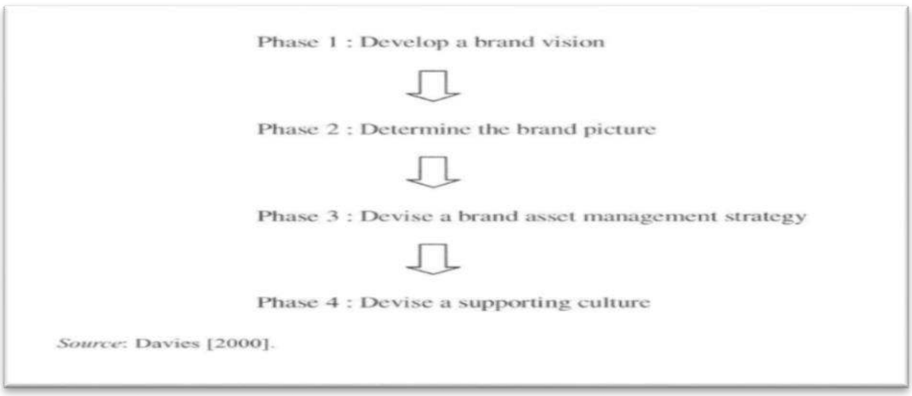

Figure 5: The Brand Asset Management Model

2.6.3 Internal Service Quality (ISQ)

Based on the literature, services are defined as actions or performances (Berry, 1980). Whereas quality is described as the level of consistency along with a specific cost matching the market (Deming, 1982). Another definition is meeting customer requirements as per customers' expectations (Smith & Reynold 2002; Etzel, Walker, & Stanton, 2007). When dealing with perceived consistency of service, strategy and culture are key influencers on organisational behavior (Herrmann, 2005) and these should be aligned with vision, mission and values (Bruhn & Homburg, 2004). Recent studies viewed service quality as “the customer’s evaluation of the standard of service received across the domains of reliability, responsiveness, and empathy” (Chenet, Dagger, & O'sullivon, 2010).

The market orientation literature view service quality as a key organisational goal (Narver & Slater, 1990). To create superior quality service value, a focus must be given to customer orientation and coordination across departmental barriers (Narver & Slater, 1990). Webb et al. (2000) claims that market orientation positively relates to service quality and satisfaction. Interactive customers provide opinions to the received and delivered quality service and hence build and evaluate as per (Webb et al., 2000). As described by the service quality theory (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1988), customer satisfaction transforms into a developed enhanced service quality through points of contact but the actual value adding wheel is the service encounter interface (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1988).

Services complexity depends on their nature such as customer involvement and limitations of production or consuming. They claim that service branding decreases prior to experience risks (Lovelock, Wirtz, & Chatterjee, 2007). Service quality’s importance and dimensions have been mentioned and contributed by authors such as Deming (1986, 1993); Juran (1988, 1993, 1995); Crosby (1979); Feigenbaum (1991); Garvin (1987); Grönroos (1990); Zeithaml et al., (1990); Gummesson (1992). Quality means meeting customer requirements as Ishikawa (1991) claims that organisational challenges such as sectionalism would disappear if employees perceive their next task/process as their customer.

Cronin and Taylor (1992, 1994); Boulding et al. (1993), report that service quality is conceptualized best on customers’ perceptions of performance. They also support that service quality is an enabler of customer satisfaction. ISQ is also defined as quality service carried out by units or employees to other units or employees in the organisation (Stauss, 1995). Such internal services circulate a chain of linked functional units with an aim of providing service to external customers (Marshall et al., 1998). ISQ creates the basis for continuous improvement (Koska, 1992; Reynoso & Moores, 1995; Young & Varble, 1997; Frost & Kumar, 2000).

King and Grace (2008) conducted a study on internal marketing from the employee's perspective. Creating a strong brand and delivering the perceived service with quality are premised by the ability of employees to deliver as per customer expectations. The skills and knowledge supplied by the human capital in the organisation help add value to the organisation's brand. For this purpose, in-depth interviews were carried out with employees across the service industries to identify the effect of internal branding associated with the organisations' human capital. The results of the study revealed that, internal branding influences employees on the creation of employee brand commitment (King & Grace, 2008).

Internal service quality had been specifically studied by (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2010; Menon, et al. 1997; Anosike & Eid, 2011) all of them assented the fact that internal service quality is very much dependent on factors such as customer orientation, organisational culture, interdepartmental communication, and other such associated factors. This concept was originated from the service sector selling jobs in order to make them attractive for employees (Sasser & Arbeit, 1976). This has been referred to as internal marketing in a number of studies by (Berry, 1981; Grönroos, 1990; Gummesson, 1990). They believe that if an organisation requires its employees to provide quality service to customers, then it should satisfy them in the first place.

The service quality theory reveals that customer satisfaction develops to improve service quality (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1988). However, the interface of service is what generates value to customers (Gronroos, 1990; Kotler, 1988). Internal quality is vital to outward quality provided to external customers (Berry et al., 1990; George, 1990; Gronroos, 1990; Silvestro et al., 1992). The more focus is given to ISQ, the higher the satisfaction (Johnson, 1996; Schneider & Bowen, 1985). In today's competitive market, ISQ is said to be a critical determination and enabler of success for organisations (Frost & Kumar, 2001).

In a study by Podnar & Golob (2010) a group of services oriented companies were evaluated to find any relation between work flexibility and internal marketing. The study hypothesized that work flexibility is very critical in improving the service quality delivery in an organisation. It was argued that factors such as globalization, liberalization, the increase in market competition, the change in technological framework and more demand of customers have forced many companies to change their internal environment mainly by introducing work flexibility which has been a tool to increase productivity and efficiency of internal customers while increasing their job satisfaction. Flexible working practices take on various forms and dimensions. Flexible working can be observed in the form of working conditions, employment status, time and work place regulations etc. also they can be further divided into three different forms as: functional flexibility, numerical flexibility and financial flexibility.

Functional flexibility, which relates to performing various tasks and functions in an organisation; numerical flexibility can be viewed as the increase or decrease in the number of workers in an organisation; and financial flexibility which is the profit sharing and variable pay policies. Another important addition is temporal flexibility, which relates to working hours and timings for employment. Podnar & Golob (2010) claim that very few authors have tried to link work flexibility with internal marketing and argues that internal marketing lies at the core of flexible organisations and that it is linked with quality delivery in service (Podnar & Golob, 2010).

Further, to ensure service competitive quality, employees must be well informed with a smooth flow of knowledge (Ramlal, 2004). As per Johnston (1999, 2005), most literature on ISQ emerge from the services marketing discipline while operations management discipline lacks the contribution of developed frameworks and tools on internal customer relationships. Menon et al. (1997); Punjaisri and Wilson (2010) assented that ISQ is dependent on factors such as customer orientation, organisational culture, and interdepartmental communication. One of the first conceptual theories on service quality called SERVQUAL proposed by Gronroos (1985; 1990) and Parasuraman et al. (1985). This model suggests that pre-service expectation and actual service delivery influence service quality. Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) conducted a study to identify the role of internal branding and its impact on the delivery of employee brand promise.

The role of employees is recognized as most crucial one in delivering the service or product as promised by the brand. The authors carried the study with an aim to identify the perceptions to the techniques and the role that enable employees to fulfil the brand promise. Using a case study approach and a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methodologies. They collected primary data with survey and in-depth interviews, 699 respondents participated in the survey and the results of the survey indicated that, there are positive relationships among internal branding and brand promise delivery.

Apart from these, results of the in-depth interviews indicated that, employees think that their actions are most important to the brand. Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) found that brand identification, brand loyalty and brand commitment are the tools that influence the employees' brand attitudes and it influences the attitudes in which the employees deliver the product or service. In a study by Anosike and Eid (2011) on integrating internal service quality, customer orientation and internal customer orientation in the banking sector; the authors examined the interrelationships between customer orientation (CO), internal customer orientation (ICO), and internal service quality (ISQ) in order to develop and test a framework based on the antecedents of customer orientation in the banking sector.

The authors developed 10 hypotheses and tested them by using a sample of 202 banks. The developed conceptual framework includes constructs such as internal customer orientation, internal service quality, interdepartmental connectedness, empowerment, interdepartmental conflict, customer orientation and job satisfaction. The authors used confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis in order to test the validity of the constructs in the proposed framework and used structural equation modelling to test the hypotheses. The results of the study indicate that internal customer orientation leads to internal service quality which in turn supports customer orientation. They also identified that the customer orientation model can help to enhance organisational behavior and improves the business (Anoseki & Eid, 2011).

Research by Berry, Zeithaml & Parasuraman (1985) posits that the customers' assessment service quality measure covers 10 dimensions/items (variables) derived for the SERVQUAL scale, namely, reliability, communication, security, credibility, tangibles, courtesy, understanding the customer, responsiveness, competence, and access. These dimensions are considered the basis of the service quality paradigm. Jabnoun & Rasasi (2005) in their study to measure service quality use a thirty-question survey which yields five dimensions of SERVQUAL and two dimensions (image and value). They find that dimensions such as personal skills, values, reliability, and image are major factors in determining service quality in the conventional banks in the UAE.

Organisations implementing an internal service oriented culture or an employee oriented service environment, are more likely than other banks to have a positive influence on customers' confidence (Kunda & Vora, 2004). Lovelock (2000) claims that most of the branding literature focuses on the goods and/or products sector, services management or brand management rather than the services or the services branding sector. Hence, the attention of theorists has not reached the expectations of the service sector nor its growth. According to Clifton & Maughan (2000), a reason for this may be the constant dependence of a few reputable service brands on the branding techniques developed in the products sector and the fact that service branding is activated through individual interaction and promise delivery. It is posited that building service branding involves senior management teams from cross-functional organisational departments. Gronroos, 1978; Berry, 1981; de Chernatony & Harris 2000; Zerbe, Schneider & Bowen, 1993 and Browning, 1998 believe that Human Resources activities and functions have a major role in successful service quality, hence customer satisfaction, in the areas of recruitment, training and motivation.

To maintain a high-quality service, employees must be empowered and authorized to serve customers better. Studies such as Laschinger et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 1997; McDonald & Siegall, 1993; Riggs & Knight, 1994; Brown et al., 1993 identify significant relations between empowerment and job satisfaction. Boshoff and Mels (1995) conclude that a participative management style helps enhance service quality performance and the "supervisory control systems" by Zeithaml et al., 1990 can remove the differences between service quality specifications and actual service delivery. Heskett et al. (1994) report that service quality stimulates customer satisfaction and loyalty.

2.6.4 Interdepartmental Connectedness

Interdepartmental connectedness is the level of formal and informal contact across employees and departments (Kohli & Jaworski 1990; Tjosvold 199). Internal departmental communication and coordination is covered in detail by Anosike & Eid, 2011; Barclay, 1991 and Kleinbaum et al., 2008. Interdepartmental connectedness focuses on the interaction between individuals across functional departments and this exchange may impact on the level of organisational service in terms of integration, coordination, and reducing cross-functional barriers (Denison & Hart, 1996; Pitta & Franzak, 1996). It also encompasses all forms of verbal and non-verbal communication and non-physical and physical contact throughout the organisation and allows a peaceful relationship among employees and in the various functional units. Interdepartmental integration may lead to effective cooperation which in turn results in high organisational performance (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001).

A study by Anosike & Eid (2011) on the effect of internal marketing/branding evaluates fundamental factors that affect interdepartmental interactions and their influence on the quality and delivery of the product. The authors hypothesize a link and formulate a framework between interdepartmental interaction and product/service quality. The authors suggest that internal communication is important for aligning information in an organisation. Menon et al., 1997 reveal that interdepartmental connectedness has an impact on product and/or service quality. They state that inter-departmental connectedness appears to dominate when the underlying condition of the organisation is not very stable.

Another finding is that interdepartmental interaction can be greatly increased by adopting a host of activities; a management style should be adopted that is based on less risk aversion i.e. the management should be ready to embrace risk in the culture and should not work only on risk aversion. Decentralization is also said to be instrumental in organisations. Decentralization in the form of employee empowerment and the development of a reward structure based on similar settings to the market should also be fostered in the organisation and should be encouraged, with reward system orientation and hierarchical levels (Menon et al., 1997).

Devasagayam et al (2010) in their study propose and test suitable factors of the brand community in the internal branding framework; they used multidimensional constructs of the brand community and the strengths of the internal branding strategies. The authors explain the theoretical underpinnings by combining these two constructs. The findings are that internal organisational brand communities are viable strategies for targeting the internal branding participants, and that these communities provide strong support for internal and external audiences. Devasagayam et al (2010) also claim that communications and external branding initiatives are used internally among employees to build positive brand affinity and brand associations. Implementing the internal brand community can help increase the emotional buy-in of the employees. Thomson et al. (1999); Davis (2001); Jacobs (2003); and Buckley (2002) posit that engaging employees in designing the internal branding program boosts its effectiveness.

As far as the measurement of constructs (variables) is concerned, the relevant literature in this area discusses such cross-departmental measure items as partnership infrastructure, which is an integrated cross-functional relationship to enhance performance. To ensure effective long-term internal relationships, trust, commitment, fairness, shared information, shared rewards/risks and open communication are required (Spekman et al., 1998; Ragatz et al., 1997; Nilson, 1998). All of these stimulate desirable behaviors (Nahm et al., 2004).

Another factor is information sharing in terms of real-time sharing, quality, and the priority sharing of information which reduces delay and delivery risks (Spekman et al., 1998; Mason & Towill, 1997; McAdam & McCormack, 2001) given the high speed of technology where information flows on a time basis (McAdam & McCormack, 2001). High quality communicated information stimulates accuracy, credibility, and adequacy (Monczka et al., 1998; Holmberg, 2000). Operational practices in customer-centric firms may relate to lean systems and time-based management by reducing unnecessary costs, time, and processes (Rich & Hines, 1997; Handfield & Nichols, 1999). Such components increase flexibility and reduce delays (Tu et al., 2004).

Customer management is recommended through sustainable value added practices, such as committed relationships with customers, satisfaction enhancement and complaint management (Tan et al., 1998; Tracey & Tan, 2001). Nahm et al. (2004) find that customer orientation fosters shared supportive managerial beliefs which are critical in cross-functional integrative tasks (Chen & Small, 1994; Ramamurthy & King, 1992). When managers believe that strategic cross-functional relationships are very important and critical to competitiveness then they will not spare efforts to be flexible and share information, encouraging employees to participate in reducing process time (Monden, 1983).

Moreover, Huang & Tsai (2013) develop a seven point Likert-scale questionnaire with scores ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” about cross-functional integration (as a construct) which included items adapted from Kahn (2001), such as:

a) Cross-functional meetings held by individual functional departments on a regular basis.
b) Individual functional departments exchanging records and memorandums to understand the status of other departments.
c) Individual functional departments exchanging reports and documents to understand the status of other departments.
d) Individual departments understanding the status of other departments by means of periodic reports, through email, telephone, or video conferencing (interaction using electronic media).

For organisations to be brand oriented, a very helpful tool is cross-functional integration using methods such as periodic meetings, reports and memorandum exchanges where functional activities are constantly created with added value (Huang & Tsai, 2013). Cross-functional integration and co-ordination are argued to be the major hub for internal branding service development (Denison & Hart, 1996; Pitta & Franzak, 1996).

2.6.5 External Customer Satisfaction

Satisfaction has been regarded as transaction oriented (Gupta & Zeithaml, 2006). Customer satisfaction is defined as "customer's response to consumption experiences" (Oliver, 1997). It is the accumulation of customers' experiences and expectations of service performance. Per the marketing research, customer satisfaction is used as a differentiating tool as well as a denominator between specific alternatives, brands, groups and industries (Yi, Y., 1989; Meeks, 1984). Customer satisfaction can be measured through multiple indicators (Johnson & Fornell, 1991). It is also seen as a strong strategic tool which leads to high quality service (George, 1990; Varey, 1995) and is highly impacted by contact with customers and the nature of their interaction with firms (Crosby & Stephens, 1987; Kelley et al., 1990; Murray, 1979).

Customer satisfaction is said to be emotional as well (Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martin, 2008). Satisfaction is of two kinds, transient (transaction-specific) satisfaction, which has to do with the assessment of activities and behaviours during service interaction and cumulative, which is the overall satisfaction derived from all service encounters (Ekinci et al., 2008; Nam et al., 2011; Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994). The engagement and interaction of front line employees with external customers' influences customers' attitudes and satisfaction (Bowen & Schneider, 1985; Organ, 1971; Woodside et al., 1989; Berry, 1981). Lee (2005) acknowledges customer satisfaction as the core of business success. The author indicates that increased customer satisfaction can lead to better productivity and better profit realization, in addition to an increase in reputation and hence better competitive advantage. However, negative customer satisfaction has its own implications, and failure to satisfy customers has an underlying effect on the reputation of organisations. The major negative implication of customer dissatisfaction is loss in competitive advantage (Lee, 2005).

Berry (1984) claims that service organisations mainly sell performance which is driven by employees acting in a specific required manner only if they want to. Theorists in management posit that the success and prosperity of a business rely on employees' willingness to adhere to organisational goals in a supportive manner. The relation between perceived service quality and customer satisfaction has received special concern from the scholarly literature (e.g., Taylor & Baker, 1994, Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Dabholkar et al., 2000; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1993; Spreng & Mackoy, 1996). Service quality is perceived by customers based on various aspects such as the contact employee's response, assurance, employee self-efficacy and empathy (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Dabholkar et al., 1996). A study by Yoon & Suh (2003) also links the customers' perceived service quality with the organisation's citizenship behaviours.

Although most of the empirical findings suggest that customer satisfaction is a consequence of perceived service quality (Brady & Robertson, 2001; Dabholkar & Overby, 2005), it is argued in some conceptual frameworks that this relationship may be influenced or in certain situations (e.g., Dabholkar, 1995; Iacobucci et al., 1995).

Customer voice is an evaluation model of customer satisfaction which encourages the flow of valuable information to the organisation members and end users. Osborne and Gaebler (1992) mention various ways to motivate customer voice, such as customer or community surveys, customer follow-up or contact, customer contact reports, customer interviews, focus groups, customer service training, electronic mail, inspectors, complaint tracking systems, toll free numbers, suggestion boxes.

The internal marketing theory encourages motivating employees to elicit customer satisfaction (Adsit et al., 1996). Lovelock (1992) and Schneider et al. (1998) suggest that human resource management should be cross-functional with service marketing and operations management. However, no scholarly attention has tackled the antecedents and consequences of the double role that most employees perform (customer contact as well as external customers). The internal marketing theory reveals the motivation of employees as a high indicator of the customer satisfaction provided (Adsit et al. 1996; Schneider, 1994).

Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) state that internal branding cannot be successful, if the work environment in the organisation is not conducive to the brand values and employees, in addition to carrying out employee and customer satisfaction surveys to find how far employees keep the brand promise and the impact of this on customers (Farrell, 2002). Empirical evidence also shows a positive relationship between internal branding, customer satisfaction and service quality (Tansuhaj et al., 1987; Richardson & Robinson, 1986). Employees should be encouraged to perform their best to satisfy external customers (Berry, 1981; Donnelly et al., 1985; George, 1990; Sasser & Arbeit, 1976). Johnson and Fornell (1991) report that customer satisfaction directly influences the organisation’s performance.

2.6.6 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is "a pleasurable or positive state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976). It is conceptualized as an emotional state derived from employees' evaluation of their job (Babin & Boles, 1998; Brown & Peterson, 1994; O'Neill & Mone, 1998; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). It is also defined as individuals' attitudes to their jobs and has been identified as a global measure with multiple dimensions (Kelly & Hise, 1980; Brief, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002). It is argued that satisfied employees achieve a higher level of performance than those with low job satisfaction (Kelly & Hise, 1980; Brief, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002).

The organisational behavior literature terms job satisfaction the most often-researched topic. A theory by Heskett et al. (1994), called the service–profit–chain, posits that organisations' financial performance comes from customer satisfaction, which is a result of employee performance, which in turn is an outcome of employee satisfaction. Hence, employees' job satisfaction highly influences customer satisfaction. Relevant research claims that job satisfaction has a positive relation with service quality (Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991; Yoon et al., 2001; Reynierse & Harker, 1992). Sasser and Arbeit (1976) contend that organisations must buy in internal customers and satisfy them before selling services to external customers, and this will drive performance to business success (Gremler et al., 1994).

A number of organisational elements have also been identified by the literature as having an impact on job satisfaction; such as the procedures or practices of human resource management, leadership practices, pay scale policies, job surroundings, career development, the organisational climate and the social context (Liao &

Chuang, 2004; Harter et al., 2002; Chebat et al., 2002; Lum et al., 1998; Bitner, 1992; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Paulin et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Joshi & Randall, 2001; Lusch et al., 1996). Moreover, the current marketing and organisational behavior literature reports such factors as compensation, autonomy, fairness perception, and management support as directly linked to job satisfaction (e.g., Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Melhem, 2004; Paulin et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2005). These factors are also relevant to managing employees who have customer contact with the long-term organisational perspective.

Compensation is the employee's salary and/or benefits. It was found that salary is positively linked with job satisfaction (Acker, 2004; Christen et al., 2006; Lum et al., 1998). Moreover, Christen et al. (2006) defined autonomy as the state in which employees are provided with independence and discretion to perform their jobs. Empirical evidence shows a direct positive effect of job autonomy on job satisfaction (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Paulin et al., 2006). Fairness perception is “the ‘rightness’ of outcomes, procedures and interactions in the firm” (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Researchers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Paulin et al., 2006) have found a positive association between employees’ perception of fairness (as seen in the support of leadership and supervisors, their respect, concern and the salary) with their job satisfaction (Babin & Boles 1996; Paulin et al., 2006).

Other factors such as an ethical organisational climate also show a positive impact on job satisfaction (Babin et al., 2000). Scholars (see for example; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Yoon et al., 2001; Alexandrov et al., 2007) find evidence that supportive leadership and management caring and concern to employees positively impact job satisfaction. Similarly, Hwang and Chi (2005) observe that internal marketing generally contributes to job satisfaction. In the internal marketing literature, job satisfaction's non-financial contributing factors are recognition programs, motivational practices, and empowerment (Timmreck, 2001; Snipes et al., 2005; Carless, 2004; Chebat & Kollias, 2000; Gonzalez & Garazo, 2006). These factors (variables), over time lead to significant job satisfaction, higher employee performance, higher levels of services provided to end customers and hence long-term relationships (Dabholkar and Abston, 2008) as well as sustainable competitive advantage (Gronroos, 1997). The latter author also mentions a few moderating factors that may affect job satisfaction such as length of employment, skills and competencies level and personality factors.

Finally, organisations should constantly measure their employees' job satisfaction levels to encourage higher outcomes. Motivational theory reveals that higher job satisfaction raises employee productivity and efficiency (Allen & Rush, 1998; Wright & Staw, 1999). Employees experiencing high levels of job satisfaction are more willing to engage in service-oriented behaviors than those who are less satisfied (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Netemeyer et al., 1997). A direct relationship can be identified between internal branding and job satisfaction; for example, if internal branding is implemented successfully, then as a result overall job satisfaction rises (Azizi, Ghytasvand & Fakharmanesh, 2012).

The positive impact of internal branding on job satisfaction is also evident in service industries. Al-Hawary et al. (2013) study commercial banks in Jordan and reveal that internal branding dimensions such as communication, appraisal, feedback, customer consciousness and employees training are closely related and positively associated with improved job satisfaction. Effective internal branding implementation leads to work motivation and job satisfaction (Tansuhaj et al., 1991).

2.7 Research Model and Hypothesis

Based on the previous literature Review of the concerned variables, the following conceptual model Figure.5 is proposed and consists of constructs and variables drawn from the marketing, internal branding and human resource management literature. These will be measured through operationalization, in which existing theories are converted into measurable variables using statistical inference by testing hypotheses and hence deriving estimates.

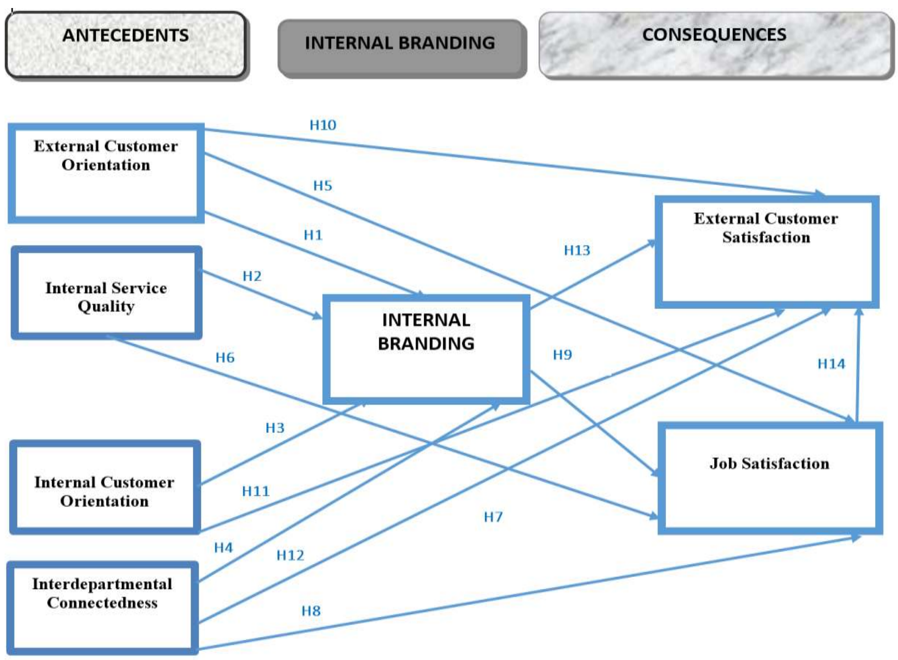

Figure 6: The Research Proposed Conceptual Model

Accordingly, the research suggested hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H1. External Customer orientation will have a positive impact on internal branding

H2. Internal service quality will have a positive impact on internal branding

H3. Internal customer orientation will have a positive impact on internal branding

H4. Interdepartmental connectedness will have a positive impact on internal branding

H5. External Customer orientation will have a positive impact on job satisfaction

H6. Internal service quality will have a positive impact on job satisfaction

H7. Internal customer orientation will have a positive impact on job satisfaction

H8. Interdepartmental connectedness will have a positive impact on job satisfaction

H9. Internal branding will have a positive impact on job satisfaction

H10. External Customer orientation will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction

H11. Internal customer orientation will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction

H12. Interdepartmental connectedness will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction

H13. Internal branding will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction

H14. Job satisfaction will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction

The hypotheses will be tested using factor analysis and multiple regression analysis from the questionnaire findings to identify any significant relations between these variables and internal branding.

2.8 The Gap in the Literature

No studies seem to have been made of the suggested antecedents that enable internal branding and the consequences that arise, either in the UAE context or the wider world. Existing studies conducted on internal branding mainly covered the service industry (Erkmen& Hancer, 2015), the public sector (Kamalanabhan, 2012), retail banking sector (Chebat et al., 2002; Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006; de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006), healthcare sector (Gapp & Merrilees, 2006) non-profitable UK charities (Hankinson, 2004), and tourism and the hotel industry (Punjasiri & Wilson, 2007; Bowen, 1997).

The literature reveals that internal branding is in sharper focus in the private sector than in the public sector. However, efforts are being made to investigate the benefits of internal branding in the public sector, where a major aspect of customer commitment and trust is the way that employees interact with customers. The existing literature on non-profit organisations lacks what Schmitt (1999) describes as a 'spirit that pervades the entire organisation'. Andreassen (1994) claims that the public sector in modern economies highly influences societies and individuals. To Etzioni (1964), the public-sector performance can be best enhanced by improving its effectiveness and the critical challenge to the sector lies in reducing budgets while increasing customers' expectations and providing for their needs at lower cost. Accordingly, the culture of organisations differs in the type of work their employees perform and this may vary more widely in Western cultures than in the UAE.

The outcome and results of the present study will it is hoped, enrich and contribute to the internal branding concept and the literature, expanding its insightful knowledge beyond that of the Western school of thought to the UAE government sector. Internal branding would help to maximize the emotional buy-in of government employees and influence their attitude to the brand which in turn would improve their performance and consequently the overall organisational performance. The proposed constructs – customer orientation, internal customer orientation, interdepartmental connectedness, and internal service quality through internal branding – would create a competitive organisational culture leading to high customer satisfaction and higher job satisfaction.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Operationalization & Scale Development

The previous chapter, Chapter 2 provided an introduction and a detailed literature review of internal branding concepts, theories, and critical success factors. As discussed, the aim of this research is to highlight the importance of internal branding and to develop a theoretical model that integrate antecedents and enablers which contribute to internal branding and its consequences. This is an attempt to operationalise the specified variables in terms of the factors that affect their relationships. The hypothesised relationships between these independent and dependent variables are then examined using the research framework model previously illustrated in Chapter 2.

This study aims to identify the influence of external customer orientation, internal customer orientation, internal service quality, and interdepartmental connectedness and show that internal branding makes external customer satisfaction and job satisfaction possible, as discussed in the previous chapters, the key research questions investigated are as follows:

1) What is the current level of internal branding within Abu Dhabi government departments?
2) What are the antecedents that lead to creating successful internal branding?
3) What are the results and consequences of creating a successful internal branding?

Some scholars (e.g., Churchill 1979; Peter 1981) have emphasised construct conceptualisation and scale development. Scale reliability and validity call for a test of the suggested hypothesized association between the antecedents of internal branding and its consequences. This is done through operationalization which is the process of converting conceptual definitions to operational ones (Eliasson, 2010). Two main approaches are used in measuring concepts; it can be done either through conceptual definition or operational definition. The first presents theoretical concepts, while the second states the characteristics of a conceptual one to render it measurable (Tull & Hawkins, 1993; Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002).

It is posited out that conceptual theories become operational when they are clearer and more realistic (Eliasson, 2010) and that this is the basis of designing and developing the questionnaire (Eliasson, 2010). Hence, the research variables are measured by developing a scale. Each of these variables has item measures linked to a Likert-type scale. The related literature provided the adopted scales with supporting reliability and validity as the scale measure tables of each variable specify in detail.

3.1.1 External Customer Orientation Measures

Consequently, customer orientation receives intense focus, but there is a lack of theoretical research on construct-specific measurement (Dreher, 1994; Siguaw et al., 1998). The external customer orientation measure initially developed by Deshpande et al. (1993) was later termed 'market orientation'. It includes the following measures: customer orientation, competitor orientation and product orientation (Deshpande & Farley, 1996; Baker et al., 1999).

As mentioned in the literature chapter above, some authors (Hajjat, 2002; Deshpande et al., 1993; Nahm et al., 2004; Heikkila, 2002) report customer orientation measurements and validity and emphasize their positive relation to a firm's development (Doyle & Wong, 1998; Harris, 1996a; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990; Shapiro, 1988; Anosike & Eid, 2011). Jeong & Hong, (2007) come up with a few dimensions that imply a positive link to customer orientation, such as customer closeness (Tu et al., 2004; Nahm et al., 2004; Samaranayake, 2005), which is continually committing to and communicating with customers with a proactive readiness to understand their changing needs and provide them effectively (Bowen et al., 1989; Conduit & Mavondo, 2001).

Murakoshi (1994) claims that the Japanese advanced market is a result of the industrial shift in Japan from a product orientation focus to high customer-orientation. Another factor is being customer-flexible; which is the level of awareness of customers' preferences and expectations along with the intention and willingness to respond in dynamic rapidly changing markets (Lau, 1996; Gupta & Somers, 1996; Kerwin, 2003; Sethi & Sethi, 1990; Sanchez, 1995). The third dimension is being customer-accessible which is about the degree to which an organisation is willing to make critical information available to customers. Therefore, customer orientation is regarded as providing important information to meet customers' needs rather than mere friendly customer service and internal operational details (Cho & Park, 2003) along with a specific strategy and system for delivery linked to communicating with and/or supporting customers (Boyer et al., 2002). It is especially aware that accessibility waiting time may interfere negatively with customers' trust. It is also hypothesised that customer orientation is a multidimensional construct which includes the following four major components: customer intimacy, customer welfare, company transparency, and continuous improvement.

The dimensions of validity and reliability are approved and supported by several studies (Hajjat, Mahmood M., 2002). Marketing practitioners and researchers (for example, Bell, Menguc, & Stefani, 2004; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Montes, Fuerites, & Fernandez, 2003; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Todd, Brown, & Mowen, 2004) claim that customer-centric organisations, both internally and externally, offer superior value. Table 3 shows the common ECO measuring items.

Table 3: External Customer Orientation Measures

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
1	Customer Closeness Scale type: 5-point Likert	1. Continually commit to and communicate with customers. 2. Readiness to understand and provide customers' changing needs effectively.	Hajjat, (2002); Deshpande et al., (1993); Nahm et al., (2004); Heikkila, (2002); Samaranayake, (2005); Tu et al., (2004); Bowen et al., (1989); Conduit & Mavondo, (2001); Nielson (1998); Jeong & Hong (2007)
2	Customer Flexible Scale type: 5-point Likert	1. The level of awareness of customers' preferences and expectations. 2. Intention and willingness to respond in a rapidly changing market	Aranda (2003); Barad & Even (2003); Garavelli (2003); Sommer (2003); Zhang et al. (2003); Kerwin (2003); Sethi & Sethi (1990); Gupta & Somers (1996); Sanchez (1995); Lau (1996); Jeong & Hong (2007)
3	Customer Accessible Scale type: 5 point-Likert	3. The degree to which an organisation is willing to make critical information available to customers.	Cho and Park, 2003; Boyer et al., 2002; Hanson, 2000; Bauer et al., 2002; Jeong & Hong 2007
4	Customer Intimacy Scale type: 7 point-Likert (1) ``strongly disagree" to (7) ``strongly agree" or (1) ``not at all" to (7) ``to a great extent"	1. Customers play a consultative role in the selling/service process. 2. Customers are not promised more than can be delivered. 3. Employees understand what product/service attributes customers' value most. 4. Customers are given information that helps to develop realistic expectations. 5. Employees go beyond the normal call of duty to please	CUSTOR Measure, Hajjat, Mahmood M. (2002)

		customers.	
5	Customer Welfare Scale type: 7 point-Likert (1) ``strongly disagree" to (7) ``strongly agree" or (1) ``not at all" to (7) ``to a great extent."	6. Company has a system for monitoring, analysing, and solving customer problems. 7. Customers can raise complaints very easily. 8. Information is continually sought and collected from customers. 9. Policies and procedures that do not create value for customers are eliminated.	CUSTOR Measure, Hajjat, Mahmood M. (2002)
6	Company Transparency Scale type: 7 point-Likert (1) ``strongly disagree" to (7) ``strongly agree" or (1) ``not at all" to (7) ``to a great extent."	10. Employees understand the company mission and objectives. 11. Customer needs take precedence over the company's internal needs. 12. Employees are given adequate resources to meet customer needs. 13. Customers' input and feedback are used into the product development process.	CUSTOR Measure, Hajjat, Mahmood M. (2002)
7	Continuous Improvement Scale type: 7 point-Likert (1) ``strongly disagree" to (7) ``strongly agree" or (1) ``not at all" to (7) ``to a great extent."	14. Company continually improves cycle time for technologies, processes, and products. 15. Company continually reduces research and development. 16. Company continually invests in developing new ideas. 17. Management considers constant innovation a key to obtaining and sustaining competitive advantage.	CUSTOR Measure, Hajjat, Mahmood M. (2002)
8	Customer Orientation for a service firm Scale type: 5 point - Likert	1. This organisation measures customer satisfaction on a regular basis. 2. This organisation understands its customers' needs. 3. This organisation sets objectives in terms of customer satisfaction. 4. This organisation attempts to create value for the customer. 5. This organisation is totally committed to serving its customers well. 6. Senior management of this organisation is committed to doing its best for the customer. 7. Senior managers in this organisation talk a lot about customer satisfaction. 8. Senior managers' actions back up	Boshoff & Allen, (2000)

		a verbal commitment to customer service. 9. Senior managers in this organisation go out of their way to ensure that customers are satisfied.	
9	Customer Orientation	1. Employees try to figure out what a customer's needs are. 2. Employees try to find out what kind of product/service would be most helpful to a customer. 3. Employees try to help customers attain their goals. 4. Employees have the customer's best interest in mind. 5. Employees try to influence a customer by information rather than by pressure. 6. My company systematically measures how satisfied employees are.	Saxe & Weitz (1982); Conduit & Mavondo (2001); Anosike & Eid (2011)
10	Intelligence Generation	1. In this business unit, we meet with customers at least once a year to find what products or services they will need in the future. 2. Individuals from our manufacturing department interact directly with customers to learn how to serve them better. 3. In this business unit, we do a lot of in-house market research. 4. We are slow to detect changes in our customers' product preferences. 5. We poll end users at least once a year to assess the quality of our products and services. 6. We often talk with or survey those who can influence our end users' purchases (e.g., retailers, distributors). 7. We collect industry information by informal means (e.g., lunch with industry friends, talks with trade partners). 8. In our business unit, intelligence on our competitors is generated independently by several departments. 9. We are slow to detect fundamental shifts in our industry (e.g., competition, technology, regulation).	MARKOR scale, Kohli et al. (1993)

		10. We periodically review the likely effect of changes in our business environment (e.g., regulation) on customers.	
11	Intelligence Dissemination	1. A lot of informal "hall talk" in this business unit concerns our competitors' tactics or strategies. 2. We have interdepartmental meetings at least once a quarter to discuss market trends and developments. 3. Marketing personnel in our business unit spend time discussing customers' future needs with other functional departments. 4. Our business unit periodically circulates documents (e.g., reports, newsletters) that provide information on our customers. 5. When something important happens to a major customer in the market, the whole business unit knows about it before long. 6. Data on customer satisfaction are regularly disseminated at all levels in this business unit. 7. There is minimal communication between marketing and manufacturing departments concerning market developments. 8. When one department finds out something important about competitors, it is slow to alert other departments.	MARKOR scale, Kohli et al. (1993)
12	Responsiveness	1. It takes us forever to decide how to respond to our competitor's price changes. 2. Principles of market segmentation drive new product development efforts in this business unit. 3. For one reason or another, we tend to ignore changes in our customer's product or service needs. 4. We periodically review our product development efforts to ensure that they are in line with what customers want. 5. Our business plans are driven more by technological advances than by market research. 6. Several departments get together periodically to plan a response to	MARKOR scale, Kohli et al. (1993)

		changes taking place in our business environment. 7. The product lines we sell depends more on internal politics than real market needs. 8. If a major competitor were to launch an intensive campaign targeted at our customers, we would implement a response immediately. 9. The activities of the different departments in this business unit are well coordinated. 10. Customer complaints fall on deaf ears in this business unit. 11. Even if we came up with a great marketing plan, we probably would not be able to implement it in a timely fashion. 12. We are quick to respond to significant changes in our competitors' pricing structures. 13. When we find out that customers are unhappy with the quality of our service, we take corrective action immediately. 14. When we find that customers would like us to modify a product or service, the departments involved make concerted efforts to do so.	

3.1.2 Internal Customer Orientation Measures

Internal Customer Orientation has a positive impact on competitive organisational culture and customer satisfaction (Conduit & Mavondo, 2011). In this process, employees are required to identify other employees as internal customers rather than focusing on external end-customers' needs only (Mohr-Jackson, 1991). This confirms the impact and positive association between internal customer orientation and service quality as well.

Recent marketing writers (see for example; Herington, Johnson, & Scott, 2006) consider the organisation employee relationship mandatory for customer-organisation relationships that lead to business success. In addition, employees highly impact on customers in service interactions (de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001; Denby-Jones, 1995). Employees act as a critical link in this chain of networks; and in service organisations, they are the major link in relationships (Gummesson, 1999; Kandampully & Duddy, 1999; Anderson & Weitz, 1989).

Empirical evidence claims a close relationship between internal customer orientation and internal service quality, leading to the communication of organisational values, creating a better work environment, and enhancing productivity and effectiveness (Anosike & Eid, 2011; Naude et al., 2003; Conduit & Mavondo, 2011). Internal customer orientation is a key basis for internal service quality and interdepartmental connectedness because service employees are empowered by knowing the internal customers' needs and internal functional synergy is enhanced for the organisation's benefit. The measure dimensions of internal customers' orientation, such as confidence, recognition, reward and consistency, have to be understood as a step in sustaining and developing internal branding initiatives (Vallaster & Chernatony, 2005; Engelund & Buchhave, 2009).

Farrell (2002) believes that if an organisation expects employees to be advocates of the brand, it needs to show them respect and trust, and engage and recognise them, appreciating their contribution. Kapferer (2008), Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, and Berthon (2002) state that engagement is made possible by the process of internal branding. Boyd and Sutherland (2006) identify internal branding as a critical concept focused on the employees in an organisation. They claim that being employee- or customer-focused are like each other but are closely connected. Scheys and Baert (2008) argue that employees' behaviour acts as a crucial element in facilitating the internal branding process and whenever there is an internal orientation of the brand it is essential for employees to adapt their behaviour to deliver end results for the business. Job satisfaction, job effectiveness, service recovery performance and reducing employees]' turnover intentions are found to be positively related to internal customer orientation (Rod & Ashill, 2010). It is found that the intention of the employees largely influences internal customer orientation and internal branding to stay in the organisation and the perceived person-organisation fit of these employees. Internal customer orientation motivates employees to deliver valuable quality service (Anosike & Eid, 2011; Conduit & Mavondo, 2001) which is critical for business success. Accordingly, internal customer orientation leads to internal service quality and in turn to customer orientation (Frost & Kumar, 2001; Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003).

Service employees who are empowered to make the decision to satisfy customers are more likely to provide superior outcomes for internal and external customers (Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000). Anosike and Eid (2011) indicate that internal customer orientation generates internal service quality which thus supports customer orientation. And for customer satisfaction to be achieved, organisations need to stress the balance between their internal and external orientation (De Chernatony, et al., 2003). As seen in Table 4, common ICO measuring items are presented.

Table 4: Internal Customer Orientation Measures

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
1	Internal Customer Orientation	1. In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer. 2. We constantly seek to increase the value of and the services we provide to other departments. 3. We collaborate with other departments to ensure we understand their on-going requirements. 4. Top management stresses the need to treat other sections as customers. 5. We charge other departments the true value of our goods/services. 6. Other departments systematically evaluate the quality of the products and services we offer them.	Conduit & Mavondo (2001); Anosike & Eid (2011) Scale type: 5 point-Likert

3.1.3 Internal Service Quality Measures

Moreover, per the related literature, recent studies view service quality as "The customer's evaluation of the standard of service received across the domains of reliability, responsiveness, and empathy" (Chenet, Dagger, & O'sullivon, 2010). To create superior service value, customer orientation and coordination across departmental barriers must be the focus (Narver & Slater, 1990). Webb et al. (2000) claim that customer orientation positively relates to service quality and satisfaction. Interactive customers provide opinions on the received delivered quality service and hence build and evaluate, according to Webb et al, 2000. As described by the service quality theory, customer satisfaction is transformed into a developed enhanced service quality through points of contact, but the actual value adding interface is the service encounter (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1988).

Many authors (e.g., Deming, 1986, 1993; Juran, 1988, 1993, 1995; Crosby, 1979; Feigenbaum, 1991; Garvin, 1987; Grönroos, 1990; Zeithaml et al., 1990; Gummesson, 1992) have studied the service quality dimensions. Cronin and Taylor (1992, 1994); and Boulding et al. (1993) submit that service quality is conceptualised best on customers' perceptions of performance. They also support the view that service quality makes for customer satisfaction. Punjaisri and Wilson specifically studied internal service quality, 2010, Menon, et al. 1997; and Anosike & Eid, 2011; all agree that internal service quality depends heavily on such factors as customer orientation, organisational culture, interdepartmental communication, and other associated factors of the same kind. Internal service quality is found essential for improving internal customer relationship and effectiveness outcomes (Bruhn, 2003) and, as a reasonable expectation, it influences customer orientation (Anosike & Eid, 2011).

Anosike and Eid (2011) examine the integration between internal service quality, customer orientation and internal customer orientation and discover that internal customer orientation leads to internal service quality, which in turn supports the customer orientation that helps to enhance organisational behaviour and improve business (Anoskie & Eid, 2011). This variable circulates a chain of linked functional units with the aim of providing service to external customers (Marshall et al., 1998) and hence generates the basis for continuous improvement (Koska, 1992; Reynoso & Moores, 1995; Young & Varble, 1997; Frost & Kumar, 2000). Internal quality is vital to the outward quality provided to external customers (Berry et al., 1990; George, 1990; Gronroos, 1990; Silvestro et al., 1992). The more focus is given to internal service quality, the higher customer satisfaction (Johnson, 1996; Schneider & Bowen, 1985).

A study by Podnar & Golob (2010) hypothesises that work flexibility improves service quality in an organisation. As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, work flexibility takes various forms such as working conditions, employment status, time and workplace regulations, etc. and has been identified as a tool to increase the productivity and efficiency of internal customers while increasing their job satisfaction. Podnar & Golob (2010) claim that very few authors have tried to link work flexibility with internal marketing and argues that internal marketing lies at the core of flexible organisations and that it is linked with the quality delivery of services (Podnar & Golob, 2010). To ensure competitive service quality, employees must be well informed, with a smooth flow of knowledge (Ramlal, 2004).

Menon et al. (1997); Punjaisri and Wilson (2010) accept that internal service quality is dependent on factors such as customer orientation, organisational culture, and interdepartmental communication. SERVQUAL was one of the first conceptual measures of service quality proposed by Gronroos (1985; 1990) and Parasuraman et al. (1985). This measure suggests that pre-service expectations and actual service delivery influence service quality. A study by Berry, Zeithaml & Parasuraman (1985) posits that the service quality measure covers 10 dimensions derived for the SERVQUAL scale. These are reliability, communication, security, credibility, tangibles, courtesy, understanding the customer, responsiveness, competence, and access. They are considered the basis of the service quality paradigm. Jabnoun & Rasasi (2005), using some measures of SERVQUAL, establish that dimensions such as personal skills, values, reliability, and image are major factors in determining service quality in conventional banks in the UAE.

Organisations implementing an internal service-oriented culture or an employee-oriented service environment are more likely to have a positive influence on customers' confidence (Kunda & Vora, 2004). Lovelock (2000) claims that most of the branding literature focuses on goods and/or products, service management or brand management rather than services themselves or the services branding sector; hence the attention of theorists has not reached the expectations of the service sector nor its growth. Service branding is activated through individual interaction and promise delivery and involves senior management teams from cross-functional organisational departments. Clifton & Maughan, 2000; Gronroos, 1978; Berry, 1981; de Chernatony & Harris 2000; Schneider & Bowen, 1993; and Browning, 1998 believe that Human Resources activities and functions such as recruitment, training and motivation have a major role in successful service quality; hence in customer satisfaction.

To maintain high-quality service, employees must be empowered and authorised to better serve customers. Studies such as Laschinger et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 1997; McDonald & Siegall, 1993; Riggs & Knight, 1994; and Brown et al., 1993 identify significant relations between empowerment and job satisfaction. Boshoff and Mels (1995) conclude that a participative management style helps to enhance quality service performance. Moreover, the "supervisory control systems" suggested by Zeithaml et al., 1990 can eliminate the differences between service quality specifications and actual service delivery. Heskett et al. (1994) report that service quality stimulates customer satisfaction and loyalty. Table 5 presents common ISQ measures and items.

Table 5: Internal Service Quality Measures

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
1	Reliability; ability to perform the promised service accurately	1. Do customer satisfaction measurements fairly reflect what we do?	Berry & Parasuraman, (1991); and SERVQUAL by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988). Scale type: 5 point-Likert
2	Tangibility; physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel	2. Does customer satisfaction measurement produce actionable outcomes?	
3	Responsiveness; willingness to help customers and provide prompt service	3. Does management listen to and respond positively to our explanations?	
4	Assurance; knowledge and courtesy among employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence	4. Do we trust customer satisfaction measurement and how it is used by management?	
5	Empathy; the caring and individualised attention that the firm provides to its customers	5. Is customer satisfaction measurement about diagnosis and support or management control?	
6	Internal Service Quality	1. I would say the quality of my interaction with co-workers/departments is excellent. 2. I would say my interaction with employees is very positive. 3. I am highly satisfied with the interaction I have with my colleagues.	Brady & Cronin (2001); Anosike & Eid (2011)

3.1.4 Interdepartmental Connectedness Measures

As discussed thoroughly in Brady & Cronin (2001); and Anosike & Eid (2011) (see the previous chapter), interdepartmental communication and coordination are covered in detail by Kohli & Jaworski 1990; Anosike & Eid, 2011; Barclay, 1991; Kleinbaum et al., 2008. This element focuses on interaction between individuals across functional departments, which can impact on an organisation's service level in terms of integration, coordination, and reducing cross-functional barriers (Denison &

Hart, 1996; Pitta & Franzak, 1996). Interdepartmental integration may lead to effective cooperation which in turn results in high organisational performance (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001).

Anosike & Eid (2011) indicate a link between interdepartmental interaction and product and/or service quality and suggest that internal communication is critical to aligning information in an organisation. Menon et al., (1997) reveal that interdepartmental connectedness has an impact on product and/or service quality. They state that inter-departmental connectedness appears to be more dominant when the underlying condition of the organisation is not very stable. Similarly, a theoretical rationale for interdepartmental connectedness has attracted the research interest of many authors over the time (e.g., Kholi et al., 1993; Menon, Jaworski, & Kohli, 1997; Narver & Slater, 1990). It is suggested the interdepartmental integration greatly affects the product and/or service quality achievement (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001).

It is argued that service contexts where tensions arise among functional departments are more likely to inhibit the positive facilitation of external customer orientation (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Mavondo, 2001; Menon et al., 1997). Hence, positive interdepartmental communication leads to interdepartmental connectedness and facilitates coherence across functions (Anosike & Eid, 2011). Interdepartmental interactions can be increased by adopting a management style that is ready to embrace risk in the culture; decentralisation in the form of employee empowerment and a reward system based on market similarities (Menon et al., 1997).

Devasagayam et al (2010) show that internal organisational brand communities are a viable strategy for targeting the internal branding participants; and that these communities provide strong support for internal and external audiences. The authors also claim that communications and external branding initiatives are used internally among employees to build positive brand affinity and brand associations which can help increase the emotional buy-in of the employees. Thomson et al. (1999); Davis (2001); Jacobs (2003); and Buckley (2002) posit that engaging employees in designing the internal branding program boosts its effectiveness.

The related literature discusses some cross-departmental measures such as partnership infrastructure, which is an integrated cross-functional relationship for enhancing performance. Effective long-term internal relationships require trust, commitment, fairness, shared information, shared rewards/risks, and open communication are required (Spekman et al., 1998; Ragatz et al., 1997; Nilson, 1998). All of these things stimulate desirable behaviours (Nahm et al., 2004). Another factor is information sharing in real time, quality, and the priority sharing of information which reduces delay and delivery risks (Spekman et al., 1998; Mason & Towill, 1997; McAdam & McCormack, 2001), given the high speed of technology where information flows over time (McAdam & McCormack, 2001).

The high quality communicated information reveals accuracy, credibility, and adequacy (Monczka et al., 1998; Holmberg, 2000). Operational practices in customer-centric firms may lead to lean systems and time-based management by reducing unnecessary costs, time, and processes (Rich & Hines, 1997; Handfield & Nichols, 1999). Such components increase flexibility and reduce delays (Tu et al., 2004). Customer management comes through sustainable value-added practices such as a committed relationship with customers, satisfaction enhancement and complaint management (Tan et al., 1998; Tracey & Tan, 2001).

Nahm et al. (2004) found that customer orientation enables supportive managerial beliefs which are critical in cross-functional integrative tasks to be shared (Chen & Small, 1994; Ramamurthy & King, 1992). When managers believe that strategic cross-functional relationships are very important, even critical, to competitiveness, then they will not try to be flexible and share information that encourages employees to participate in reducing process time (Monden, 1983). Moreover, Huang & Tsai (2013) develop a seven-point Likert-scale questionnaire with scores ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”; where cross-functional integration includes measuring, items revised from Kahn (2001) such as cross-functional meetings, individual functional departments exchange records, reports, and documents for understanding the status of other departments and the understanding of individual departments by other departments using e-media tools.

For organisations to be brand oriented, a major tool is cross-functional integration using methods such as periodic meetings, reports, and memorandum exchanges in which functional activities with added value are constantly created (Huang & Tsai, 2013). Cross-functional integration and co-ordination are argued to be the major hub for internal branding service development (Denison & Hart, 1996; Pitta & Franzak, 1996). Table 6 shows common measuring items and scales for Interdepartmental Connectedness.

Table 6: Measuring Interdepartmental Connectedness

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
	Interdepartmental Connectedness	1. Cross-functional meetings held by individual functional departments on regular basis. 2. Individual functional departments exchange records and memorandums for understanding the status of other departments.	Huang & Tsai (2013) adopted from Kahn (2001)

		3. Individual functional departments exchanging reports and documents so as to understanding the status of other departments. 4. Individual departments understand the status of other departments by means of periodic reports, through email, telephone, or video conferencing (interaction using electronic media).	Scale type: 7 point-Likert
	Interdepartmental Connectedness	1. In this business unit, it is easy to talk to virtually anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position. 2. There is ample opportunity for informal "hall talk" among individuals from different departments in this business unit. 3. In this business unit, employees from different departments feel comfortable calling each other when the need arises. 4. Managers here discourage employees from discussing work-related matters with those who are not their immediate superiors or subordinates. 5. People around here are quite accessible to those in other departments. 6. Junior managers in my department can easily schedule meetings with junior managers in other departments.	Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Anosike & Eid (2011); Menon et al. (1997) Scale type: 5 Point-Likert

3.1.5 Internal Branding Measures

Internal branding mediates by aligning employees' behavior with organisation's identity (e.g. de Chernatony, 2001; Keller, 1999; LePla & Parker, 1999; Macrae, 1996; Mitchell, 2002; Tosti & Stotz, 2001; Urde, 1994; Harris & de Chernatony, 2001; Balmer & Soenen, 1999). Employee engagement is a major basis for internal branding since it is only when employees are able to get the process and promise of the brand that they can deliver it to customers (Ghauri & Gronhag, 2005). Farrell

(2002) argues that organisations should be sure what customers and employees expect from companies and what should be delivered by employees. Internal branding circulates efficiency and effectiveness through the employees (Jacobs, 2003).

Punjaisri et al (2008) also claim that internal branding encourages employees' behaviours to present the brand adequately and deliver its promise. Drake, Gulman, and Roberts (2005) regard internal branding as a marketing tool which motivates employees to function as a committed workforce and reflect customers' experiences in line with the brand promise. Recent research on internal branding promoted supervisory behaviour as a critical factor (Miles & Mangold 2004; Wieseke et al. 2009) but the challenge is to determine how the organisation structure supports this.

In this sense, leadership should constantly play a critical role since it oversees stimulating the brand identity and mediates between employees and the organisational rules and systems; all of which should encourage desirable behaviours and pave the way for the integration of internal brand building (Giddens, 1979). Burmann et al. (2009) claim that building and managing a reliable strong internal brand is becoming more significant, in addition to other considerations such as employees' performance and the quality of the provided product and/or service which are strongly required to stay competitive (Burmann et al., 2009).

In-service organisations, the delivery of the brand is determined by employees' effectiveness in showing organisational core values to customers (Balmer & Gray, 2003). De Chernatony (2002) posits that in-service organisations, the employees' behaviour is what shapes the corporate brand. Therefore, internal branding activities are as important as external ones in conveying the brand promise to customers

(Cleaver, 1999). It is a multi-disciplinary practice which requires cross-functional teams for both institutionalisation and program design. This is an important factor for the brand and business success since it is the bridge between the strategy and its implementation (Mahnert & Torres, 2007). Researchers (see Meyer et al*.,* 2002; Mowday, 1998; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) find that successful internal brand building is positively associated with employee commitment; employees are encouraged to show brand supporting behaviours that lead to superior value (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Brodie et al., 2006).

The employees' brand building behaviour is also known as their contribution to a customer-oriented organisation (see for example: Heskett et al., 1997, 2003; Arnett et al., 2003; Bhattacharya & Sen 2003; Miles & Mangold 2004; Baron et al*.,* 2009; Bettencourt & Brown 2003; Bettencourt et al*.,* 2005; MacKenzie et al*.,* 1998; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Key internal branding principles mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, such as empowerment, education, and accountability and measurement, are suggested by Harold & Perry (1981) and Lloyd (2002) as significant organisational tools. These are also common dimensions among the research specified variables (customer orientation, internal customer orientation, internal service quality, and interdepartmental connectedness).

Ind and Bjerke (2007) focus on an organisation-wide internal branding approach that can be adopted for better service delivery. Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) identify the impact of internal branding on the delivery of the employees' brand promise as the most important in delivering the service and/or product as promised by the brand. They also find that brand identification, brand loyalty and brand commitment are the tools that influence the employees' attitude when delivering products or services (Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007).

The customer experience in delivery is the responsibility of organisations; a combination of organisational culture, human resources, marketing, evaluation, and leadership is required to create brand equity among customers. An organisation's approach is determined by considering all the factors concerned with consistent perceived quality, loyalty, and association. In this way, excellent customer experience can be achieved (Ind & Bjerke, 2007). Internal branding increases employees' level of empowerment (Causon, 2004), giving them detailed in-depth information about the organisation and its philosophy. Researchers have supported the successful use of internal branding tools such as (Ahmed et al., 2003; Brown & Lam, 2008; Conduit & Mavondo, 2001; Geralis & Terziovski, 2003; Kholi, Jaworski, & Kumar, 1993; Rafiq & Ahmed, 1993, 2000). Table .7 presents common IB measures and scales.

Table 7: Internal Branding Measures

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
1	Brand identification	1. My sense of pride in the organisation brand is reinforced by the brand-related messages. 2. I view the success of the brand as my own success. 3. The organisation is like a family to me. 4. I feel I belong to this organisation. 5. When someone praises this brand, it feels it is like a personal compliment.	Herrbach et al. (2004); Mael & Ashforth (1992); O'Reilly & Chatman (1986); Shamir et al., (1998)
		1. My commitment to delivering the brand increases along with my knowledge of the brand. 2. I am very committed to delivering the brand promise	adopted from Mohr et

2	Brand commitment	to our organisation customers. 3. I have a minimal commitment to this organisation. 4. I don't feel emotionally attached to this organisation.	al. (1996)
4	Brand loyalty	1. I will be happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation. 2. My intention to stay is driven by the fact that I am competent at delivering the brand promise.	adopted from Boselie & van der Wiele (2002)
5	Brand performance	1. The quality level of my services meets the brand standards of this organisation. 2. I can successfully fulfil the responsibilities specified in my job descriptions. 3. I effectively fulfil the promise that the brand has with its customers. 4. I always handle customers' specific requests in a standard set for the brand.	O'Reilly & Chatman (1986); Williams & Anderson (1991)
6	Training	1. Training gives me the appropriate skills in relation to delivering the brand promise based on the brand standards. 2. I am usually drawn to messages made up of colourful and attractive materials. 3. My organisation informs employees in an excellent way about things that are relevant to them. 4. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better suggestions for ways to do things.	adopted from Punjaisri & Wilson (2007)
7	Orientation	1. Orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the brand promise delivery. 2. I like the orientation kit and/or brand manuals of my organisation brand.	adopted from Punjaisri & Wilson (2007)
8	Group meeting	1. During the group meeting, I am clearly informed of the brand mission. 2. I clearly understand my role in relation to the brand mission after attending the	adopted from Punjaisri & Wilson (2007)

		group meeting.	
9	Management Support	1. The organisation I work for values my contribution to its wellbeing. 2. The organisation I work for strongly considers my goals and values. 3. Help is available from the organisation I work for when I have a problem. 4. The organisation I work for tries to make my job as interesting as possible. 5. My manager is willing to extend him/herself to help me to perform my job to the best of my ability. 6. My manager understands my problems and needs. 7. The organisation I work for acknowledges the efforts of employees.	King & Grace (2010)

3.1.6 External Customer Satisfaction Measures

In addition, customer satisfaction is the accumulation of customers' experiences and expectations of service performance and is used as a denominator between specific alternatives, brands, groups, and industries (Yi, Y., 1989; Meeks, 1984). It can be measured through multiple indicators (Johnson & Fornell, 1991) and is seen a strong strategic tool which leads to high-quality services (George, 1990; Varey, 1995). It is highly influenced by contact with customers and the nature of their interaction with firms (Crosby & Stephens, 1987; Kelley et al., 1990; Murray, 1979). Frontline employees' engagement and interaction with external customers' influence customers' attitudes and satisfaction (Bowen and Schneider, 1985; Organ, 1971; Woodside et al., 1989; Berry, 1981).

Lee (2005) acknowledges customer satisfaction as the core of business success and indicates that increased customer satisfaction can lead to better productivity and better profit realisation, an increase in reputation and hence better competitive advantage. Berry (1984) claims that service organisations mainly sell performance, which is driven by employees acting in a specific required manner but only if they want to. Theorists in management posit that the success and prosperity of businesses rely on employees' willingness to adhere to organisational goals in a supportive manner. The relation between perceived service quality and customer satisfaction has received much concern in the related literature (e.g., Taylor & Baker, 1994, Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Dabholkar et al., 2000; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1993; Spreng & Mackoy, 1996). Aspects such as the contact/ employee response, employee self-efficacy and empathy influence customers' perceptions (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Dabholkar et al., 1996). Most empirical findings indicate customer satisfaction because of perceived service quality (Brady & Robertson, 2001; Dabholkar & Overby, 2005). The customer's voice is an evaluation model of customer satisfaction which encourages the flow of valuable information to the organisation members and end users. Osborne and Gaebler (1992) mention various ways to motivate customer voice, such as customer or community surveys, customer follow-up or contact, customer contact reports, customer interviews, focus groups, customer service training, electronic mail, inspectors, a complaint tracking system, toll-free numbers, and suggestion boxes. Internal marketing theory encourages the motivating of employees to gain customer satisfaction (Adsit et al., 1996; Adsit et al. 1996; Schneider, 1994).

Lovelock (1992) and Schneider et al. (1998) suggest that Human Resource Management should be cross-functioned with services marketing and operations management, which emphasises the importance of interdepartmental connectedness. Empirical evidence shows a positive relationship between internal branding, customer satisfaction and service quality (Tansuhaj et al., 1987; Richardson & Robinson, 1986). Employees will be encouraged to perform their best to satisfy external customers (Berry, 1981; Donnelly et al., 1985; George, 1990; Sasser & Arbeit, 1976). Fornell (1991) reports that customer satisfaction directly influences the organisation's performance. Table.8 shows measures of the items and scales of ECS as the literature proposes.

Table 8: External Customer Satisfaction Measures

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
1	Expectations	1. Anticipated/stereotyped customer preferences and priorities.	Berry & Parasuraman (1991)
2	Perceived delivery of service	2. Internal priorities and criteria compared with external ones.	
3	Confirmation /disconfirmation	3. Judgements about customers and attitudes affecting future behaviour role stress and ambiguity.	
4	Complaining behaviour	4. Hostility to complaining customers and rejection leading to antagonism, self-protection and conflict.	
5	Customer Satisfaction	1. Overall satisfaction (initial question) 2. What is your overall satisfaction about X's business policy in general? 3. Compared to your expectations regarding X's business policy, how close to your expectations does X come? 4. How close does X come to delivering the services of an optimum company?	Andreassen (1994); Questions (1,2, 3) on a 10-point scale anchored "very little satisfied" to "very satisfied"; Question (4) on a scale from 1 to 10 (1= is far from, 10= is very

3.1.7 Job Satisfaction Measures

Last, as noted above, job satisfaction is "a pleasurable or positive state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976). It is conceptualised as an emotional state derived from employees' evaluation of their job (Babin & Boles, 1998; Brown & Peterson, 1994; O'Neill & Mone, 1998; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). It is also the individuals' attitudes to their jobs and has been identified as a global measure with multiple dimensions (Kelly & Hise, 1980; Brief, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002). Satisfied employees are argued to achieve higher levels of performance than those with low job satisfaction (Kelly & Hise, 1980; Brief, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002).

A theory by Heskett et al. (1994), called the service–profit–chain, calculates that organisations' financial performance comes from customer satisfaction, which is a result of employee performance, which is, in turn, an outcome of employee job satisfaction. Therefore, employees' job satisfaction greatly influences customer satisfaction. Researchers claim that job satisfaction is positively associated with service quality (Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991; Yoon et al., 2001; Reynierse & Harker, 1992). Sasser & Arbeit (1976) report that organisations must get the buy-in of internal customers and satisfy them before selling services to external customers, for this will drive their performance to business success (Gremler et al., 1994). Organisational elements such as the procedures and practices of human resources and leadership, pay scale policies, job surroundings, career development, the organisational climate and the social context have a high impact job satisfaction (Liao & Chuang, 2004; Harter et al., 2002; Chebat et al., 2002; Lum et al., 1998; Bitner, 1992; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Paulin et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Joshi & Randall, 2001; Lusch et al., 1996).

Other factors such as compensation, autonomy, fairness perception, and management support also have direct links with job satisfaction (Dabholkar and Abston, 2008). Their relevance to managing customer contact employees with a long-term organisational perspective is supported by the current marketing and organisational behaviour literature (e.g., Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Melhem, 2004; Paulin et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2005). Compensation is the employee's salary or benefits. It has been found that salary is positively linked to job satisfaction (Acker, 2004; Christen et al., 2006; Lum et al., 1998). Christen et al., (2006) define autonomy as the state in which employees are provided with independence and discretion to perform their jobs. The effect of job autonomy on job satisfaction is direct and positive according to empirical evidence (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Paulin et al., 2006).

Fairness perception is "the 'rightness' of outcomes, procedures and interactions in the firm" (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Some researchers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Paulin et al., 2006) have found a positive association between employees' perception of fairness (in areas such as leadership and supervisors' support, respect, concern and salary) with their job satisfaction (Babin & Boles 1996; Paulin et al., 2006). Other factors such as the organisation's ethical climate also show a positive impact on job satisfaction (Babin et al., 2000). Scholars (see for example Podsakoff et al., 1996; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Yoon et al., 2001; Alexandrov et al., 2007) find evidence that supportive leadership and managers' care and concern for employees positively impacts on job satisfaction.

Similarly, Hwang and Chi (2005) point out that internal branding generally contributes to job satisfaction. In the marketing literature, the non-financial contributing factors of job satisfaction are recognition programs, motivational practices, and empowerment (Timmreck, 2001; Snipes et al., 2005; Carless, 2004; Chebat & Kollias, 2000; Gonzalez & Garazo, 2006). These dimensions, over time, will lead to significant job satisfaction, higher employee performance, and higher levels of service provided to end customers (Allen & Rush, 1998; Wright & Staw, 1999) and hence long-term relationships as well as sustainable competitive advantage (Gronroos, 1997). Pratibha et al. (2007) mention a few moderating factors that may affect job satisfaction such as length of employment, level of skills and competencies and personality factors. Employees experiencing high levels of job satisfaction are more willing to engage in service-oriented behaviours than those who are less satisfied (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Netemeyer et al., 1997).

It is argued that empowering employees makes them more customer- centric and increases their readiness to offer internal service quality and hence meet customers' needs (Geralis & Terziovski, 2003; Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998; 2000). Satisfied customer-contact employees' behaviour assists both internal and external customers (Anosike & Eid, 2011; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Ahmed et al., 2003). Hence, job satisfaction is a positive outcome of internal service quality and customer orientation (Anosike & Eid, 2011). As a result, customer orientation is closely associated with high job satisfaction (Todd et al., 2004).

A direct positive relationship has also been identified between internal branding and job satisfaction; (Azizi, Ghytasivand, & Fakharmanesh, 2012). The positive impact of internal branding on job satisfaction is also evident in a services industry study by Al-Hawary et al. (2013), which reveals that internal branding dimensions such as communication, appraisal, feedback, customer consciousness and employees' training are closely and positively associated with improved job satisfaction. Effective internal branding implementation leads to work motivation and job satisfaction (Tansuhaj et al., 1991). Table.9 below presents the Job Satisfaction measures.

Table 9: Job Satisfaction Measures

No.	Construct/Dimension	Measure/Item	Source/Reference
1	Autonomy	1. The state of employee independence and discretion to perform their jobs	Christen et al. (2006); Mukherjee & Malhotra (2006); Paulin et al., (2006)
2	Fairness perception	2. A sense of the rightness of outcomes, procedures and interactions in the firm.	Bettencourt & Brown (1997); Paulin et al. (2006); Babin & Boles (1996);
3	Empowerment	3. Employees are given complete freedom in their work. 4. Employees are permitted to use their own judgment in solving problems. 5. Management lets employees do their work the way they think best. 6. Management assigns tasks, then lets employees handle them. 7. Management allows employees a high degree of initiative. 8. Management trusts employees to exercise good judgment.	Harold & Perry (1981); Lloyd (2002); Geralis & Terziovski (2003); Hartline & Ferrell (1996)
4	Job Satisfaction	9. I am satisfied with the information I receive from my superior about my job performance. 10. I receive adequate information from my superior about my job performance. 11. I am satisfied with the variety of activities my job offers me. 12. There is enough variety in my job. 13. I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job. 14. I am satisfied with the security that my job provides.	Hartline & Ferrell (1996); Anosike & Eid (2011);
		1. I am relatively well rewarded financially for my work.	Boshoff & Allen

		2. I am satisfied with the amount of pay I receive for the job I do. 3. I am satisfied with my working conditions. 4. Given the work I do, I feel I am paid fairly.	(2000) Acker (2004); Christen et al. (2006); Lum et al. (1998).
		1. I consider that my job is interesting and stimulating on the whole. 2. I feel that I am making an important contribution in the organisation I work for. 3. I feel hassled in my job. 4. I have too much to do in my job. 5. I enjoy doing the job that I do. 6. This is my ideal job. 7. I feel very positive about my job.	King & Grace (2010)
		1. I feel reasonably satisfied with my job. 2. I feel a great sense of satisfaction from my job. 3. I am satisfied with my overall job. 4. I would not consider leaving my current job should another job opportunity be presented to me. 5. I do not enjoy my job.	King & Grace (2010)

3.2 Research Methodology and Methods

This section addresses the research methodology process by first reviewing the current literature on research methodology, strategies, research design and methods. Second, it justifies in some depth the chosen methodology, research design, data collection, sample, and stages of fieldwork; these pay their part, bearing in mind the research objectives, research questions, and theoretical/conceptual frameworks. Finally, discussion and interpretation of the data analysed as well as the statistical techniques are all used to interpret the questionnaire results. The collected data are analysed in Chapter 4 and the data processing results and initial preliminary analyses are described in the form of descriptive statistics. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), the role of research can be described as "an effort to increase the total of what is already known, generally called the "body of knowledge", by discovering some new relationships and facts, using a systematic process of scientific inquiry which is referred to as the research process" (Chava Frankfort-Nachmias, 1996).

Therefore, a researcher needs to convince the reader that something new and valuable has been added to the existing body of knowledge. Kothari (2004) further focuses on the importance of the research. According to him, research is important in both the scientific and the non-scientific fields. He states that "in our daily lives new problems, processes and events occur on a regular basis; new and effective implementable solutions are essential in this context". Hence, research helps in understanding some of the most important natural phenomena and nature itself (Kothari, 2004).

Sekaran (1984) focuses on the aim of research and highlights the need for research to aim at addressing or finding solutions to a particular problem with the help of organised, systematic, scientific, data-based investigation and inquiry (Sekaran, 1984). Mason (1984), for his part, describes the process of planning and designing the research as determining the centrality of the research question in the context of research process by linking the research question with the methodological position and philosophical position of self, linked with the appropriate methods of data generation. In essence, the particular task of researchers is to direct the process of research with the help of systematic procedures (Mason, 1984).

Rajasekar et al. (2013) focus on defining the research methodology. In this context, they state that: "Research methodology is an organised and systematic manner of solving a research problem, in other words, research methodology is a science associated with studying that how a piece of research will be carried out."

Essentially, the research methodology is the procedure by which a researcher effectively describes and justifies the methods which will be used to conduct the research (Rajasekar, Philominathan, & Chinnathambi, 2013). These authors further differentiate between research methods and research methodology; they define research methods as the schemes, procedures and algorithms which are used in research. Research methods are the methods which are used by the researcher to collect, organise and analyse the data (Rajasekar et al., 2013).

Kitzinger (1994) deals with the importance of research methodology, according to him, the methods used in two studies may be the same while the methodology is different. Hence a researcher may give full details of her/his research methods. To do so, the researcher provides details about the chosen methods, scientific tools and the techniques which are relevant in the context of the research question and objectives (Kitzinger, 1994). An account of the research methods helps in exploring the solution of the problem. Furthermore, it is associated with descriptions of the following: the objective(s) in undertaking the research, method of formulating the research problem, types of data collected, method of collecting the data and the data analysis technique(s) used in the research (Kitzinger, 1994).

3.2.1 Research Strategies

There are several research approaches which can be classified under different taxonomies. One of the most common views differentiates the research strategy of empirical from that of theoretical studies. According to Babbie (1989), May (1997), Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), and Remenyi et al. (1998), scientific research involves two major elements, one empirical element and the other theoretical. The authors maintain that the value of social studies can be improved by establishing a link between the empirical and the theoretical elements through induction and deduction. Such links lead to two kinds of research strategy, research-and-then-theory and theory-then-research. The approaches discussed above are also known by the terms deduction and induction respectively, or the grand and the grounded approaches (May 1997; Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996).

Research-then-theory is carried out by discovering empirical generalisations from a given set of data (Hornberger & Corson, 1999; Lundberg & Young, 2005). The theory-then-research strategy or the empirical theorist strategy adopts an inductive strategy in order to build an effective theory, sometimes by establishing a relationship between different sets of variables (Hornberger & Corson, 1999; Lundberg & Young, 2005). The theory-then-research procedure is efficient if a causal approach is taken.

The research-then-theory is an efficient procedure but is unable to provide accurate answers until the solution to the research is obtained. Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe the grounded research approach, which is based on the strategy of research-then-theory strategy and state that: “The research approach of grounded theory is a qualitative research method that emphasizes using a systematic set of procedures to develop a theory which is derived using the inductive approaches about a particular phenomenon. The research findings revealed from a grounded theory include a theoretical formulation obtained from the investigation. It does not include the set of numbers or the group of themes which are related loosely. The grounded research approach helps in generating as well as testing the different concepts and relationships".

According to Anderson (2014) and Hornberger & Corson (1999), the two approaches are in conflict but both reflect different philosophies. Researchers use both strategies for building theories in their work and obtaining empirical results. In other words, both approaches are embraced equally (Anderson, 2014; Hornberger & Corsonba, 1999). However, it is believed that is impossible to be empiricist without having a total understanding of the theoretical issues surrounding the subject to be studied, and about which data will be collected. Remenyi et al., (1998) state that: "In practice, there is a dialectical relationship between these two aspects of research that reinforce each other. There are always theoretical assumptions associated with the collection of evidence and there is always evidence that underpins theory. Far too much is made of the distinction between empirical and theoretical research as both are central to any significant research activity and both are required to make any real scientific progress".

3.2.2 Research Methods

A research method or approach is defined as the orderly strategy for collecting new data. The exploratory methodology describes the strategy which directs an examination. In fact, many different research methods are used for data collection. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), Blaxter et al. (1996), Bryman (1989) and Remenyi et al. (1998), data can be classified as quantitative or qualitative in nature. The simplest way to distinguish qualitative data is the fact that they generally appear in verbal format and relate to situations, individuals, or the circumstances surrounding a phenomenon, while they are mostly quantitative if numbers are involved, often in the form of counts or measurements to give precision to a set of observations.

The fundamental classification relates to approaches, which are either quantitative or qualitative. The success of any research depends on the proper selection of these methods during the research as well as the relevance of their application to the research context. But it has always been a problem to choose between these methods since the appropriateness of each can be made only in relation to the context in which the research problem exists (Downey & Ireland, 1979). The following section discusses the nature of these two approaches and their different methods in the context of this research study.

3.2.2.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

Quantitative research was originally developed in the natural science. It involves the use of structured questions with predetermined response options and many respondents. Qualitative research, in contrast, is defined as a method involving the collecting, analysing, and interpreting of data through observation of what people do and say (Creswell, 1994). The quantitative approach emphasises the measurement of structural issues and the analysis of relationships between certain variables, not complex processes (Van Maanen, 1983; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

McClintock et al. (1979) claim that quantitative methods provide narrow but generalizable results. Quantitative approaches help generate specific measurements of social action, which can be described by accumulations of statistical data. In the view of Nettelton and Taylor (1990), quantitative research aims to i) Provide precise measurements for social actions by explaining the causal relationships related to specific events, and ii) Measure events by objective criteria. The quantitative approach focuses on the statistical generalisation of findings and seeks to explain and predict events in the social world by considering regularities and causal relationships between variables. Remenyi et al. (1998) argue that in quantitative research it is usually clear what evidence is required, and this evidence may be collected in a tight structure. Therefore, in the social sciences in general and marketing research data collection usually involves using a questionnaire. However, quantitative methods overlook social process and focus only on social structure, tending to isolate the research problem from its settings.

Leedy (1980) believes that quantitative research methods help in formulating hypotheses and follows the quantitative data analysis. Further, quantitative research seeks to predict from and explain the research problem using the deductive approach (Leedy, 1980). Leedy, Newby & Ertmer (1997) discuss the intention of quantitative research methods to establish, confirm and validate the associations between different variables by generalising, thus contributing to research. Creswell (2009) points out that quantitative research methods help to solve problem statements with the help of hypotheses and quantitative data analysis. He goes on:

"Quantitative research methods are based on the strategies that are based on enquiry such as surveys and the experiments. The data by quantitative research methods is collected by some predetermined instruments so that statistical data can be yielded, moreover, the quantitative research methods help in predicting, explaining, and confirming the findings of the research" (Creswell, 2009). Leedy et al. (1997) also focus on the methods of quantitative research. Regarding descriptive research methods, observational studies, survey research and developmental designs are widely used. The discussed research methods can be applied in various degrees for comparative and causal research (Leedy, 1997).

Khan (2011) focuses rather on qualitative research methods and believes that they help researchers to collect unquantifiable descriptive data, arguing that qualitative data are harder to analyse than quantitative data are (Khan, 2011). Williams (2011) points out that qualitative research methods are defined by their not yielding data in numerical form (Williams, 2011). For Leedy and Ormrod, (1980), qualitative research methods offer a comprehensive approach to research (Leedy, 1980). The authors state: “Qualitative research is an unfolding model that takes place in a natural setting and helps the researchers in developing the high involvement and high level of details with the actual experiences associated with the research”. In the same context, Creswell (1994) also posits that: “Qualitative research methods are associated with one of the identifiers that qualitative research is a social phenomenon in which the investigation is carried out from the viewpoint of participants”.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001) focus on choosing a research method, which has a dramatic influence on the findings of the research. Therefore, it is essential to choose critically between qualitative and quantitative research methods. In this context, the authors argue that qualitative research methods are less structured since they are focused on building new theories. Other researchers, as Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, (2004) addressed five major areas of qualitative research, namely, phenomenological study, content analysis, ethnography study, grounded theory study and case study. These five areas are developed on the strong basis of inductive reasoning and theories as well as the methodologies associated with them (Johnson, 2004).

One of the most important aspects of qualitative research is that it is based on an inductive premise rather than the deductive reasoning. Another major difference noted by Creswell (1994) is that in qualitative research, the investigator participates in the research phenomena which are being investigated. Bryman (1994) specifies that qualitative research is an approach which seeks to explain and analyse the culture and behaviour of humans and their groups, from the subjects' viewpoints. And despite its strengths, this approach has its own difficulties such as the access problem, the problem of interpretation (Bryman, 1995) and the problem of data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Bryman (1994) and Van Maanen (1979) claim that subjectivity, flexibility, and lack of accurate experimental control are mostly associated with qualitative data collection and analysis, which lead to the limited application of certain types of research (Kaplan & Duchon, 1988; Sykes & Warren, 1991).

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods help in exploring and investigating the different claims associated with knowledge. Both research methods can provide the best objective measure of reality. A study by Williams (2011) indicates that the researchers over quantitative research methods should prefer qualitative research methods when they want to understand and explore deep insights into and the complexity of a phenomenon Williams (2011). The qualitative and quantitative research methods are both associated with some advantages and disadvantages; therefore, investigators should choose the research methods according to the research problem, research objective and research questions. The knowledge of the researcher or investigator is represented in the selection of the research methods for the research (Johnson, 2004; Khan, 2011; Williams, 2011).

3.2.2.2 Survey Questionnaire

A survey is a widely-used data collection tool in research. Survey questionnaires are used for collecting information from a target group of people regarding a specific research question. Oppenheim (1966) notes that a questionnaire is a part of the survey process. Surveys require the investigator to select a population for the sample and the pre-testing instruments, to ensure the validity and then analyse the results (Oppenheim, 1966).

Remenyi et al. (1998) state that a survey is a preferred approach for accessing many respondents without incurring undue cost. It allows the responses of the respondents to be analysed quantitatively and moreover offers some qualitative evidence to support the research findings (Remenyi et al., 1998). In the social sciences, survey research is used to deal with some substantive problems. It offers several possible applications in the professional disciplines of the social sciences (Bryman, 1989). Bourque and Fielder (1995) claim that a self-administered questionnaire is one of the most effective means of collecting information from the respondents (Bourque & Fielder, 1995). Bryman (1989) also points out that the survey is a constructive method to consider for systematic data collection. The survey tool can be used alone or in combination with other tools. It has the advantage of abilities associated with versatility, ease of administration, ability of generalisation, standardisation and it is suitable for statistical analysis (McClintock et al., 1979; Hammersley, 1987). Questionnaire surveys are among the most common designs used in management and business research (Remenyi et al., 1998). However, Russell (2016) indicated some serious criticisms that are associated with it, for example, that it: i) Lacks the ability to allocate the subjects to the actions randomly, ii) Lacks the ability to discount rival hypotheses, iii) Leads to averaging and averages are not specific, and iv) Has a high number of validity concerns.

March (1982) and De Vaus (1996) maintain that surveys cannot produce knowledge of reality and are only ideological reflections. They further recommended the following:

1) Subjecting official statistics to scrutiny, to help in diffusing the criticisms of the survey.
2) Conceptualizing and organising the statistics, to help in ensuring the effectiveness of the survey.
3) Focusing on the design of the survey.
4) Presenting the statistics in an effective and user-friendly way.

Overall, questionnaires allow data to be gathered in response to “when”, “what”, and “how much” questions (Bryman, 1995; Remenyi et al., 1998; Russel, 2016). But they are less effective at answering “why”, “how” and “who” questions (Burton, 2000).

3.2.2.3 Case Study Research

A case study exemplifies a research approach which explores a phenomenon by using multiple data sources to study the research topic in detail (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Yin (1989) defines it as a kind of empirical inquiry that helps to shed light on a contemporary phenomenon in practice, which addresses situations where the boundaries between the context and phenomenon are not clear enough (Yin, 1989). Bryman (1989) posits that a case study represents a process with which in-depth knowledge and insights about an entity or event are obtained (Bryman, 1989).

Cohen and Manion, 1994; Merriam, 1988 claim that a case study is an approach used for representing a case associated with the research topic and it is one of the most important research methodologies in the context of empirical inquiry. The aim of the researcher is to use the case study approach to contribute to the findings of quantitative research. Wong (1992) and Remenyi et al. (1998) assert that a case study can be used more effectively in quantitative than in qualitative research. It can help accomplish various research objectives, such as:

1) To provide a description of the research and hence can link the case to the research objectives (Lenz, 2010).
2) To test the theories associated with the research subject, since theoretical frameworks are an essential part of research (Lenz, 2010).
3) To generate relevant theory (Lenz, 2010).

A major strength in the case study approach is that it can include both quantitative and qualitative research, as it accommodates several methods of data collection. This facilitates triangulation which checks on the validity of findings using different approaches to data collection (Jick, 1979). Moreover, case studies offer a more holistic, context-based approach with analytic generalisation, not statistical generalisation only (Yin, 1989; Bryman, 1995). Another strength highlighted by Jick (1979) is that it enriches other findings by detailed information on the research problem and may also provide important insights into future research (Jick, 1979). This approach also helps the investigator to investigate areas which are otherwise unethical to investigate (Jick, 1979). Further, Yin (1989) and Bryman (1995) state that a case study is an effective multi-sided and in-depth approach to research, focusing on aspects related to human behaviour and human thinking (Yin, 1989; Bryman, 1989).

But case study research is also associated with some limitations, such as being repetitious, hard to generalise from, and time-consuming. The results and findings in a case study can never be generalised to a wide population (Yin, 1989; Cohen & Manion, 1994). Further, the findings of case studies take some time to emerge and cannot be replicated since each case is linked to its own research problem (Yin, 1989; Cohen & Manion, 1994; Merriam, 1988). IN the view of Yin, 1989, case study design inherently lacks accuracy because the researcher's views could influence the findings. He also argues that such bias can impact on the survey design and the way that experiments are conducted. Therefore, while the case study approach provides broader coverage and a convincing description of the sample being studied, it still has the limitation of being unsuitable for research that seeks statistical generalisations (Cohen & Manion, 1994; Yin, 1989).

3.2.2.4 Triangulation

Practitioners posit that using only one method at a time is restrictive but the researcher can adopt two or three methods in the same study. Triangulation is defined as using two or more methods of data collection or a multi-method approach which allows the findings from one method to be checked against the findings from another. It is believed to be a means of reaching greater understanding of the evidence. A major concern and challenge faced by researchers is to ensure that the collected data are valid and reliable (Remenyi et al. 1998).

Hence, it may be important to use multiple methods to achieve validity and reliability (Jick, 1979; Van Maanen, 1979; Burgess, 2002). Denzin (1978) describes triangulation as an approach where multiple observers, theoretical properties, sources of data, and methodologies are combined. Although it demands more cost and time, it has the advantage of removing the bias that usually occurs with the use of a single method. Studies which use one method only are more exposed to errors linked to that specific method (Patton, 1990).

For Jick (1979), triangulation assumes that any bias in a data source, investigator, or method is neutralised in conjunction with other data sources, investigators and methods. He also claims that such methods can be drawn to use qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures (e.g. a survey and in-depth interviews). Bryman (1995) posits that both qualitative and quantitative methods have features are sometimes advantages or disadvantages. By using triangulation, the researchers can claim that the validity of their conclusions is improved if they can be shown to provide mutual confirmation (Bryman, 1995).

Table 10: Dissimilar Features in Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

	Dimension	Quantitative	Qualitative
1	Contact between researcher and informants	Brief or non-existent	Close contact with participants
2	Relationship between researcher and field	Outsider considering field by applying pre-defined framework to investigate subject	Researcher must get close and be inside the field of investigation
3	Theory/concepts	Operationalized	Emerge as research develops
4	Approach	Structured Researcher-driven	Open and unstructured Subject-driven
5	Findings	Time and place-independent Rigid, hard, rigorous, and reliable	Relate to specific time periods and locales Rich and deep
6	Location of Focus	On the material, as static and neglects role and influence of change in social life	On the linkage between events and activities and explores people’s interpretations of factors

			which produce such connections

Bryman (1995) lists five instances where an approach that combines methods in a single study is helpful:

a) Where convergence of the results is sought.
b) Where overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may emerge from complementary methods.
c) Where use in sequence enables the first method to help inform the second.
d) Where contradiction and fresh perspectives may emerge.
e) Where mixed methods add scope to the study.

Because the use of one method only is more susceptible to error linked to that specific method (Patton, 1990), whenever possible, it is best to undertake research using several data collection methods. This will overcome the disadvantages which the selected methods might cause in isolation.

The previous discussion about the research methodologies in the field of social sciences implies that there is no single “ideal” methodology that can fit all research situations. Each methodology entails some strengths and limitations. The question of the appropriate research methodology depends largely on the research objectives and research questions, which naturally vary across the research spectrum. Creswell (1994) and Remenyi et al. (1998) point out that the choice of research methodology is influenced heavily by the drivers of research questions and research objectives. The authors argue that the literature review of the research should address not only the research question or objective but should also focus on the suitable research methodology. According to Walker (1997), choosing the research methodology is one of the most difficult steps facing a researcher. He highlights some major factors that typically affect the choice of research methodology – such as time and money, the aims of researchers and their theoretical beliefs (Walker, 1997).

To sum up this section in the context of choosing a research methodology and selecting a single research approach, many authors claim that researchers can consider taking a methodological approach to their work (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Cook & Reichardt, 1979). Qualitative and quantitative research approaches have their own paradigms and origins; they are derived from different philosophical and theoretical perspectives. A paradigm is a frame referencing a researcher's assumptions (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). It is also the name for quantitative routines in a broad sense, characterised and conducted where theory and practice are taken together for the sake of justifying the facts. In the opinion of Holden and Patrick (2004), the chosen research methodology should depend on the philosophical instance rather than the methodological instance. There are huge differences between philosophical perspectives and implications in research (Holden & Lynch, 2004).

Holden and Lynch (2004) posit that the choice of research methodology should not be methodologically led; rather, the choice should be consequential upon the philosophical stance. They further suggest that philosophical approaches can be applied in social science research (Holden & Lynch 2004). Researchers emphasise that an intermediate philosophical approach helps investigators choose a research methodology consistent with the research philosophy and research problem. Different authors have different views on the topic of choosing a research methodology; some of them say that researchers should combine different research methodologies while others say that research methodologies should not be combined

(Goodwin & Goodwin, 1984). There is no unanimous view on the best research methodology, therefore researchers should focus on being aware and effective in defending their own choice in terms of their perspective on their research (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Smith, 1983; Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

3.3 Chosen Methodology in the Present Research

As previously stated and discussed in earlier chapters, the purpose of this study is to highlight the importance of internal branding and to develop a theoretical model that integrates the antecedents and enablers that contribute to internal branding and its consequences. This study aims to identify the influence of external customer orientation, internal customer orientation, internal service quality, and interdepartmental connectedness; enabling internal branding to lead to external customer satisfaction and job satisfaction. As per the literature review (Chapter 2), internal branding is a relatively new approach and no evidence has been found of any study on the antecedents and consequences of internal branding in general nor in the UAE context except for one study that has been published recently in the end of 2015 which is carried out in the Indian service sector and has a generic structure of internal branding with a completely different content compared to the present study.

A number of studies on internal branding itself, however, have been carried out in depth (see for example: Biedenbach & Manzhynski, 2016; Asaad, & Gupta, 2016; Terglav, et al., 2016; Tuominen et al., 2016; Erkmen& Hancer, 2015; Goodman, Sharma, & Kamalanabhan, 2012; Mueller & Schade, 2012; Balmer, Powell, Punjaisri, & Wilson, 2011; Foster, Punjaisri, & Cheng, 2010; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2010; Devasagayam, Buff, Aurand, & Judson, 2010; Podnar & Golob, 2010; Baron et al., 2009; Punjaisri, et al., 2008; K. E. Mahnert & Torres, 2007; Punjaisri &

Wilson, 2007; Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2006; de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006; Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006; Gapp & Merrilees, 2006; Aurand, Gorchels, & Bishop, 2005; Hankinson, 2004; Ind, 2003; Jacobs, 2003; Mitchell, 2002; Bergstrom et al., 2002; Chebat et al., 2002; Tosti & Stotz, 2001; Menon, Jaworski, & Kohli, 1997; Bowen, 1997).

For example; Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) study the role of internal branding and its impact on employees' delivery of the brand promise. Devasagayam et al. (2010) propose and test the appropriate factors of the brand community in the internal branding framework. Scheys and Baert (2008) consider how employees in service organisations adapt their attitudes and behaviour after the brand change. Almgren, Ek and Goransson (2012) discuss the relationship between internal branding and affective commitment. They state that service organisations require certain attributes to remain competitive and conclude that brand oriented recruitment, training, and leadership have a positive and significant impact on the communication and effective commitment of the employees. Holmgren, Schori and Wingard (2003) ask whether internal branding makes employees live the brand by creating a process model aligned with the business strategy to be used by the organisation.

Blumenthal (2001) studied how internal branding impacts an employee's quality of life. In the literature, the focus of internal branding studies is private sector organisations, more than public ones. However, efforts are being put forward to investigate the benefits of internal branding in the public sector where a major aspect of customer commitment and trust is the way that employees interact with customers. The current literature on non-profit organisations lacks what Schmitt (1999) describes as a 'spirit that pervades the entire organisation'. Andreassen (1994) claims that the public sector in modern economies greatly influences societies and individuals. To Etzioni (1964), the public-sector performance can best be enhanced by improving its effectiveness. The sector's critical challenge lies in reducing budgets while increasing customers' expectations and providing their needs at lower cost.

Contributions to the literature are therefore needed to guide organisations that are seemingly caught up in unanswered questions about using internal branding. There has been a call by some researchers to establish an integrative view on using internal branding and for it to be justifiable. Moreover, organisational cultures in the western culture vary and differ from the UAE in the type of work employees do. The outcome and results of the study are hoped to contribute to and enrich the internal branding concept and literature, expanding insightful knowledge beyond western contexts to that of the UAE government sector. Internal branding is believed, would assist in maximising the emotional buy-in of government employees and influence their attitude to the brand, which in turn, would improves their performance and hence the overall organisational performance.

3.3.1 Research Design

A research design is the development of choices that make up the expert arrangement indicating the systems and methods for gathering and examining the required data. An exploration outline is a legitimate and rational structure that lets the researcher address the research issues and questions. It stands out among the most vital segments of the exploratory approach. Yin (1989) states:

"Research design is a logical and systematic sequence that helps in connecting the empirical data of the research to the initial research questions so that ultimately the conclusions of the research can be obtained. A research design is an action plan that helps the researcher going from “here” to “there”. Here can be the set of questions which have to be answered whereas there is a set of conclusions or the answers of research. The journey from “here” to “there” includes a number of steps which have to be performed effectively so as to reveal the findings of the research” (Yin, 1989).

The design of the present study is positivist, using established theories. It has a positivist standpoint and adopts the approach of the natural sciences. In general, it has been determined that the positivist approach to research emphasises the meaning and creation of new knowledge that supports social theories which seek to change the world and eventually contribute to social justice. According to the positivist view, scholars and researchers usually explore facts, figures and the evaluation of statistics, writing and evaluating objectively, science, logic and reasoning (Blaikie, 2007). Positivism has the goal of presenting the truth everywhere and stresses the establishing of connections between the variables to uncover this truth. This establishment is made measurably and precisely (Silverman, 1993).

The theoretical product of this study, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2 is a conceptual model drawn from the current literature on marketing, modified to the demands and objectives of this study. This is quantitative in approach, using measurable strategies and numbers. It has relied on numerical estimations of specific parts of phenomena and from specific cases it infers general tendencies or tests theories and it likewise looks for estimations and predictions that other analysts could effectively replicate. Quantitative investigators pick up expectations and clarifications that apply to different locations and persons. Both primary and secondary data are gathered in accordance with the research objectives. The researcher gathered the primary data purposely for some reason or study.

Such techniques as individual interviews and/or surveys may gather them. Kolb (2008) says that primary information offers a more noteworthy level of control for the researcher. The primary data for this research are collected from a Five-Point Likert-type questionnaire and the measures of the questionnaire are constructed on the main variables identified for the research. The secondary data are data which exist already in some structure or other; they are the starting point for information accumulation as they form the first sort of information to be gathered (Kumar, 2002); this is known as documentary research which is drawn from the literature and academic articles to gain a significant understanding of concepts and theories.

The secondary data of this research come from the literature which is reviewed in Chapter 2; the relevant knowledge is derived from journal articles, previous research papers and scholarly references with a major critical focus on theoretical and methodological concepts of internal branding starting with its history, and going on to definitions, importance, relevant theories, antecedents, variables, constructs and consequences in line with the suggested research model; the literature covers the tools and techniques to promote internal branding, and the present gap in the literature is revealed. Through the literature chapter, the research model acted as a guide to identify related variables, different measured constructs, and items from questionnaires, until hypotheses could be created and a questionnaire designed.

In this research, the antecedents of internal branding (external customer orientation, internal customer orientation, internal service quality, interdepartmental connectedness) are the independent variables, while internal branding is a mediating variable. The consequences of IB (external customer satisfaction and job satisfaction) are the dependent variables in the equation. The next section provides an overview of the phases associated with research design, which are:

1) Reviewing the existing literature on Internal Branding.
2) Identifying the research problem.
3) Conducting quantitative research through the questionnaire survey.
4) Analysing the collected data.
5) Developing the findings.
6) Producing conclusions and recommendations.

3.3.2 The Literature Review

This study starts with a comprehensive review of the literature on Internal branding, namely Branding, internal marketing, and corporate marketing. This includes all the available references, including academic papers, textbooks, professional magazines and reports, and newspapers. The review contains the following parts:

1) History and definitions of internal branding
2) Existing studies and the importance of internal branding
3) Impact of internal branding on organisational culture
4) Success and failure factors, enablers and outcomes
5) Existing theories, tools and techniques promoting internal branding; focusing on the most common theories: the social identity theory, the brand-oriented company and internal brand building.
6) The present gap in the literature

The variables, antecedents and consequences concerned in the research:

1. External Customer Orientation (ECO)
2. Internal Customer Orientation (ICO)

3. Internal Service Quality (ISQ)
4. Interdepartmental Connectedness
5. Internal Branding (IB)
6. External Customer Satisfaction (ECS)
7. Job Satisfaction (JS)
8. Research Field

Hence, the literature review accomplishes several purposes:

- Provides results of other studies that are closely related to the current study.
- Relates this research to the ongoing dialogue in the literature about the topic (filling the gap and extending previous studies).
- Provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study (Cooper & Emory, 1995).
- Helps in establishing an effective theoretical framework related to the subject area.
- Highlights the terminology used in research and defines key terms.
- Establishes the area of the research topic (Khan, 2011).

3.3.3 Research Survey and Questionnaire Design

Survey design is used to characterise and calculate statistics, collecting multiple variables and conducting survey operations effectively. It is an important phase for obtaining results in a research study (Khan, 2011). Initially, the survey is an attempt to answer the research questions in further detail. A questionnaire has three types of question:

- Closed-ended questions that require the respondent to choose from a list of answers.

- Scaled-response question: closed-ended questions in which the response choices are measured on a rating scale (in this case a five-point Likert scale).
- Open-ended questions, which were not included in the present questionnaire

A mail survey provides the following advantages:

- A consistent stimulus to all respondents.
- Ability to sample a large group.
- A postal survey typically costs less in logistics than telephone interviews and much less than personal interviews (Bourque & Fielder, 1995).
- Wide geographical coverage.

It also has a number of disadvantages, among which are:

- No control over who responds to the study.
- Response rates usually low (according to Bourque & Fielder, 1995, the usual rate is no better than 15-20%).

As detailed at the beginning of this chapter, the hypotheses about the antecedents and consequences of internal branding are tested by reliable and valid tests. To this end, operationalization was used to convert conceptual definitions to operational ones, thus, attempting to operationalize the specified variables in terms of factors that affect their relationships. Accordingly, specific measures were derived from the literature and were justified and edited to suit the field culture. These measures were introduced and classified in the questionnaire, and all were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 5 (Strongly Agree) to 1(Strongly Disagree) - (See Appendix).

The hard copies of the questionnaire were distributed and picked up to ensure a high response rate, given that online surveys generally report very low response rates. The research questionnaire contained eight separate sections, each addressing one or more dimensions of interest. Section one consisting of eight items indicating:

1) Section One: Retrieve demographic and background information.
2) Section two asks about External Customer orientation, indicating the use of information in an effective and efficient way that changes employees' behaviours and viewing the services provided from an added value perspective. The section consists of six items derived from the literature (for example: Hajjat, 2002; Deshpande et al., 1993; Nahm et al., 2004; Heikkila, 2002; Samaranayake, 2005; Tu et al., 2004; Bowen et al., 1989; Conduit & Mavondo, 2001; Nielson 1998; Jeong & Hong 2007 (refer to Section 2.1 of this chapter - Table 4); Example: "The DED uses customers' feedback in the service development process."
3) Section Three Covers Internal Customer Orientation, asking about the end behaviours of the DED's members and their attitudes to delivering quality to suit other employees' requirements and needs. This construct is measured using 5 items taken from the literature (for example Conduit & Mavondo 2001; Anosike & Eid, 2011) - (Refer to section 2.1 of this chapter – Table 4); Example: "In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer."
4) Section Four represents Internal Service Quality, indicating the quality of service shown by units or employees to other units or employees in the DED. Using 6 items adapted from SERVQUAL by Parasuraman, et al 1998; Brady & Cronin 2001; Anosike & Eid 2011 (refer to section 2.1 of this chapter – Table

5); Example: “I would say the quality of my interaction with departments is excellent.”

5) Section Five consists of the construct Interdepartmental Connectedness indicating the level of formal and informal contact between employees and departments. This construct is measured using 6 items derived from Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Anosike & Eid 2011; Menon et al. 1997 (refer to section 2.1 of this chapter – Table 6). Example: “Cross-functional meetings are held by individual functional departments on regular basis.”

6) Section Six Concerns Internal Branding, that is, the grouped internal procedures and tools aligned together for the better empowerment and support of employees in achieving customer expectations and ensuring reliability, along with business values. Based on 7 items adopted from, for example, Herrbach et al. 2004; Mael & Ashforth 1992; O’Reilly & Chatman 1986; Shamir et al., 1998; Punjaisri & Wilson 2007; King & Grace 2010 (refer to section 2.1 of this chapter – Table 7). Example: “I consider the DED success as my own success.”

7) Section Seven highlights External Customer Satisfaction, indicating customers’ overall experiences and expectations of service performance; representing 4 items taken from Berry & Parasuraman 1991; Andreassen 1994 (refer to section 2.1 of this chapter – Table 8). Example: “Overall Satisfaction on the DED service performance.”

8) Section Eight presents Job Satisfaction, indicating the emotional state derived from employees’ evaluation of their jobs and their attitude to these jobs. This section consists of 8 items adopted from Christen et al. 2006; Mukherjee & Malhotra 006); Paulin et al., 2006; Harold & Perry 1981; Lloyd 2002; Geralis & Terziovski 2003; Hartline & Ferrell 1996; Anosike & Eid 2011; King &

Grace 2010 (refer to section 2.1 – Table 9). Example: "I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job."

At the front of the questionnaire, a cover letter lists the aims of the study and the procedures for completing and returning the survey. The questionnaire was compressed into nine pages. At the beginning of the first page were some short instructions explaining the purpose of the study, the principles that it was based upon, and an assurance of anonymity to the respondents. Each section had a separate and clear title, making it easier for the respondent to answer. All the questions were set out in tables. At the end of the questionnaire was a fill-in box for those who wished to add comments or provide their contact addresses to receive the key findings of the survey. To encourage maximum response, all the questions were carefully worded and revised several times to improve the clarity of the sentence structure. A set of instructions preceded each group of questions, telling the respondents what was required, and the meaning of each scale point in the answers.

With the task, clear and the questions easy to read, to raise the response rate, a series of follow-up telephone calls to section administrators was made to ensure that the drop and pick up method had been followed. Respondents were also guaranteed anonymity, but they were invited to include an e-mail address if they wanted to receive a copy of the study findings. The questionnaire development followed a three-phase process shown in Figure 7.

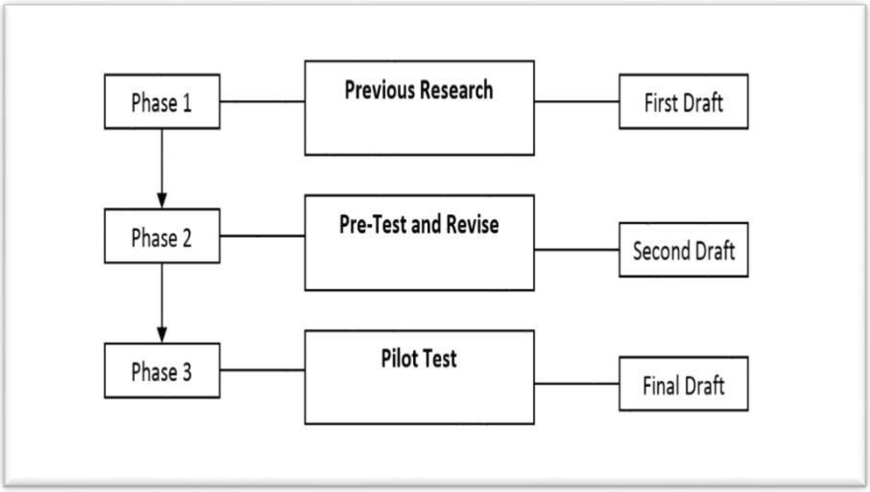

Figure 7: Questionnaire Development Process

3.3.4 Pre-Test and Revision

In this phase, the sample is subjected to pre-testing and the respondents are informed that they are in a pre-test phase. This phase helps the research to be more effective in obtaining results. Yin (2009) recommends that the sample be pre-tested and revised (Yin, 2009). Having developed the questionnaire, it was important to validate the instrument to make sure that it measured what was intended and gave the respondent clear and understandable questions that would present clear and understandable answers. This ensured that the questionnaire was a reliable tool for eliciting opinions on the issues under study.

Accordingly, the questionnaire was reviewed by four DBA academics and three field experts from the DED known to the researcher. They were asked to provide overall feedback and make any improvement suggestions or comments. The purpose of this was to assess the clarity of instructions, the simplicity and consistency of the questions, and their clarity and comprehensiveness. After this, the questionnaire was amended. To ensure the accuracy of the translation, the questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic and then back-translated into English.

3.3.5 Population and Sample

Kazeroon (2001) defines the sample in a research study in terms of its demographic as well as clinical characteristics. This helps when drawing conclusions and comparing one investigation with another. Kazeroon claims that a sample cannot be regarded as the target population but it can be described as a representative group of individuals who will be studied in the research. The target population involves all the individuals who are characterised by similar characteristics but the research findings of a sample can be effectively applied to a complete target population (Kazerooni, 2001).

3.3.5.1 Relevant Population and Procedures

Kumar, 2000, states that a population is the set of all the objects which have a common set of predetermined characteristics regarding a research problem. The aim in the present study was to select a population representing a local government department and the employees of the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development were selected. Consequently, the surest way of providing an equal probability of selection was to use the principle of random selection (De Vaus, 1996). A sampling procedure is defined as a procedure in which the techniques associated with selecting the sample items are decided and this phase affects the ability of the results of a piece of research to be generalised (Kazerooni, 2001).

3.3.5.2 Sample Type, Characteristics, and Size

Sampling is the technique used to pick significant respondents from a segmented population. A good sample configuration must help, for example, measurability, economy, objective introduction, and common sense. Sampling strategies or types are of two sorts, probability, and non-probability (De Vaus, 1996; Nachmias &

Nachmias, 1996; Olsen, 1999; Sekaran, 1984). As indicated by Pathak (2008), Simple Random Sampling is an inspecting strategy, which is used where a group of individuals in the population is picked out and every individual in the population has an equivalent chance of being picked. This method is used when part of the reason for picking certain people is simple accessibility.

A probability sample gives each person in a population an equal chance of being selected. Hence, all units will have the same probability of being included in the sample. To ensure a random selection method, specific procedures should be identified (e.g., Simple Random Sampling, Stratified Random Sampling, Systematic Random Sampling, Cluster Random Sampling or Multi-Stage Random Sampling). Khan (2011) posits that:

> "Random sampling ensures that every unit of the population has an equal chance or probability of being selected in the sample of the study whereas in non-probabilistic the probability to be included in the research sample is not equal" (Khan, 2011).

In non-probability sampling, some people have a greater chance of being picked than others in the same population. Non-probability sampling can be categorised into convenience sampling and purposive sampling. Convenience sampling is used when the researcher selects sampling units that are conveniently available. In purposive sampling, researchers sample with a purpose in mind. Model instance, expert, or quota sampling, can all be grouped under purposive sampling, as researchers know what they want – they are sampling with a purpose (De Vaus, 1996). However, for the purpose of the present study, probability sampling was preferable because it seemed more likely to result in a representative sample as well as the sample's accuracy.

According to Bacchetti (2005), sample size is the number of observations in a particular sample selected for a study. The author states that it is essential to choose an optimum sample size because those that are too small can negatively affect the accuracy and the findings (Baccetti, 2005). As empirically reported, supported generalisations are usually based on partial information because the object of enquiry is a population which has a finite number of individuals, each with a measure which is observable (Branett, 1991). It is also claimed that, due to time restrictions, it is not possible or practical to collect data from all the possible units of analysis enclosed in a research problem. However, specific inferences can be derived from a small population if the sample accurately represents the relevant attributes of the population (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996).

Sekaran (1984) argues that collecting data from a sample rather than from an entire population is an obvious advantage since research investigations normally involve hundreds or thousands of elements. Hence it would be impractical and impossible to collect data from or examine every element in terms of time, cost, and other human resources (Sekaran, 1984). For the above reasons, the population of this study was restricted to a representative sample of the DED staff in the expectation that the information gained would reflect the characteristics of the population as a whole. Bryman and (1998) posit that even if the units are small enough to be contacted, not all the units of a population can be included especially in large populations, owing to time and cost constraints (Bryman & Cramer, 1998).

Consequently, the efficiency of a sample can be indicated by the size of its sampling error regarding other samples of equal cost. Stratified sampling provides the smallest sampling error, and hence the most information for the available resources (Sudman, 1976). Moreover, a large sample size must be, adequate to remove bias and to meet the criteria required by the analytical methods used and to ensure that the collected data yield reliable inferences, for making recommendations and supportive decisions (Bryman & Cramer, 1998; De Vaus, 1996). Scholars also believe that the larger the sample, the greater the accuracy.

The required sample size depends on two main factors. The first is the degree of accuracy that a sample requires and the second is the degree to which there is a variation in the population that is relevant to the key characteristics of the research (De Vaus, 1996). Michael and Beck (1995) claim that simple random sampling yields a sampling fraction of 1/10. De Vaus (1996) considers that the accuracy depends on the type of the sample used and states that a population of 50 which has a sample of 10 would have a sampling fraction of 1/5 (De Vaus, 1996). Emory and Cooper (1991) specify that the exact sample size is more important than its size in regard to the population: “how large a sample should be being a function of the population parameters under study and the estimating precision needed by the researcher” (Emory & Cooper, 1991).

In this respect, the distribution of the sample in terms of the DED was an important element of variation in the population. Accordingly, the information was gathered from 309 respondents out of a possible 623 employees. This number represented about 49% percent of the whole. Moreover, as far as the respondents and units of analysis are concerned, according to Yin (2009), the sample selection is one of the most important phases in designing a study. The unit of analysis can be referred to as the major entity that the study analyses, the unit from which information is gained (De Vaus, 1991). It also refers to the entities about which theory poses concepts and relationships. The units of analysis and the respondents can be individuals or groups, to include the social interactions (Yin, 2009) or organisations, or a society.

3.3.6 Data Collection and Analysis Tools

According to Khan (2011), data collection and analysis form the core part of any research when the investigator has to adhere to all the ethics related to data collection and analysis so that the collected data can be effectively converted into useful findings (Khan, 2011). This study was carried out in the UAE in the context of the government of Abu Dhabi and, as previously mentioned (Chapter 1), the study target was the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development; the population sample was the employees of the Department of both genders of every organisational level (Directors, middle managers, seniors, technical professionals, juniors, and administrative officers).

Before the data collection process, a formal request explaining the purpose of the study and its importance and indicating the confidentiality of the research was sent to the DED top management office for the distribution of questionnaires to be approved. An email was sent to all the DED employees about the research requesting their cooperation. Hard copies of the survey for the total of 623 members of the DED staff were dropped off in all the DED sections and divisions. Participants from all organisational levels had a chance to express their views and convey their understanding of the topic. At the time of the distribution, the following was kept in mind:

1) The number of employees in each sector.
2) The percentage of employees who were present in each section at the time.
3) The need for administrative assistance to be secured in advance to make sure the employees received and returned the copies.
4) Hard copies were thought preferable because of the DED's poor response to online questionnaires.

Table 11: Survey Questionnaire Response Rate

Total number of questionnaires distributed to the sample	623
Number of completed and returned questionnaires	309
Unreachable employees	314
Ineligible returned copies	5
Response rate	49%

623 questionnaires were distributed of which 309 were completed and returned, including 5 unusable ones. According to De Vaus (1991), a common way of computing the response rate is to use the following formula: Response rate = Number of completed and returned / [N in sample- (Ineligible+ Unreachable)]. Several factors may explain this high response rate of 49% percent response rate: first, the questionnaire was designed so that it took only 15 minutes to complete. Second, care was taken to contact each sector's administrative officers via e-mail and phone calls during the distribution period to confirm that the copies distributed. Third, most employees were likely to perceive their participation in the study as further evidence of their perception that this study might herald beneficial changes for employees of the DED.

In addition, the factors included in the questionnaire were determined by a comprehensive review of the literature. The factors were also validated by several interviews with the DED experts to guarantee that content validity of the survey had been achieved. As planned, this study obtained responses from seven different sectors in the DED. The reliability of these responses was checked through data analysis. This was first done through data editing, coding, and data entry to SPSS to initially detect any errors and omissions, correct them where needed and certify that the relevant data quality standards had been met.

Second, the study variables were coded into formats for the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 22 used in the data analysis. Each variable was given a unique label to help set up the computer software to analyse the data. Each questionnaire was first checked for errors and omissions, then the answers were manually entered the computer and the data became ready for analysis. In this study the measurement of reliability was used item-to-total correlation. This method is considered the most common procedure used by researchers to guarantee the reliability of a multi-item scale (May, 1997). Further, frequency analysis was used along with several other statistical techniques to study the research variables and their relationships. The next part briefly discusses these techniques.

3.3.6.1 Factor Analysis

Khan (2011) states that factor analysis is essential if researchers are to reduce the data and interpret the results of the study (Khan, 2011). It is a generic name given to a class of multivariate statistical methods whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix (Hair et al., 1998). Factor analysis identifies the problem of analysing the structure of the interrelationship (correlation) between many variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions, known as factors. This tool is also used to check whether indicators bunch in the ways proposed by the a priori specifications of the specified dimensions (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). Through this technique, several new variables called factors are set up. However, these variables cannot be observed, nor can they be explained in terms of observations made by the researcher.

To sum up, data factor analysis brings up underlying dimensions which, when interpreted, can describe data in smaller numbers of items than the original number of individual variables. The core purpose of factor analysis to summarize the information contained in several original variables into smaller sets of new composite dimensions or variables (factors) with minimum loss of information (Gorsch, 1983; Hair et al., 1998; Field, 2000; Rummel, 1970). Other similar purposes of FA are:

- To select a subset of variables from a larger set based on which original variables have the highest correlations with the principal component factors.
- To create a set of factors to be treated as uncorrelated variables as one approach to handling multi-collinearity in such procedures as multiple regression.
- To validate a scale or index by demonstrating that its constituent items load on the same factor, and to drop proposed scale items which cross-load on more than one factor.
- To establish that multiple tests, measure the same factor, thereby giving justification for administering fewer tests.
- To determine network groups by determining the sets of people that cluster together.

3.3.6.2 Factor Analysis Requirements

Specific requirements have to be taken into consideration before factor analysis can be applied. These include sample size requirements, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, and the Kaiser-Mayer Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.

3.3.6.2.1 Sample Size Requirement

In Comfrey and Lee (1992), a certain sample size is necessary in factor analysis; they contend that only large-scale samples are adequate to carry factor analysis (Comfrey & Lee, 1992). MacCallum et al. (1999) report that the minimum sample size to variable ratio depends on other elements of the study constructs, and where commonalities tend to become less, the importance of the sample size increases. For all commonalities above 0.6, relatively small samples (less than 100) may be perfectly adequate, while communalities in the 0.5 range - samples between 100 and 200 in size - can be good enough, so long as there are relatively few factors and only a small number of indicator variables.

3.3.6.2.2 Bartlett's Test (BTS)

This is a statistical tool that can be used to test the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix (a matrix in which all on-diagonal terms are 1 and all off-diagonal terms. This test requires that the data be a sample from a multivariate normal population. The best result in this test is found when the value of the test statistics for sphericity (which is based on the Chi-square transformation of the determinant of the correlation matrix) is large and the significance level is small (Nunnally, 1978).

3.3.6.2.3 The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test

The KMO is a sampling measure of adequacy. It is also an index which is used to compare the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients to those of the partial correlation coefficients. The sum of the squared partial correlation coefficients between all pairs of variables ranges from 0.0 to 1.0, where small values indicate that factor analysis is not valid since the correlations between pairs of variables cannot be explained by the other variables. Kaiser (1974) describes KMO measures in the 0.90s as ‘marvelous’, in the 0.80s as ‘creditable’, in the 0.70s as ‘middling’, in the 0.60s as ‘mediocre’, in the 0.50s as ‘miserable’, and below 0.50 as ‘unacceptable’. For Kinnear and Gray (1999), too, the measure should be greater than 0.50 for a satisfactory factor analysis.

3.3.6.3 Steps of Factor Analysis

The first and most important step in factor analysis is the computation of a correlation matrix for all variables to determine if they have adequate relationships and consequently common factors. Factor loading is used to interpret new factors, followed by the extraction of the factors through multiple iterations to determine the minimum number of common factors that will explain the observed correlations between the variables. Third comes factor rotations, which transform the initial matrix obtained through extraction into one that is easier to interpret (Norusis, 1993). Finally comes factor naming and interpretation process, as briefly discussed below.

3.3.6.3.1 Test of Appropriateness

Generally, the variables of factor analysis are assumed to be capable of metric measurement. Sproull (1988) claims that factor analysis needs variables to be at least of interval while Hair et al., (1998) suggest that, in some cases, dummy variables (coded 0-1), which are considered non-metric, can also be used; and if all variables are dummy variables, then specialized forms of factor analysis are more appropriate. Further, it is important to consider that not all types of data can be used in factor analysis and specific requirements should be met before factor analysis is implemented.

3.3.6.3.2 Factor Extraction

After the appropriateness of factor analysis is tested, the method of factor extraction and the number of factors to be extracted should be determined. The core aim of factor extraction is to decide on the factors, and to set a minimum number of common factors to satisfactorily explain the observed correlation among the observed variables (Norusis, 1993). Norusis (1993) reports several factor extraction methods, such as:

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Principal Axis Factoring
- Alpha Factoring
- Image Factoring, and
- Maximum Likelihood.

PCA is a factor model in which the factors are based upon total variance. PCA is suitable when a researcher is concerned about the minimum number of factors needed to account for the maximum portion of variance represented in the original set of variables (Hair et al., 1998). Unlike Principal Axis Factoring (PAF), which analyses common variance only, PCA analyses all the variance of a score or variable, including its unique variance, if the test used to assess the variable is perfectly reliable and without error (Bryman & Cramer, 1990). Hence, in this study, the PCA method was used throughout, to ensure consistency in the factors and also to help decide the number of factors needed to represent the data, and when to end the extraction process, and estimate the final number of factors to be extracted. A number of criteria, such as commonalities, eigenvalues, and scree plot were measured.

- Commonality: this is a measuring aspect of the association between an original variable and all the other variables included in the analysis (Hair et al, 1998). It can range between 0 and 1m where 0 indicates that the common variance factors explain none of the variance, and 1 indicates that all the variance is fully explained by the common factors. High commonalities is the sign of a high degree of confidence in the factor solution (Norusis, 1993).
- Eigenvalue: this is the standard variability in the total data set (equal to the number of variables included), which is accounted for by an extracted factor in factor analysis. Only factors which account for variances greater than 1 should be included (Norusis, 1993).
- Scree Plot: A scree plot produces a descending graph plotting the amount of variance accounted for (in eigenvalues) by the factors initially extracted. The plot usually shows two distinctive slopes, one steep slope of the initial factors and a gentler one of the subsequent factors (Bryman & Cramer, 1990).

3.3.6.3.3 Factor Rotation

The purpose of all rotation is to simplify the rows and columns of the factor matrix and to facilitate the interpretation. However, no method of rotation enhances the degree of “fit” between the data and the factor structure; and any rotated factor solution explains exactly as much covariation in the data as the initial solution (Kim

& Mueller, 1978). Factor rotation also highlights the number of factor commonalities in each variable, the percentage of the total variance explained (eigenvalues), and the factor loading. Further, the most common method of rotation is either Varimax Orthogonal rotation, or Oblimin Oblique rotation. However, Varimax is considered the more popular of the two; it was used throughout this study.

3.3.6.3.4 Factor Loading and Factor Naming Process

Interpretation of the factors is the final step and most of the interpretations are based on the factor loading values. According to Hair et al. (1995), factor loading is the "correlation between the original variable and the key to understanding the nature of a particular factor; and squared factor loadings indicate what percentage of the variance in an original variable is explained by a factor". Additionally, to identify the factor, it is important to group the variables which have large loadings for the same factors. This can be done through sorting the factor pattern matrix so that variables with high loadings on the same factor appear together (Norusis, 1993). For this purpose, Comfrey and Lee (1973) present useful guidelines, for example that any loading greater than + or – 0.71 is excellent, + or – 0.63 is very good, + or- 0.55 is good, + or- 0.45 is fair, and + or-0.32 is poor.

3.3.7 Measurement Issues of Research Variables

The measurement issue is key to the success of any research. Peter (1979) posits that assessing measurement is crucial because; "…. Behavioural measures are seldom if ever totally reliable and valid, but the degree of their validity and reliability must be assessed if research is to be truly scientific." This is discussed below.

3.3.7.1 Validity

Validity measuring is concerned with assessing whether the scale measures what it is planned to measure (Cooper & Emory, 1995). It is concerned with whether the right concept is measured or not. Parasurman (1986) defines validity as "The extent to which it reflects the underlying variable it is attempting to measure". Researchers can use various methods to test validity in this regard including content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity.

3.3.7.1.1 Content Validity

Content Validity is the extent to which the domain of the characteristics of a concept that one desires to measure are in fact captured by one's measurement (Bagozzi, 1994). As described by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a measure has content validity if there is general agreement among the subjects and researchers that the instruments have measurement items that cover all the content domain of the variables being measured (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The researcher can achieve content validity through careful definition of the research problem, the scaled items, and the scale used. This logical process is unique to each researcher (Emory, 1991).

However, the measurement scale must meet certain conditions before being applied in empirical work. As described by McDaniel & Gates, 1996, these are:

- Defining specifically what is to be measured.
- Carefully conducting a literature review and interviews with the target population.
- Expert checking of the scale.
- Ensuring that the scales are pre-testing and asking open-ended questions that might identify other items to be included.

3.3.7.1.2 Criterion-related Validity

This is the degree to which the measurement instrument can predict a variable – assigned – criterion. Criterion-related validity is the extent of correspondence between the measures being tested and other accepted measured measures. Bagozzi (1994) describes this as "… the degree of connectedness of a focal measure with other measures". Establishing concurrent validity or predictive validity can guarantee criterion-related validity. The former is concerned with the degree to which a measure is relevant to another measure (the criterion) when both are measured at the same time, whereas the latter examines the extent to which current scores on a given measure can predict the future scores of another measure (the criterion) (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1997).

3.3.7.1.3 Construct Validity

Construct Validity is the most commonly cited type of validity assessment in the field of social science. It is established by relating a measuring instrument to a general theoretical framework in order to determine whether the instrument is tied to the concepts and the theoretical assumptions that the researcher is employing (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). It is significant because it can identify an unobservable dimension of the construct being measured. This measurement can be of two kinds, discriminant and convergent validity. Discriminant validity is concerned with demonstrating that a measure does not correlate with another measure from which it is supposed to be different. Convergent validity aims at measuring the degree of association among the scale items developed to measure the same concept (Churchill, 1979).

Factor analysis is the most common instrument for testing both types of construct validity, for two reasons (McDaniel & Gates, 1996): first, it identifies the underlying constructs in the data, and, second, it reduces the number of original variables to a smaller set of variates (Factors). However, in the present study, the researcher believed that validity had been achieved, and that the instruments used had a good degree of validity. Several techniques were brought in to attain this aim; the study instruments and the questionnaire were fully developed using a process based on the literature consulted in an earlier stage of this study.

The questionnaire was tested and revised. Four academic researchers experienced in questionnaire design were asked to give their feedback on it and the questionnaire was piloted by three field experts known to the researcher from the DED, who were asked to make suggestions concerning the clarity of the wording, the correct use of specific words, the ambiguity and consistency of the questions, and the overall presentation. As a result, some amendments were made to improve the questionnaire.

3.3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to whether the measurement scale is consistent and stable. In other words, it is the degree to which a test produces similar results in constant conditions on all occasions (Bell, 1996). Price and Muller (1986) posit that reliability is "the consistency of a measure" because it focuses on the items forming the scale. Moreover, reliability is a contributor to validity, and is a necessary but not sufficient condition of validity. Generally, there are three methods to measure reliability: test-retest, alternative forms, and internal consistency (Davis & Cosenza, 1993). Their major difference between them is the scale by which to compute the reliability coefficient (Peter, 1979).

In the test-retest approach, the same scale is applied to the same subject at different times, and the correlation between the two sets of observations is computed. While this method provides useful information about the stability of a measure, it leads to higher data-gathering costs and often reduces the number of usable responses due to respondents' unwillingness to engage in another test (McDaniel & Gates, 1996). In addition, using this approach may conclude with different results, due to the time intervals between the two tests (Churchill, 1979). For these reasons, test-retest is not recommended as a sole method in reliability assessment. Besides, to develop similar but not identical, items which specifically measure the same construct is difficult. The internal consistency approach deals with the homogeneity of individual items to other items measuring the same construct (Peter, 1979).

Hence, if two items are used to measure one construct, the item-to-item correlation should be high. "Cronbach Alpha" is the technique that calculates the mean reliability coefficient for all the possible ways of separating a set of items into two halves. Alpha with high scores means more internal reliability in the measurement scale whereas a low alpha indicates that the items used do not capture the construct and some items may have to be eliminated to improve the alpha level. For Nunnally (1978), a reliability score of 0.5 to 0.6 would be sufficient. Churchill (1979) claims that this method is relevant to a scale of at least three items. Hence, Cronbach Alpha was computed to evaluate reliability of all scales that consists of three or more items.

3.3.7.3 Measurement

Multiple-item Likert scales were used to measure the variables in the present study because they offer an appropriate interval scale for measuring behavioral variables (Churchill, 1979). Undoubtedly, in multiple-items scales the reliability and validity of the scales tend to improve as the number of items increases (Peter, 1979). Besides, a Likert scale is very common in internal branding studies (e.g. Punjaisri & Wilson 2007; King & Grace, 2010; Herrbach et al. 2004; Boselie & van der Wiele 2002). There are no specific rules for deciding on the type and number of scale points chosen. Either odd or even numbers are eligible and the scales range between five and ten items. Parasurman (1986) reports that it would be better to test the existing literature on related studies. In this study, the scale points are restricted to five, for two reasons. First, it is consistent with some previous studies in internal branding (e.g., Furnell & Karweni, 1999; Schellhase et al, 2000). Second, it is much quicker for respondents to answer using a five-point scale.

This chapter has given an overview of the research methodology, methods and design. The issues associated with each of the methodologies have also been highlighted. The major purpose of the chapter was to discuss the research methodology, research strategies, chosen research methodology and research design. It was essential to discuss the research methodology because this as well as the research questions directs the research to its main aim and objectives. The selection of different approaches and strategies affects the overall quality and accuracy of the research; hence, the researchers should aim at clearly defining the research methodology. The discussion concludes that no single research approach or strategy can be regarded as best; therefore, the focus should be on the research objectives and questions so that an appropriate combination of different research approaches and strategies can be used. The chapter also focuses on the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The discussion revealed that both these approaches have their own strengths and limitations.

The research design elements were discussed thoroughly to examine the assumptions that underlie the methodology. The method of selecting the relevant methodology for the study was justified and hence procedures were highlighted as presenting integrated conclusive statements, which guide the next phase of the research process. The researcher used the survey questionnaire and defined the questionnaire, justified its use as the primary source of data collection and described the process of its construction. The validity of the questionnaire was considered next, before the manner of its distribution and collection was shown. This chapter also discussed the population and the required steps to meeting the relevant population criteria and the sample. Two types of sampling were defined: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. This chapter mentioned the statistical analysis techniques and the use of the SPSS package to compute the data. Finally, the chapter has set the foundation for data collection. The following chapter (Chapter 4) will discusses the analysis of data and the results.

Chapter 4: Results and Analysis

4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Analysis

This chapter is concerned with the analysis of the preliminary research findings. First, a descriptive analysis of the data provides some qualitative insights to investigate, describe and discuss the data obtained in terms of their value and contribution to the aims of the research. Second, it focuses on the purification and computation processes of the measuring constructs. In this process, the chapter is concerned with analysing the reliability and validity of the research measures. Cronbach's Alpha was used as an indicator of the reliability of the scale measurement and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to validate the measures.

The results of the statistical analysis were used for further analysis (see Chapter 5) to interpret the findings in the context of the research aims. It is important to note that this chapter (Chapter 4) is intended specifically to present the statistical results of the analysis. Chapter 5 interprets them and discusses the implications and findings of Chapter 4 in the context of the literature discussed in Chapter 2. In other words, this chapter (Chapter 4) is restricted to presenting and analysing the collected data, without drawing general conclusions or comparing the results to those of other researchers. The conclusion and recommendations derived from these results are discussed in the final chapter.

4.2 Data Preparation and Purification of Measures

The first step in preparing the data for analysis was the process of data editing, coding and entering in the statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). First, the initial data were edited to detect possible errors and omissions, correct them where needed, and certify that the relevant data quality standards had been met. Second, the study variables were coded into formats for the SPSS version 22 used in the data analysis. Each variable was given a unique label. This step helped in setting up the computer software to analyse the data. Then SPSS was used to enter the data. Each questionnaire was first checked for errors and omissions, then the answers were entered manually into the computer and the data became ready for analysis.

The following sections comprise descriptive analysis and the reliability and validity tests. The process of analysis has three main objectives:

1) To examine the profile of the respondents and the distribution of responses on the question items.
2) To test the reliability of the data using by item-to-total correlation and Cronbach Alpha statistical measures.
3) To check the validity of the different measures that have been used in the research model using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA).

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), after collecting the data, researchers must follow specific steps in order to obtain significant results from the analysis stage. This section discusses these steps in detail. After the entry and recording processes had been completed, all the measures were then purified by assessing their reliability and validity. There are a number of reasons for the emphasis on the validity and reliability of the measurements. One is that a reliable and valid measuring instrument enhances the methodological rigor of the research. Two, it permits a co-operative research effort and provides support for triangulating the results; and three, it provides a more trustworthy explanation of the phenomenon that is being investigated (Hair et al., 2006).

However, in this study the reliability measurement was undertaken by item-to-total correlation. The aim was to remove items if they had a low correlation to the total unless they represented an additional domain of interest. This method is thought to be the most common procedure used by researchers for guaranteeing the reliability of a multi-item scale (May, 1997). The purpose of item-to-total correlation is to determine the relationship of an item to the rest of the items in its dimension. The process helps to ensure that the items making up tis dimension have a common core (May, 1997). In this purification process, the items should have item-to-total correlation scores of 0.30 and above to be retained for further analysis because they are then considered to have high reliability (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

Further, the calculation of reliability was based on the average correlation between the items in a dimension, which is described as "internal consistency" (Nunnally, 1978). The basic equation for calculating the reliability on this basis is known as the coefficient alpha (Cronbach's Alpha). This method has been shown to be a good estimate of reliability in most research situations. Nunnally (1978) suggests that reliability of 0.60 is sufficient.

4.3 Profile of the Responding Organisation and the Respondents

This section focuses on the general information provided by the respondents and participant sectors. The aim is to provide a brief account of the profile of the sample in the study. Frequency analysis was used to distribute the participants according to the biographical characteristics: i) Gender, ii) Nationality, iii) Job Classification, iv) Age, v) Qualifications, vi) Experience in the DED, and vi) the Sector

4.3.1 Gender

Table 12: Distribution of Sample by Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	159	52.3	52.3	52.3
	Female	145	47.7	47.7	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

The first descriptive analysis begins with the gender of the respondents. Table 12 shows that more than half (52.3%) of the respondents were male and 47.7% were female. This indicates that the sample was almost balanced between the two and reflects the government orientation in the UAE towards supporting the policy of equal opportunity in its recruitment practices. Figure.8 illustrates the distribution of the sample by gender.

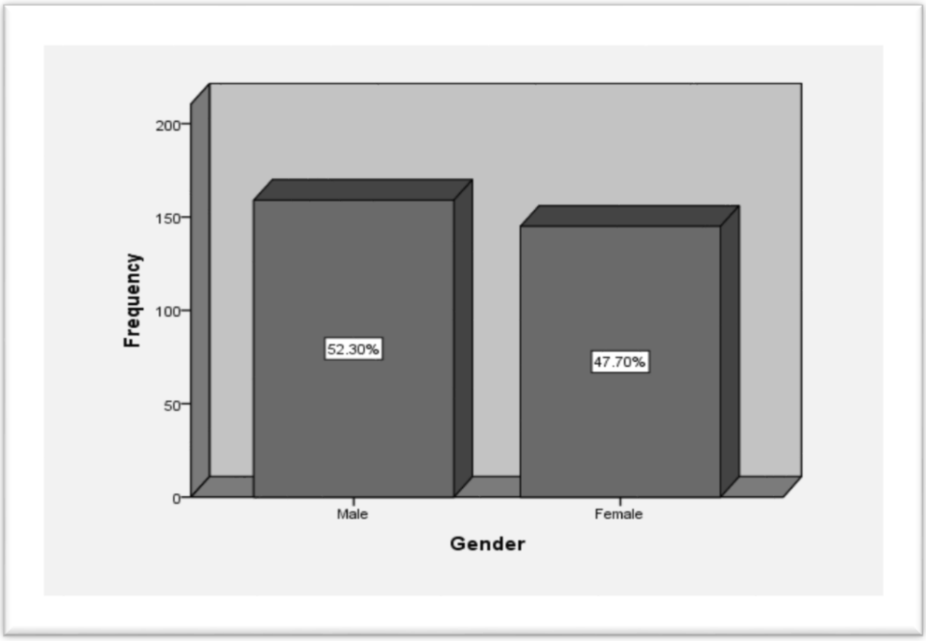

Figure 8: Distribution of the Sample by Gender

4.3.2 Nationality

Table 13: Respondents by Nationality

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	UAE National	263	86.5	86.5	86.5
	Non-National/Expat	41	13.5	13.5	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

Table.13 reveals that most the respondents (86.5%) in this survey were UAE Nationals. This may be due to the fact that the UAE government launched what is called Emiratization especially in its own organisations a few years ago, Figure.9 shows the distribution of the sample by nationality.

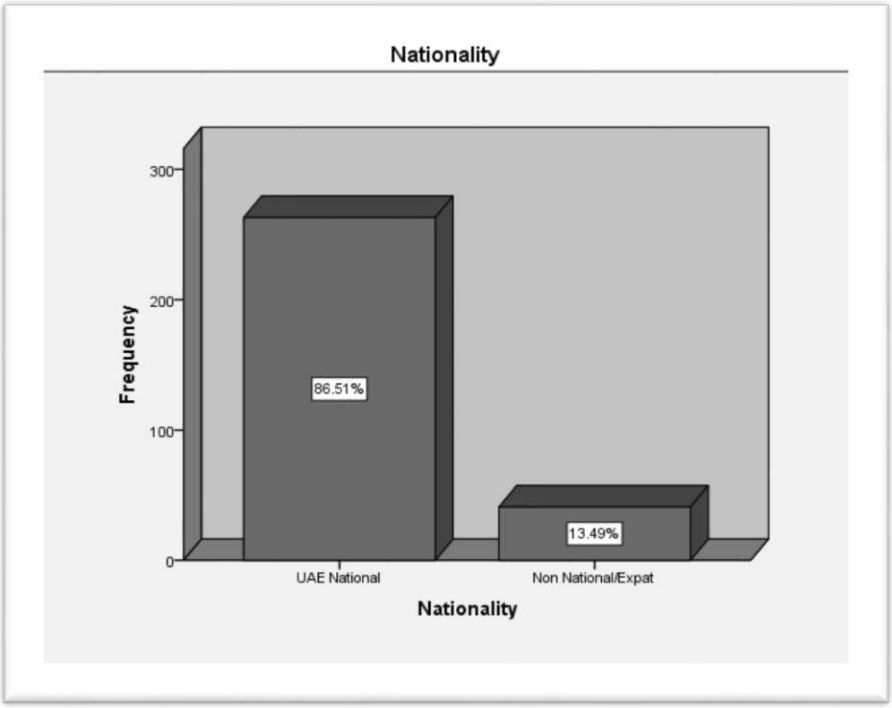

Figure 9: The Distribution of the Sample by Nationality

4.3.3 Job Levels

Table 14: Job Levels

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Administrative Level	133	43.8	43.8	43.8
	Technical Level	80	26.3	26.3	70.1
	Supervisory Level	57	18.8	18.8	88.8
	Top Management	34	11.2	11.2	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

Table.14 reveals that only 34 of the respondents in this survey held a position at the top management level of the DED (11.2%), 18.8% of the respondents held a position at the supervisory level, (26.3%) of the respondents worked at the technical level and finally (43.8%) of the respondents were at the administrative level. Figure.10 illustrates the distribution of the sample by job level.

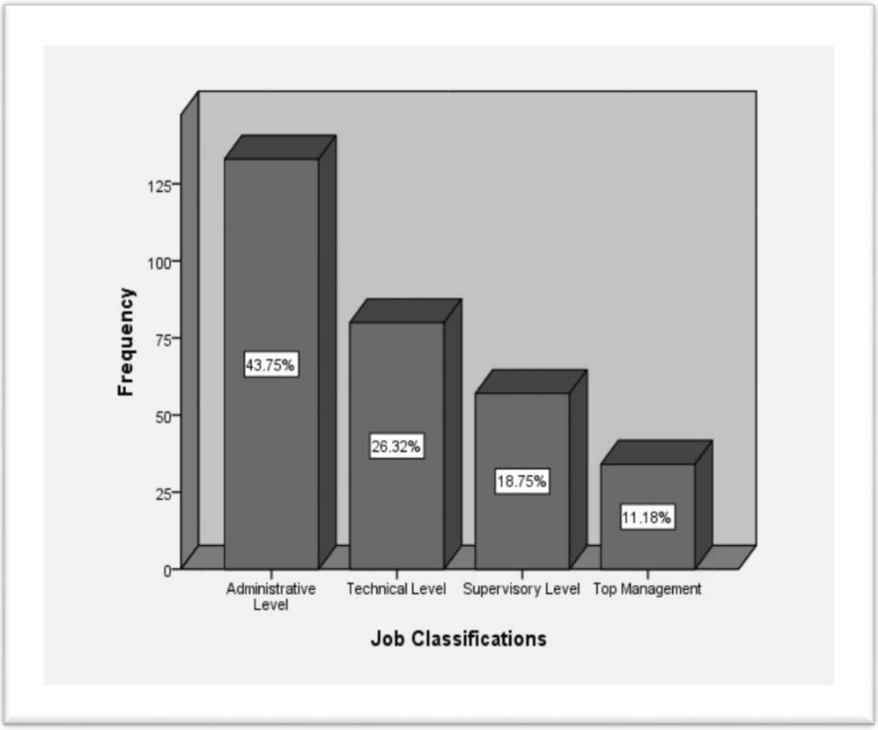

Figure 10: The Distribution of the Sample by Position

4.3.4 Age

Table 15: Distribution of Sample by Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 25 years	10	3.3	3.3	3.3
	25-34 years	149	49.0	49.0	52.3
	35-44 years	104	34.2	34.2	86.5
	45-54 years	39	12.8	12.8	99.3
	55 years and above	2	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

In terms of age, nearly half of the respondents were between 25 and 34 years old [49%], (34.2%) of the respondents were aged between 35 and 44 years, (12.8%) were between 45 and 54 years old, a few respondents [approximately 1 %] were more than 55 years old and 3.3% were less than 25 years old. This reflects the fact that most UAE citizens prefer the early retirement plan and most citizens less than 25 years old are still completing their degrees. Figure 11 illustrates the distribution of the sample by age.

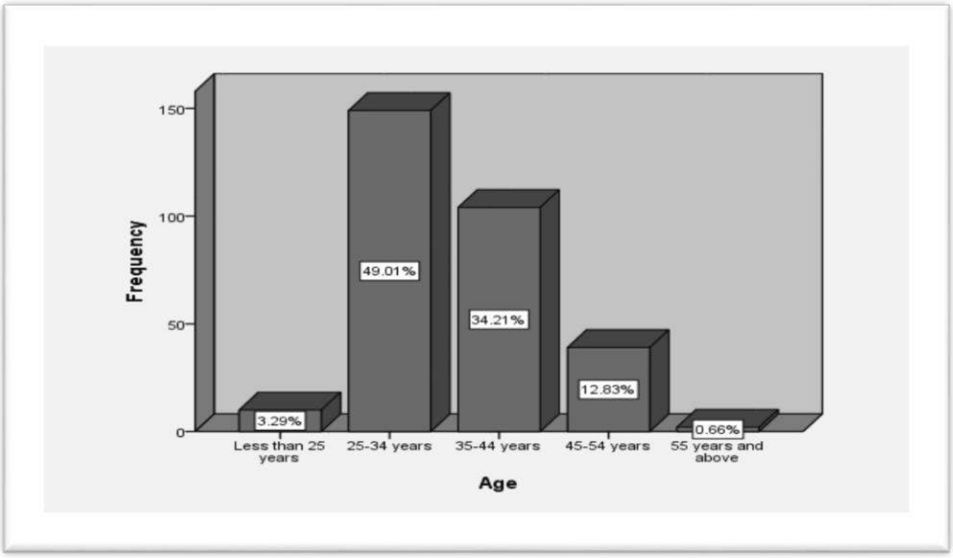

Figure 11: The Distribution of the Sample by Age

4.3.5 Academic Qualifications

Table 16: Respondents by Academic Qualifications

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below High School	5	1.6	1.6	1.6
	High School	31	10.2	10.2	11.8
	Diploma	62	20.4	20.4	32.2
	Bachelor's degree	139	45.7	45.7	78.0
	Higher Studies (Doctorate/Master)	67	22.0	22.0	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

Table.16 shows that nearly half (45.7%) of the participants had earned Bachelor. The chart in Figure.12 shows that approximately 62 participants (20.4%) of the survey participants had received High School Diplomas, 31 participants (10.2%) had received high school certificates, 67 participants (28.8%) had received Master degrees; a few participants (1.6%) held qualifications below the high school level.

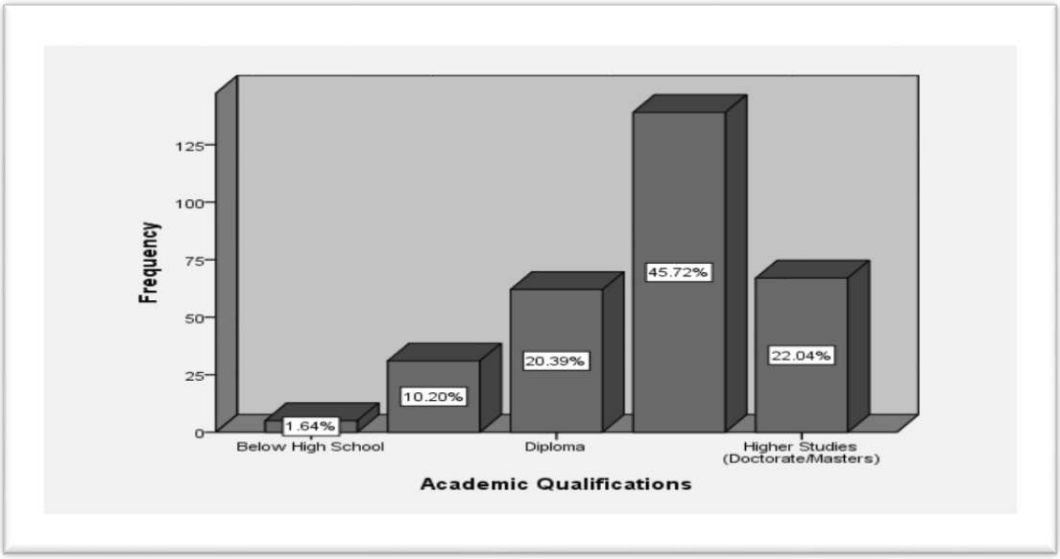

Figure 12: The Distribution of the Sample by Academic Qualifications

4.3.6 Experience in the DED

Table 17: Distribution of Sample by Length if Service in the Department

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-3 years	53	17.4	17.4	17.4
	4-6 years	63	20.7	20.7	38.2
	7-10 years	85	28.0	28.0	66.1
	More than 10 years	103	33.9	33.9	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

Table.17 shows that nearly 62% of the respondents had worked in the DED for more than 7 years. Consequently, it can be concluded that respondents in this research could provide valuable information about the antecedents and consequences of internal branding. However, 17.4% of the respondents had been working with the DED for 4-6 years. Finally, only 53 out of the 304 respondents have been with the DED for less than 3 years. Figure.13 illustrates the distribution of the sample by length of experience.

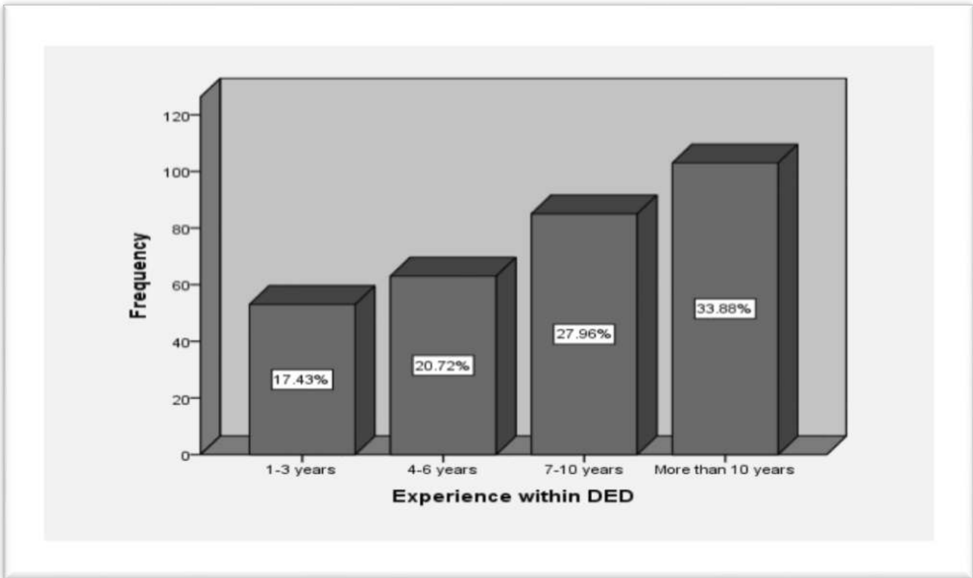

Figure 13: The Distribution of the Sample by Length of Experience

4.3.7 Number of Employees

Table 18: Distribution of Sample by Department/Section

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Supportive Services	71	23.4	23.4	23.4
	Commercial Affairs	78	25.7	25.7	49.0
	Policies and Legalizations	27	8.9	8.9	57.9
	Institutional Support	38	12.5	12.5	70.4
	Planning and Statistics	35	11.5	11.5	81.9
	Financial Affairs	28	9.2	9.2	91.1
	Top Management	27	8.9	8.9	100.0
	Total	304	100.0	100.0	

As mentioned earlier, this study planned to obtain responses from different sectors/departments to generalize the findings. The sample was composed of 304 respondents in seven different sectors. Table.18 shows that 23.4% of the respondents worked in the supportive services section; 25.7% worked in the commercial affairs section; 8.9% worked in both the policies and legalization sections; 12.5% worked in the institutional support section, 9.2% worked in financial affairs; 11.5% in the planning and statistics section; and 8.88% are top management. Figure.14 shows the distribution of the sample by sector.

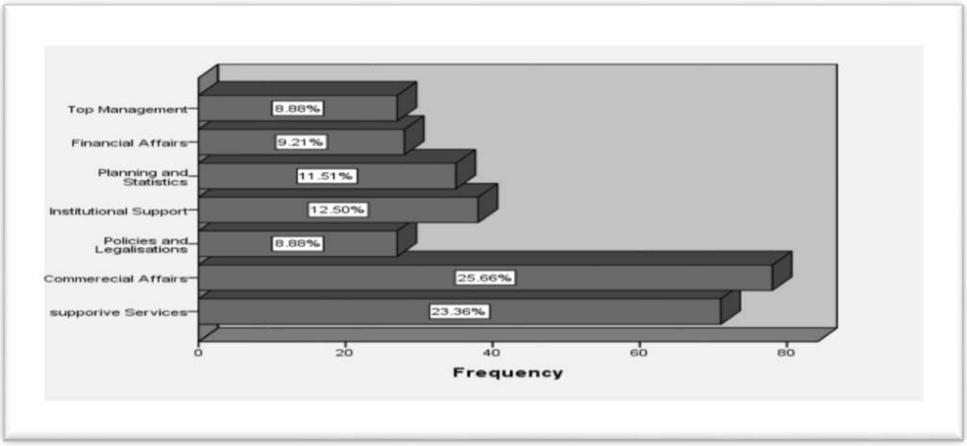

Figure 14: The Distribution of the Sample by Sector

4.4 Data Purification and Purification of Measures

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), after collecting the data, researchers must follow several steps in order to obtain meaningful results from the analysis stage. The following sections discuss these steps in detail.

4.4.1 Data Preparation

The first step in preparing the data for analysis was the process of data editing, coding and entering the data on SPSS (see pp.266-7 above). This step helped in setting up the computer software to analyse the data

4.4.2 Purification of Measures

After the entry and recording processes had been completed, all measures were purified by assessing their reliability and validity. The reasons for emphasizing the validity and reliability of the measurements are discussed on pp.167-8. The measurement process in the present study used item-to-total correlation and EFA. The aim was to remove items if they had low correlation unless they represent an additional domain of interest. This method is considered as the most common procedure used by the researchers in guaranteeing the reliability of a multi-item scale (Churchill, 1979).

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of the item-to-total correlation measure is to determine the relationship of an item to the rest of the items in that dimension. The process helps to ensure the items making up that dimension share a common core (Churchill, 1979). In this purification process, the items should have an item-to-total correlation scores of 0.30 and above to be retained for further analysis because they are considered to have high reliability (Edgett, 1991).

Additionally, the estimation of reliability is also based on the average correlation among items in a dimension, which is concerned with "internal consistency" (Nunnally, 1978). The basic formula for determining the reliability based on this internal consistency is called the coefficient alpha (Cronbach Alpha). This technique has proved to be good estimate of reliability in most research situations. Nunnally (1978) suggests, as noted on p. 164 above, that a reliability of 0.5 to 0.6 would be sufficient. The following section discusses the process of computing reliability. Reliability analysis was conducted for all the measuring instruments in the questionnaire; namely, External Customer Orientation, Internal Customer Orientation, Internal Service Quality, Interdepartmental Connectedness, Internal Branding, External Customer Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction.

4.4.3 Reliability Analysis Results

Computing the item-to-total correlation and a coefficient alpha carries out the reliability analysis process. As mentioned earlier, item-to-total correlation and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient are more popular than a cross-item reliability index in the field of social science research; they require the SPSS package. All the items in the present study were found to have a high item-to-total correlation, above the acceptable level of 0.30. The reliability coefficient ranged from 0.89 to 0.95, which was significantly higher than the acceptable level of 0.60 (Nunnally 1978). These results confirm that the scales used were reliable, as shown in the last column of Table.19.

Table 19: Analysis of the Research Variables

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach Alpha
A	Internal Branding Antecedents		
	External Customer Orientation		0.92
1.1	The DED objectives are clear to me	.730	
1.2	The DED understands customers' needs	.820	
1.3	The DED use customers' feedback in the service development process	.818	
1.4	Customers can raise complaints easily	.754	
1.5	The DED has a system for solving customer problems	.782	
1.6	The DED applies regular customer satisfaction measurement	.816	
	Internal Customer Orientation		0.94
2.1	In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer,	.847	
2.2	We constantly seek to increase the value of services we provide to other departments.	.851	
2.3	We focus on understanding internal departments requirements.	.863	
2.4	The DED stresses the importance of treating other departments as customers.	.869	
2.5	Other departments systematically evaluate the quality of services we offer them.	.861	
	Internal Service Quality		0.92
3.1	I would say the quality of my interaction with departments is excellent.	.752	
3.2	I would say my interaction with employees is positive.	.759	
3.3	Customer satisfaction measures reflect what we do.	.805	
3.4	Customer satisfaction measurements produce actionable outcomes in the DED departments.	.839	
3.5	The DED's management responds positively to our explanations.	.797	
3.6	I trust the DED's customer satisfaction measurements.	.800	
	Interdepartmental Connectedness		0.94
4.1	Cross-functional meetings held by individual functional departments on regular basis.	.818	
4.2	Individual functional departments exchange records, memorandums, reports and documents.	.843	
4.3	Individual functional departments exchange information for understanding the status of other departments.	.841	
4.4	It is easy to talk virtually to anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position.	.826	
4.5	Employees from different departments feel comfortable calling others when the need arises.	.808	
4.6	There is opportunity for informal "hall talk" among individuals from different.	.786	
C	Internal Branding		
	Internal Branding Items		0.94
5.1	I consider the DED success as my own success.	.777	
5.2	The DED is like a family to me.	.813	

5.3	I have commitment to the DED.	.773	
5.4	The DED Training gives me appropriate skills to deliver the DED standards.	.814	
5.5	The DED orientation programs triggers my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the DED vision.	.841	
5.6	The DED encourages me to come up with new suggestions.	.838	
5.7	The DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them.	.782	
C	Internal Branding Consequences		
	External Customer Satisfaction		0.95
7.1	Overall Satisfaction on the DED service performance.	.889	
7.2	Overall satisfaction on the DED business policy.	.891	
7.3	Your expectation closeness compared to the DED's business policy.	.865	
7.4	Your expectation of the DED's business policy compared to other local departments in Abu Dhabi.	.908	
	Job Satisfaction		0.89
8.1	I am given complete freedom to perform my job.	.809	
8.2	I am satisfied with the variety of activities my job offers me.	.800	
8.3	I am satisfied with the information I receive from my superior about my job performance.	.815	
8.4	The DED management allows employees a high degree of initiative.	.802	
8.5	I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job.	.740	
8.6	I am satisfied with the security my job provides me.	.411	
8.7	I would not consider leaving my current job.	.799	
8.8	I feel that I am making an important contribution in the DED.	.749	

4.5 Content Validity

Content validity is the degree to which the domain of properties or characteristics of a variable that one wants to measure are in fact captured by the measures (Bagozzi, 1994). A measure has content validity if there is a general agreement among the subjects and researchers that the instruments has measurement items that cover all the content domain of the variables being measured (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The researcher can satisfy content validity through careful definition of the study problem, the elements to be scaled, and the scale to be used. This logical process is somewhat intuitive and is unique to each researcher (Emory & Cooper, 1991).

However, the measurement scale must satisfy certain criteria before it can be applied in the empirical work. The criteria that were considered in this study, included (McDaniel & Gates, 1996):

- Carefully defining what is to be measured.
- Conducting a careful literature review and interviews with the target population before collecting the data.
- Letting the scale be checked by experts.
- Making sure that the scales could be pre-tested.
- Carefully selecting our scales from the related research which had been tested and validated by other researchers.

As discussed earlier, all the factors listed in the questionnaire were determined by a comprehensive review of the relevant literature. The list of factors was also validated by several interviews with the DED experts and a pilot study. This guaranteed that the content validity of the survey had been achieved.

4.6 Construct Validity and Scale Development

This section reports the test of construct validity and scale development for the variables included in this study. A sequence of steps was followed through the scale development process. It involved the use of exploratory factor analysis. Items which fulfilled all the requirements in the exploratory factor analysis were then submitted to reliability analysis to measure the item-total correlation and Cronbach Alpha before using them in further analysis. This type of procedure was undertaken to sustain the reliability and validity of the data.

4.6.1 The Internal Branding Antecedents

Four factors were found during the literature review to measure the antecedents of internal branding. These factors are External Customer Orientation, Internal Customer Orientation, Internal Service Quality and Interdepartmental Connectedness. However, to validate the four constructs, the different items included were submitted to factor analysis. The results are reported below.

4.6.1.1 Results of Factor Analysis

Certain requirements need to be fulfilled before factor analysis can be successfully employed. One of the important requirements is to measure the variables by using interval scales. Using a 5-point Likert scale in the survey questionnaire fulfilled this requirement. Several reasons account for this property of Likert scales. First, they communicate interval properties to the respondent, and therefore produce data that can be assumed to be interval scaled (Madsen, 1989; Schertzer & Kernan, 1985). Second, in the marketing and human resources literature Likert scales are almost always treated as interval scales (see for example, Aaker et al., 1995; Bagozzi, 1994; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Nerver & Slater, 1990). Another important criterion is that the sample size should be more than 100, since researchers generally cannot use factor analysis with fewer than 50 observations (Hair et al., 1998). This requirement was also fulfilled because the questionnaire had 304 respondents. The results of the factor analysis tests are briefly discussed below:

4.6.1.2 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Since the antecedents of internal branding were directed to finding the current practices of internal branding in the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development (DED), the 23 items were submitted to factor analysis. The results of

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) yielded a four-factor solution that accounted for 77.32 % of the variance extracted. The result for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) was high at 7086.72, and the associated significance value was very small (p=0.00). This shows that the data were appropriate for factor analysis (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989).

4.6.1.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy (MSA) gives the computed KMO as 0.94, which is adequate, and above the acceptable level (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989) - (see Table 20).

Table 20: Antecedents - KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.94
	Approx. Chi-Square	7086.72
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	253
	Sig.	.000

Source: Analysis of survey data

As the above requirements were met, it was concluded that factor analysis was appropriate for this data set and thus the procedures for factor analysis could be performed.

4.6.1.4 Results of Principal Component Analysis Extraction process

The factor extraction results using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are given in Table.21. It should be noted that an eigenvalue of 1.0 is used as the benchmark in deciding the number of factors (Hair et al., 1998; Norusis, 1993).

Table 21: Antecedents - Principal Component Analysis Extraction Results

Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Cumulative Variance (%)
1	13.05	56.76	56.76
2	2.04	8.89	65.65
3	1.47	6.39	72.04
4	1.21	5.27	77.32

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis

An initial (un-rotated) solution identified 23 items and four factors with eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 77.32% of the variance (see Table 21). As Table.22 shows, all 23 variables score commonalities that range from 0.65 to 0.84. Therefore, it could be concluded that a degree of confidence in the factor solution had been achieved.

Table 22: Antecedents - Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
The DED objectives are clear to me.	1.00	.65
The DED understands customers' needs.	1.00	.76
The DED uses customers' feedback in the service development process.	1.00	.76
Customers can raise complaints easily.	1.00	.71
The DED has a system for solving customers' problems.	1.00	.77
The DED applies regular customers' satisfaction measurement.	1.00	.78
In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer.	1.00	.83
We constantly seek to increase the value of services we provide to other departments.	1.00	.78
We focus on understanding internal departments requirements.	1.00	.81
The DED stresses the importance of treating other departments as customers.	1.00	.84
Other departments systematically evaluate the quality of services we offer them.	1.00	.84
I would say the quality of my interaction with departments is excellent.	1.00	.73
I would say my interaction with employees is positive.	1.00	.78

Customer satisfaction measures reflect what we do.	1.00	.75
Customer satisfaction measurements produce actionable outcomes in The DED departments.	1.00	.78
The DED's management responds positively to our explanations.	1.00	.71
I trust the DED's customer satisfaction measurements.	1.00	.71
Cross-functional meetings are held by individual functional departments on regular basis.	1.00	.78
Individual functional departments exchange records, memorandums, reports and documents.	1.00	.79
Individual functional departments exchange information for understanding the status of other departments.	1.00	.79
It is easy to talk virtually to anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position.	1.00	.81
Employees from different departments feel comfortable calling others when the need arises.	1.00	.79
There is opportunity for informal "hall talk" among individuals from different.	1.00	.75

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

4.6.1.5 Factor Rotation and Factor Loading

On being satisfied with the four chosen factors, the loading of all the items in the four factors was examined. The Varimax technique for rotated component analysis was used with a cut-off point for interpretation of the factors at 0.40 or greater (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989). The results are summarized in Table.23:

Table 23: Antecedents - Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
The DED objectives are clear to me.		.60		
The DED understands customers' needs.		.72		
The DED uses customers' feedback in the service development process.		.76		
Customers can raise complaints easily.		.78		

The DED has a system for solving customers' problems.		.82		
The DED applies regular customers' satisfaction measurement.		.77		
In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer.			.82	
We constantly seek to increase the value of services we provide to other departments.			.72	
We focus on understanding internal departments requirements.			.74	
The DED stresses the importance of treating other departments as customers.			.80	
Other departments systematically evaluate the quality of services we offer them.			.75	
I would say the quality of my interaction with departments is excellent.				.76
I would say my interaction with employees is positive.				.81
Customer satisfaction measures reflect what we do.				.74
Customer satisfaction measurements produce actionable outcomes in the DED departments.				.72
The DED's management responds positively to our explanations.				.57
I trust the DED's customer satisfaction measurements.				.58
Cross-functional meetings are held by individual functional departments on regular basis.	.75			
Individual functional departments exchange records, memorandums, reports and documents.	.78			
Individual functional departments exchange information for understanding the status of other departments.	.75			
It is easy to talk virtually to anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position.	.82			
Employees from different departments feel comfortable calling others when the need arises.	.80			
There is opportunity for informal "hall talk" among individuals from different.	.78			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

All the items were loaded onto the expected factors for which they were designed. Factor loadings were all higher than 0.40 so that each item loaded higher on its associated construct than on any other construct. As suggested by Hair et al. (1998), a factor loading higher than 0.35 is considered statistically significant at an alpha level of 0.05. This is supported by the discriminant validity of the measurement.

4.6.1.6 Factor Naming and Interpretation Process

The interpretation of the four-factor solution was accomplished by relating them to the theoretical concepts of marketing and Human Resources Management. The four factors can be discussed as follows:

- Factor (1) consists of 6 items and fits very well with the ‘External Customer Orientation’ (Anosike & Eid, 2011). This factor comprises the following items (1) The DED objectives are clear to me, (2) The DED understands customers’ needs, (3) The DED uses customers’ feedback in the service development process, (4) Customers can raise complaints easily, (5) The DED has a system for solving customers’ problems, and (6) The DED applies regular customers’ satisfaction measurement. The values are closely grouped with the highest being “The DED has a system for solving customers” problems” (0.82) and the lowest “The DED objectives are clear to me” (0.60).
- The second factor consists of 5 items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Internal Customer Orientation’ (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). It covers the following variables (1) In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer, (2) We constantly seek to increase the value of services we provide to other departments, (3) We focus on understanding internal departments requirements, (4) The DED stresses the importance of

treating other departments as customers, and (5) Other departments systematically evaluate the quality of services we offer them. The values are closely grouped with the highest being “In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer” (0.82) and the lowest “We constantly seek to increase the value of services we provide to other departments” (0.72).

- Factor 3 consists of 6 items and fits very well with the ‘Internal Service Quality’ (Anosike & Eid, 2011). This factor comprises the following items (1) I would say the quality of my interaction with departments is excellent, (2) I would say my interaction with employees is positive, (3) Customer satisfaction measures reflect what we do, (4) Customer satisfaction measurements produce actionable outcomes in the DED departments, (5) The DED’s management responds positively to our explanations, and (6) I trust the DED’s customer satisfaction measurements. The values are closely grouped with the highest being “I would say my interaction with employees is positive” (0.81) and the lowest “The DED’s management responds positively to our explanations 0.57.
- Factor 4 consists of 6 items and fits very well with the ‘Interdepartmental Connectedness’ (Anosike & Eid, 2011). This factor comprises the following items (1) Cross-functional meetings are held by individual functional departments on regular basis, (2) Individual functional departments exchange records, memorandums, reports and documents, (3) Individual functional departments exchange information for understanding the status of other departments, (4) It is easy to talk virtually to anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position, (5) Employees from different departments feel comfortable calling others when the need arises, and (6) There is opportunity for informal “hall talk” among individuals from different. The values are closely grouped

with the highest being “It is easy to talk virtually to anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position 0.82, and the lowest “Cross-functional meetings are held by individual functional departments on regular basis 0.75.

4.6.2 The Internal Branding Construct

This section reports the scale development for internal branding constructs. This section reports the development of the item scale based on the survey questionnaire.

4.6.2.1 Results of Factor Analysis

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which the statements described the evaluation of internal branding at the DED. Seven items that measured the internal branding practices were entered for factor analysis. The results of the Factor Analysis tests are briefly discussed below:

4.6.2.2 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

The result for Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (BTS) was high at 630.36, and the associated significance value was very small (p=0.00). This shows that the data were appropriate for factor analysis.

4.6.2.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) for the measurement of sample adequacy gives the computed KMO as 0.89, which is adequate, and above the acceptable level, as shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Internal Branding - KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.89
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2085.87
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

As the above requirements were met, it was concluded that Factor Analysis was appropriate for this data set and thus the procedures for factor analysis could be performed.

4.6.2.4 Results of Principal Component Analysis Extraction process

Factor extraction results using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are given in Table 25. It should be noted that an eigenvalue of 1.00 is used as the benchmark in deciding the number of factors (Hair et al., 1998; Norusis, 1993).

Table 25: Internal Branding - Principal Component Analysis Extraction Results

Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Cumulative Variance (%)
1	5.179	73.985	73.98

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis.

An initial (un-rotated) solution identified seven items and one factor with eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 73.98% of the variance (see Table 25). Table.26 shows all the four variables scored high communalities that ranged from 0.70 to 0.77. Therefore, it could be concluded that a degree of confidence in the factor solution had been achieved.

Table 26: Internal Branding - Commonalities

	Initial	Extraction
I consider the DED success as my own success.	1.00	.71
The DED is like a family to me.	1.00	.76
I am committed to make the DED succeed in achieving its goals.	1.00	.70
The DED Training gives me appropriate skills to deliver the DED standards.	1.00	.74
The DED orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the DED vision.	1.00	.77
The DED encourages me to come up with new suggestions.	1.00	.77

The DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them.	1.00	.70

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

4.6.2.5 Factor Rotation and Factor Loading

On being satisfied with the one chosen factor, a loading of all the items in the one factor were examined. The Varimax technique for rotated component analysis was used with a cut-off point for interpreting the factors at 0.50 or greater. The results are summarized in Table 27.

Table 27: Internal Branding - Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component
	1
I consider the DED success as my own success.	.84
The DED is like a family to me.	.87
I am committed to make the DED succeed in achieving its goals.	.84
The DED Training gives me appropriate skills to deliver the DED standards.	.86
The DED orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the DED vision.	.89
The DED encourages me to come up with new suggestions.	.88
The DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them.	.83

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 component extracted.

All items were loaded onto the expected factors for which they were designed. Factor loadings were all higher than 0.5 so that each item loaded higher on its associated construct than on any other construct. As suggested by Hair et al. (1998), a factor loading higher than 0.35 is considered statistically significant at an alpha level of 0.05. This is supported by the discriminant validity of the measurement.

4.6.2.6 Factor Naming and Interpretation Process

The interpretation of the one-factor solution was accomplished by relating it to the theoretical concepts of marketing and human resources management theories. The suggested factor consists of 7 items and fits very well with 'internal branding'. This factor comprises the following variables (1) I consider the DED success as my own success, (2) The DED is like a family to me, (3) I am committed to make the DED succeed in achieving its goals, (4) The DED training gives me appropriate skills to deliver the DED standards, (5) The DED orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the DED vision, (6) The DED encourages me to come up with new suggestions, and (7) The DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them. The values are closely grouped, with the highest being "The DED orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the DED vision" (0.89) and the lowest "The DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them" (0.90).

4.6.3 The Consequences of Internal Branding

In the literature review, two factors were found for measuring the consequences of internal branding, namely, External Customer Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction. However, to validate the two constructs, the different items included were submitted to factor analysis. The results are reported below.

4.6.3.1 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Since the consequences of internal branding was the factor directed to find out the results that could be gained from following the practices of internal branding in the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development (DED), the 12 items were submitted to the factor analysis. The results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) yielded a two-factor solution that accounted for 74.82 % of the variance extracted. The result for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) was high at 3521.51, and the associated significance value was very small (p=0.00). This shows that the data were appropriate for factor analysis (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989).

4.6.3.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) for the measurement of sample adequacy (MSA) gave the computed KMO as 0.94, which is adequate, and above the acceptable level (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989) - (see Table 28).

Table 28: Consequences - KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.94
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3521.51
	Df	66
	Sig.	.000

Source: Analysis of survey data

As the above requirements were met, it was concluded that factor analysis was appropriate for this data set; thus, the procedures for factor analysis could be performed.

4.6.3.3 Results of the Principal Component Analysis Extraction process

The factor extraction results using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are given in Table 29. It should be noted that an eigenvalue of 1.0 is used as the benchmark in deciding the number of factors (Hair et al., 1998; Norusis, 1993).

Table 29: Consequences - Principal Component Analysis Extraction Results

Factor	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Cumulative Variance (%)
1	7.97	66.44	66.44
2	1.00	8.38	74.82

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis.

An initial (un-rotated) solution identified 12 items and two factors with eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 74.82% of the variance (see Table 29). Table 30 shows all the 12 variables scored communalities that ranged from 0.68 to 0.90. Therefore, it could be concluded that a degree of confidence in the factor solution was achieved.

Table 30: Consequences - Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Overall Satisfaction on the DED service performance.	1.00	.88
Overall satisfaction on the DED business policy.	1.000	.88
Your expectation of the DED's business policy compared to other local departments in Abu Dhabi.	1.000	.84
The DED service delivery optimization.	1.000	.90
I am given complete freedom to perform my job.	1.000	.77
I am satisfied with the variety of activities my job offers me.	1.000	.76
I am satisfied with the information I receive from my superior about my job performance.	1.000	.78
The DED encourages its employees to come up with new initiatives and ideas.	1.000	.77
I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job.	1.000	.67
I am satisfied with the security my job provides me.	1.000	.23
I would not consider leaving my current job.	1.000	.77
I feel that I am making an important contribution in the DED.	1.000	.68

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

4.6.3.4 Factor Rotation and factor Loading

On being satisfied with the two chosen factors, the loading of all the items in the two factors was examined. The Varimax technique for rotated component analysis was used with a cut-off point for interpreting the factors at 0.40 or greater (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989). The results are summarized in Table 31. All items were loaded onto the expected factors for which they were designed. Factor loadings were all higher than 0.40 so that each item loaded higher on its associated construct than on any other construct. As suggested by Hair et al. (1998), a factor loading higher than 0.35 is considered statistically significant at an alpha level of 0.05. The discriminant validity of the measurement supports this.

Table 31: Consequences - Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
Overall Satisfaction on the DED service performance.		.87
Overall satisfaction on the DED business policy.		.84
Your expectation of the DED's business policy compared to other local departments in Abu Dhabi.		.83
The DED service delivery optimization.		.86
I am given complete freedom to perform my job.	.78	
I am satisfied with the variety of activities my job offers me.	.77	
I am satisfied with the information I receive from my superior about my job performance.	.80	
The DED encourages its employees to come up with new initiatives and ideas.	.77	
I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job.	.76	
I am satisfied with the security my job provides me.		
I would not consider leaving my current job.	.82	
I feel that I am making an important contribution in the DED.	.70	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

4.6.3.5 Factor Naming and Interpretation Process

The interpretation of the two-factor solution was accomplished by relating them to the theoretical concepts of marketing and Human Resources Management theories. These can be discussed as follows:

- Factor 1 consisted of 4 items and fits very well with the 'External Customer satisfaction'. This factor comprises the following items (1) Overall Satisfaction with the DED service performance, (2) Overall satisfaction with the DED business policy, (3) Your expectation of the DED's business policy compared to other local departments in Abu Dhabi, and (4) The DED service delivery optimization. The values are closely grouped with the highest being "Overall Satisfaction with the DED service performance" (0.87) and the lowest "Your expectation of the DED's business policy compared to other local departments" (0.83).

- The second factor consists of 8 items. This factor represents the respondents' opinions regarding 'Job Satisfaction'. It covers the following variables: (1) I am given complete freedom to perform my job, (2) I am satisfied with the variety of activities my job offers me, (3) I am satisfied with the information I receive from my superior about my job performance, (4) The DED encourages its employees to come up with new initiatives and ideas, (5) I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job, (6) I am satisfied with the security my job provides me, (7) I would not consider leaving my current job, and (8) I feel that I am making an important contribution in the DED. The values are closely grouped with the highest being "I would not consider leaving my current job" (0.82) and the lowest "I feel that I am making an important contribution in the DED" (0.70). The previous section emphasized the preliminary analysis of the collected data. This includes, first, encoding, editing and entering the data into SPSS. First, the general descriptive analysis of the respondents' profile and their response distribution were examined. In addition, some initial interpretations were also put forward as a start for the data analysis process. This was followed by the reliability and validity tests, which covered all the research constructs to find the extent to which the measurements were reliable and valid. Item-to-total correlation was calculated for each variable. As shown in Table 32, all the variables had acceptable reliability values ranging from 0.89 to 0.95, which was significantly higher than the acceptable level of 0.60 (Nunnally 1978) and therefore, acceptable for further analysis. Table.32 summarizes the reliability analysis of the main constructs in this study. Next, content and construct validity were discussed. The reliability and validity analyses showed that the measures were both reliable and valid. In the next chapter, different statistical techniques are being used to explore the antecedents and consequences of the internal branding in Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development and to test the study hypotheses.

Table 32: Reliability Analysis of main constructs in the study of IB

Basic Constructs	Total Number of Items	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha
External Customer Orientation	6	.786	0.92
Internal Customer Orientation	5	.775	0.94
Internal Service Quality	6	.802	0.92
Interdepartmental Connectedness	6	.764	0.94
Internal Branding	7	.876	0.94
External Customer Satisfaction	4	.881	0.05
Job Satisfaction	8	.857	0.89
Overall Reliability of the Study	42	--	0.94

4.7 Hypothesis Testing and Analysis

The previous sections in this chapter (Chapter 4) have validated and purified the data that were obtained from the field study survey and introduced an exploratory analysis of certain aspects of internal branding practice in Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development. This section now describes the second and main phase of data analysis, namely, hypotheses testing. SPSS/AMOS version 22 was used to analyse the data. As discussed in Chapter 1, the aim of the thesis is to identify the antecedents (factors) that lead to internal branding, to find the consequences of internal branding, to develop and clarify a conceptual model integrating antecedents, internal branding, and consequences, and to specify and test the hypothesized relationships derived from the conceptual framework.

Therefore, as noted in Chapter 1, this research attempts to address three main tasks. First, to assess the current level of internal branding in Abu Dhabi's government departments. Second, to find the antecedents that lead to creating successful internal branding. Third, to examine the results and consequences of creating successful internal branding in Abu Dhabi's Department of Economic Development. The first section of this chapter (Chapter 4) contributed to answering the previous questions; while this section of the chapter also contributes to the full answering of all the questions. It addresses the second one.

4.7.1 Measurement Models

It is important to indicate that, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1982), before testing the full latent model, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted, using principal components analysis with Varimax rotation. For the internal branding antecedents, EFA yielded four distinct factors that accounted for 77.32% of the variance extracted (section 4.5.1). For the internal branding, EFA yielded one distinct factor that accounted for 73.98% of the variance extracted (section 4.5.2). For the internal branding consequences, EFA yielded two distinct factors that accounted for 74.82% of the variance extracted (section 4.5.3). All items loaded highly on their intended constructs.

4.7.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Before testing the model, which considers all the dimensions together, it is important to highlight, from a methodological point of view, that individualized analyses of each of the dimensions were made (the measurement model), in order to carry out a prior refinement of the items used in their measurement. Having established the different measures, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. This research used both a structural model (which includes all the constructs in one model) and a measurement model (in which each construct has a separate model) (Hair et al., 2006; Eid, 2015; Eid & Elgohary 2015a, b).

After the four dimensions of the internal branding antecedents scale were established, the one dimension of the internal branding construct and the two dimensions of the internal branding consequences, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. For this research, both the structural model (including all the constructs in one model) and the measurement model (having a separate model for each construct) were chosen for use.

4.7.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Internal Branding Antecedents

The results, shown in Figure.15, support the proposed four-factor solution, comprising External Customer Orientation, Internal Customer Orientation, Internal Service Quality and Interdepartmental Connectedness.

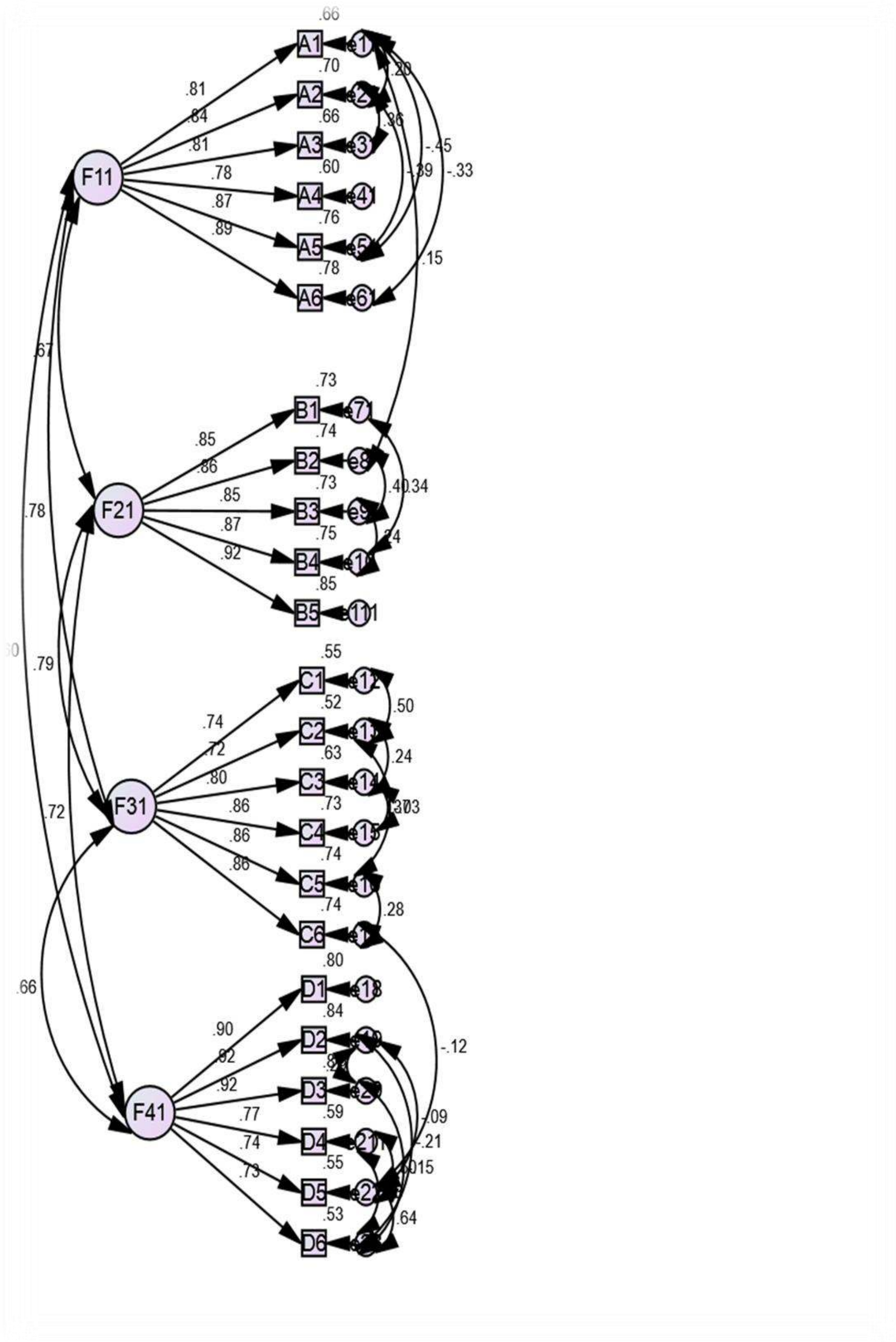

Figure 15: The Main and Sub-constructs of Internal Branding Antecedents

The fitness indices are listed in Table 33. Although Chi-square significance =0.000 the other indices show that the model had a good fit and was aligned with the suggested statistic proposed by experts (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1982); for example, the goodness-of-fit indices (GFI) for the model showed the GFI=0.901 (≥0.90), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =0.974 (≥0.90), the CMIN/DF=1.914 (<3), the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) =0.965 (≥0.80) and TLI=0.967 (>0.95).

Table 33: The fitness indices for Internal Branding Antecedents

Statistic	Index value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-square significance	0.000	> 0.05
CMIN/DF	1.914	<3
GFI	0.901	> 0.90
AGFI	0.965	> 0.80
TLI	0.967	>0.95
CFI	0.974	>0.90
RMSEA	0.055	<0.10

Table 34: Results of the IB Antecedents Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Construct	Scale	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
External Customer Orientation	A1	.90	0.92	0.96	0.90
	A2	.91			
	A3	.90			
	A4	.87			
	A5	.93			
	A6	.94			
Internal Customer Orientation	B1	.92	0.94	0.96	0.92
	B2	.92			
	B3	.91			
	B4	.92			
	B5	.95			
Internal Service Quality	C1	.86	0.92	0.95	0.89

	C2	.84		
	C3	.88		
	C4	.92		
	C5	.92		
	C6	.92		
Interdepartmental Connectedness	D1	.94	0.96	0.90
	D2	.95		
	D3	.95		
	D4	.87		
	D5	.86		
	D6	.84		

4.7.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Internal Branding Antecedents

The results, shown in Figure.16 supported the proposed one-factor solution that represents the perception of internal branding practices in the Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development.

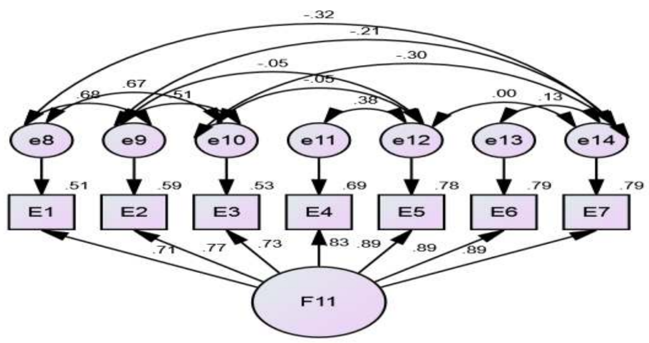

Figure 16: The Main and Sub-constructs of the Internal Branding Construct

The fitness indices for the internal branding construct are listed in Table.35 Chi-square is not significant at 0.155, which reflects the goodness of fit of the suggested structural model. Similarly, the other indices show that the model had a good fit and was aligned with the suggested statistic proposed by experts (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1982); for example, the goodness-of-fit indices

(GFI) for the model showed the GFI=0.995 (≥0.90), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =0.999 (≥0.90), the CMIN/DF=1.749(<3), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) =0.954(≥0.80) and TLI=0.992 (>0.95).

Table 35: The fitness indices for Internal Branding Antecedents

Statistic	Index value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-square significance	0.000	> 0.05
CMIN/DF	1.9749	<3
GFI	0.995	> 0.90
AGFI	0.954	> 0.80
TLI	0.992	>0.95
CFI	0.999	>0.90
RMSEA	0.050	<0.10

Table 36: IB Construct Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Scale	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Internal Branding	E1	.84	0.92	0.96	0.89
	E2	.87			
	E3	.85			
	E4	.91			
	E5	.94			
	E6	.93			
	E7	.94			

4.7.2.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Internal Branding Antecedents

The results, shown in Figure 17, also support the proposed four-factor solution, comprising External Customer Orientation, Internal Customer Orientation, Internal Service Quality and Interdepartmental Connectedness.

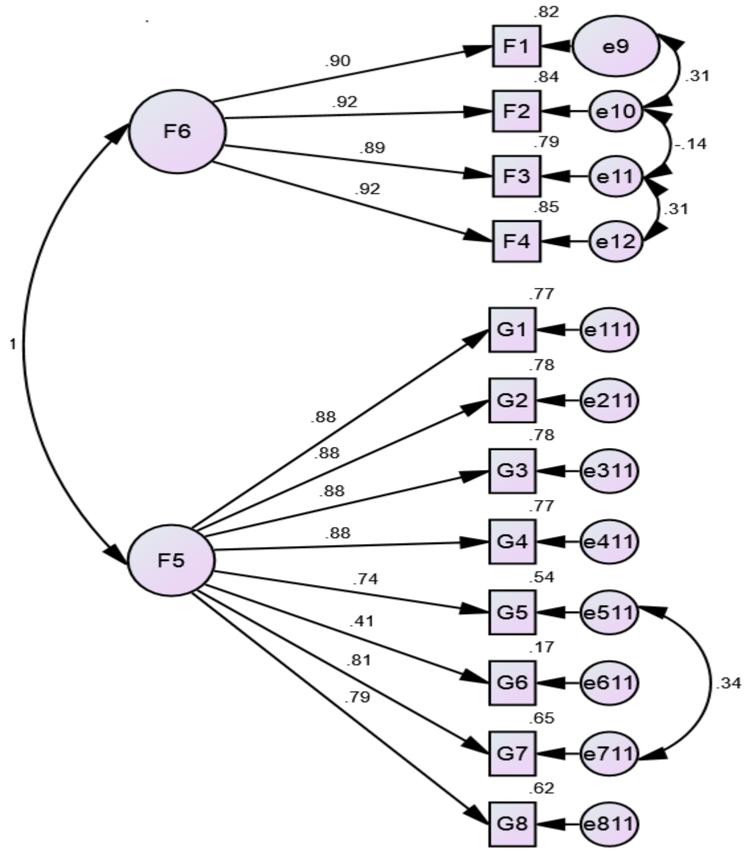

Figure 17: The Main and Sub-constructs of Internal Branding Consequences

The fitness indices are listed in Table 37. Although the Chi-square significance was 0.000 the other indices show that the model had a good fit and was aligned with the suggested statistic proposed by experts (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1982); for example, the Goodness-of-Fit Indices (GFI) for the model show the GFI=0.951 (≥0.90), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =0.986 (≥0.90), the CMIN/DF=1.96 (<3), the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) =0.923 (≥0.80) and TLI=0.982 (>0.95).

Table 37: The fitness indices for Internal Branding Antecedents

Statistic	Index value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-square significance	0.000	> 0.05
CMIN/DF	1.960	<3
GFI	0.951	> 0.90
AGFI	0.923	> 0.80
TLI	0.982	>0.95
CFI	0.986	>0.90
RMSEA	0.057	<0.10

Table 38: Results of the IB Consequences Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Construct	Scale	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
External Customer Satisfaction	F1	.93	0.95	0.96	0.93
	F2	.94			
	F3	.93			
	F4	.93			
Job Satisfaction	G1	.85	0.89	0.96	0.88
	G2	.64			
	G3	.89			
	G4	.88			
	G5	.95			
	G6	.95			
	G7	.94			
	G8S	.96			

4.7.3 Convergent Validity Analysis

Convergent validity describes the extent to which items of a specific dimension or construct converge or share a high proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2006). Convergent validity can be evaluated by three criteria (Fornell & Larcker 1981; Liang & Wang 2004; Hair et al., 2006; Hooper et al., 2008; Čater & Čater 2010). First, factor loading for an item is at least 0.7 and significant. Second, construct reliability is a minimum of 0.60. Finally, average variance extracted (AVE) for a construct is larger than 0.5. Table.39 summarizes the results of the convergent validity analysis. Note that all of the scales had an acceptable convergent validity.

Table 39: Convergent Validity Results

Constructs	Composite Reliability	AVE
External Customer Orientation	0.96	0.90
Internal Customer Orientation	0.96	0.92
Internal Service Quality	0.95	0.89
Interdepartmental Connectedness	0.96	0.90
Internal Branding	0.96	0.89
External Customer Satisfaction	0.96	0.93
Job Satisfaction	0.96	0.88

4.7.4 Discriminant Validity Analysis

The correlation matrix and AVE were used to assess the discriminant validity of constructs. To meet the requirements for satisfactory discriminant validity, Table.40 shows that the variances extracted by constructs (AVE) were greater than any squared correlation among the constructs; this implied that the constructs were empirically distinct (Fornell & Larcker 1981). This indicates that each construct should share more variance with its items than it shares with other constructs. In summary, the measurement model test, including convergent and discriminant validity measures, was satisfactory.

Table 40: Discriminant Validity Results

Correlations

	External Customer Orientation	Internal Customer Orientation	Internal Service Quality	Interdepartmental Connectedness	Internal Branding	External Customer Satisfaction	Job Satisfaction
External Customer Orientation	**.90**						
Internal Customer Orientation	.39**	**.92**					
Internal Service Quality	.52**	.49**	**.89**				
Interdepartmental Connectedness	.35**	.45**	.37**	**.90**			
Internal Branding	.52**	.49**	.54**	.50**	**.89**		
External Customer Satisfaction	.56**	.50**	.52**	.55**	.70**	**.93**	
Job Satisfaction	.52**	.45**	.52**	.49**	.69**	.64**	**.88**

The diagonals represent the average variance extracted (AVE) and the lower cells represent the squared correlation between the C constructs.

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.7.5 Hypothesis Testing

The data were analysed using path analysis, which is a multivariate analytical methodology for empirically examining sets of relationships in the form of linear causal models (Duncan, 1986; Li, 1975). The aim of path analysis is to examine the direct and indirect effects of each hypothesis on the basis of knowledge and theoretical constructs (Pedhazur, 1982). Path analysis does not establish causal relations with certainty, but is used for quantitative interpretations of potential causal relationships (Borchgrevink & Boster, 1998).

A path diagram represents the proposed antecedents and consequences among the variables in the model. Arrows are used to symbolize the hypothesized relationships and the direction of the influence in the model. When specifying a path model, a distinction is drawn between exogenous variables and endogenous variables. The influence of exogenous variables is outside the model and endogenous variables alone have influence in the model. In this case, internal branding antecedents are treated as the only exogenous variables, and the internal branding consequences are the endogenous variables.

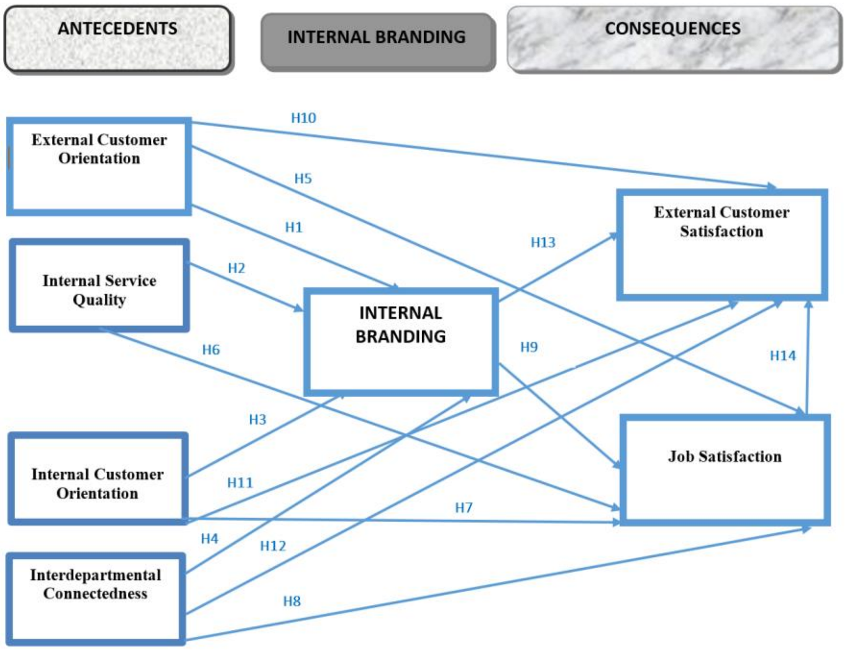

Figure 18: The Proposed Structural Model's Relationships

Figure.17 depicts the proposed structural model which reflects the possible relationships between the variables. The value of the path coefficient associated with each path represents the strength of each linear influence. The structural equation-modelling package, AMOS, was used to test the hypotheses developed in the model. The factor scores were used as single item indicators and a path analysis was performed, applying the maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) method, following the guidelines suggested by Joreskog and Sorbom (1982).

4.7.5.1 Structural-Model Testing

Finally, given that the purpose of the study was to test the hypothesized causal relationships among the constructs of the model, the structural equation-modelling package, AMOS 22 (see Figure 17) was used. The factors' means were employed as single item indicators to perform path analysis, applying the maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) method, following the guidelines suggested by Joreskog & Sorbom (1982). A more detailed analysis of the results and measures for model fit is reported in Table 41.

Since there is no definitive standard of fit, a variety of indices is provided along with suggested guidelines. The X^2 test was not statistically significant (probability level= 0.286), which indicated an adequate fit. The other fit indices, together with the squared multiple correlations, indicated a good overall fit with the data (GFI = .96, CFI = .999, AGFI=0.970, NFI = .999, RMSEA = .022, RMR=0.002). Since these indices confirmed that the overall fit of the model to the data was good, it was concluded that the structural model was an appropriate basis for hypothesis testing.

Table 41: Standardized Regression Weights

Predictor variables	Criterion Variables	Hypothesized relationship	Standardized coefficient	R^{2a}
External Customer Orientation	Internal Branding	H1	0.264***	0.697
Internal Service Quality	Internal Branding	H2	0.254***	
Internal Customer Orientation	Internal Branding	H3	0.160***	

Predictor variables	Criterion Variables	Hypothesized relationship	Standardized coefficient	R^{2a}
Interdepartmental Connectedness	Internal Branding	H4	0.291***	
External Customer Orientation	Job Satisfaction	H5	0.172***	0.753
Internal Service Quality	Job Satisfaction	H6	0.118***	
Internal Customer Orientation	Job Satisfaction	H7	0.030^{ns}	
Interdepartmental Connectedness	Job Satisfaction	H8	0.164***	
Internal Branding	Job Satisfaction	H9	0.488***	
External Customer Orientation	Customer Satisfaction	H10	0.214***	0.792
Internal Customer Orientation	Customer Satisfaction	H11	0.089**	
Interdepartmental Connectedness	Customer Satisfaction	H12	0.195***	
Internal Branding	Customer Satisfaction	H13	0.371***	
Job Satisfaction	Customer Satisfaction	H14	0.137***	
Statistic			Suggested	Obtained
Chi-Square Significance			≥0.05	0.286
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)			≥0.90	0.99
Comparative fit index (CFI)			≥0.90	1.00
Normed Fit Index (NFI)			≥0.90	0.99
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)			≤0.05	0.022
Root mean square residual (RMSEA)			≤0.10	0.002

**P<0.05, ***P<0.01, ns is not significant

However, the findings generally support the research conceptual model. The results support most of the hypotheses. Table.40 shows the estimated standardized parameters for the causal paths. The suggested factors positively affect the internal branding in Abu Dhabi DED, namely, External Customer Orientation (H1)

(Standardized Estimate=0. 264, P< 0.01), Internal Service Quality (H2) (Standardized Estimate=0.254, P< 0.01), Internal Customer Orientation (H3) (Standardized Estimate=0.160, P< 0.01), and Interdepartmental Connectedness (H4) (Standardized Estimate=0.291, P< 0.01).

Similarly, apart from Internal Customer Orientation (H7) (Standardized Estimate=0.030, P= 0.560 which is not significant), the suggested factors positively affect job satisfaction in this Department, namely; External Customer Orientation (H5) (Standardized Estimate=0. 172, P< 0.01), Internal Service Quality (H6) (Standardized Estimate=0.118, P< 0.01), Interdepartmental Connectedness (H8) (Standardized Estimate=0.164, P< 0.01), and Internal Branding (H9) (Standardized Estimate=0.2488, P< 0.01).

Similarly, apart from Internal Customer Orientation (H11) (Standardized Estimate=0.089, P= 0.027) which is not significant, the suggested factors positively affect job satisfaction in this Department, namely; External Customer Orientation (H10) (Standardized Estimate=0.214, P< 0.01), Interdepartmental Connectedness (H12) (Standardized Estimate=0.195, P< 0.01), Internal Branding (H13) (Standardized Estimate=0.371, P< 0.01) and Job Satisfaction (H9) (Standardized Estimate=0.137, P< 0.01). Figure.19 illustrates the path diagram for the causal model.

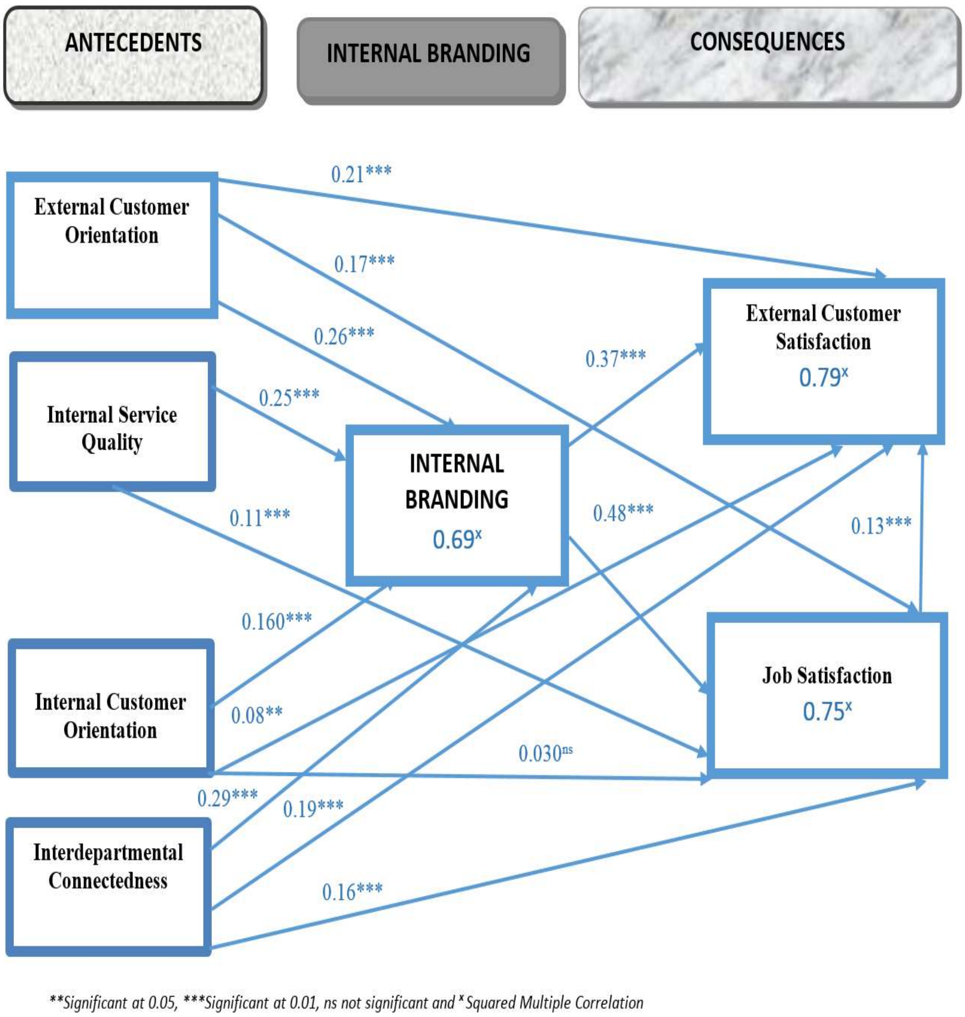

Figure 19: Results of Path Analysis

Since the causal effects of the suggested factors may be either direct or indirect, i.e., mediated via the effects of other variables, or both, the total causal effects were computed. More specifically, the indirect effects are the multiplicative sum of the standardized path coefficients. The total effects are the sum of the direct effect and all the indirect effects. Table.42 shows the direct, indirect and total effects of the suggested factors.

Table 42: Direct, Indirect and Total Effect of the Suggested Factors

Criterion Variable	Predictor variables	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Internal Branding	External Customer Orientation	0.264	0.000	0.264
	Internal Service Quality	0.254	0.000	0.254
	Internal Customer Orientation	0.160	0.000	0.160
	Interdepartmental Connectedness	0.291	0.000	0.291
Job Satisfaction	External Customer Orientation	0.172	0.129	0.301
	Internal Service Quality	0.118	0.124	0.242
	Internal Customer Orientation	0.030	0.078	0.108
	Interdepartmental Connectedness	0.164	0.142	0.306
	Internal Branding	0.488	0.000	0.488
External customer Satisfaction	External Customer Orientation	0.214	0.139	0.353
	Internal Customer Orientation	0.089	0.074	0.163
	Interdepartmental Connectedness	0.195	0.150	0.345
	Internal Branding	0.371	0.067	0.438
	Job Satisfaction	0.137	0.000	0.137

Finally, it is worth mentioning that it was surprising to find that Internal Customer Orientation showed only a negligible insignificant impact on job satisfaction. However, upon closer examination of the study, it should not have been unexpected. This insignificant direct effect (.030) is strengthened by the indirect positive effect

(.078) of the internal branding. This means that it is not internal customer orientation per se, but rather the improvement in internal branding, through internal customer orientation, that leads to job satisfaction. Internal customer orientation indirectly affects job satisfaction through improving and enhancing the internal branding practices.

This chapter reports on the inferential statistics that enabled conclusions to be reached that extend beyond the immediate data. This chapter describes the procedures and findings of the confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis, and hypotheses testing, which were used for analytical purposes. Confirmatory factor analysis for all 4 internal branding antecedents was mainly undertaken to, first, validate the measures in each stage and, second, to reduce the specific factors tested to a more general classification to enrich the theory development of internal branding in the Department. Regarding the internal branding antecedents, confirmatory factor analysis shows that these antecedents include four variables.

These factors were then taken to be the most interpretable and thus were accepted as the final factor solution. The four factors support the literature review (in Chapter 2) and are defined as:

1. External Customer Orientation,
2. Internal Service quality,
3. Internal Customer Orientation, and
4. Interdepartmental Connectedness

Similarly, at the internal branding consequences stage the confirmatory factor analysis results show that two factors were identified as valid reflections of the results of internal branding practices. These factors were then taken to be the most interpretable and thus were accepted as the final factor solution. The two factors, supported by the literature review (in Chapter 2), are defined as:

1. Job satisfaction, and
2. External customer satisfaction

After the results of confirmatory factor analysis, the hypotheses of each stage were tested. The summary of the results of hypotheses testing is presented in Table 43.

Table 43: Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Results
H1. External Customer orientation will have a positive impact on internal branding	Accepted
H2. Internal service quality will have a positive impact on internal branding	Accepted
H3. Internal customer orientation will have a positive impact on internal branding	Accepted
H4. Interdepartmental connectedness will have a positive impact on internal branding	Accepted
H5. External Customer orientation will have a positive impact on job satisfaction	Accepted
H6. Internal service quality will have a positive impact on job satisfaction	Accepted
H7. Internal customer orientation will have a positive impact on job satisfaction	Rejected
H8. Interdepartmental connectedness will have a positive impact on job satisfaction	Accepted
H9. Internal branding will have a positive impact on job satisfaction	Accepted
H10. External Customer orientation will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction	Accepted
H11. Internal customer orientation will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction	Accepted
H12. Interdepartmental connectedness will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction	Accepted
H13. Internal branding will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction	Accepted
H14. Job satisfaction will have a positive impact on external customer satisfaction	Accepted

Source: Analysis of Survey Data

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Key Findings

As mentioned in the previous chapters, the aims of this study are (a) to identify antecedents (factors) that lead to internal branding, so as to find the consequences of internal branding; and (b) to develop a conceptual model of internal branding which integrates antecedents, internal branding and consequences to specify and test the hypothesized relationships in a government context. This study provides new conceptual grounds for studying the antecedents and consequences of internal branding. It provides several operative factors that may be essential if organisations are to remain competitive in a dynamic marketplace. This study carried out an empirical assessment of the essential elements in the success of internal branding implementation, and assessed the factors that were drawn from a review of the relevant literature.

It was previously discussed (in Chapter 2) that there was a gap in the literature, hence, the study could add valuable knowledge to the internal branding literature in that it was carried out in a different context from that of the West. This reflects a different culture, different types of job and different work for employees to do from those in the culture and context of the present study. Different types of organisational culture imply different strategies, structures, systems, and leadership styles (Janicijevic, 2011). The literature reveals that each organisation has its unique culture (Hatch, 1993; Schein, 1995). The organisational culture (environment) plays an effective role as a social tool in motivating employees and influences their behavior, turning it into positive alignments of values (Dowling, 1994; de Chernatony, 2002).

Ambler and Barrow (1996) posit that internal branding may differ in employees from different contexts and industries. Accordingly, the Internal Branding literature investigated different contexts and industries, such as the hospitality service industry (Erkmen & Hancer, 2015), the public sector (Kamalanabhan, 2012), retail banking sector (Chebat et al., 2002; Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006; de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006), healthcare sector (Gapp & Merrilees, 2006) non-profitable UK charities (Hankinson, 2004), tourism and the hotel industry (Punjasiri & Wilson, 2007; Bowen, 1997). This study confirms what other literature on internal branding has claimed, although it was conducted in a different context. Further, most of the research hypotheses except for (H7), are supported by the empirical findings, and emphasize what is reported in the literature. Chapter 4 on data validation and hypothesis testing contributed to fully understanding and addressing the three main tasks of the thesis (see above) with quantitative data.

This chapter, however interprets and reviews the findings alongside the current literature which formed the content of Chapter 2. With the use of quantitative research, the questionnaire method was found the most feasible for this study. The questionnaire response rate was very satisfactory (49%), since the standard satisfactory response rate falls between (10% and 30%). The study obtained 304 responses from 7 different sectors within the DED, guaranteeing the fair distribution of the sample and justifying the generalization of the findings. The questionnaire results empirically validated the suggested model.

The factor findings from each of the model's three dimensions indicate relationships between the factors and the success of Internal Branding. More specifically, the following factors/enablers were found to play an important role, either directly or indirectly. The discussion format of this chapter follows the same format of the previous chapter (4) findings sequence, focusing on three main dimensions as presented by the study model, namely, **1)** The Antecedents of Internal Branding, **2)** The Internal Branding Construct, **3)** The Consequences of Internal Branding. These dimensions answered the Research Questions, which are:

1) What is the current level of internal branding within Abu Dhabi government departments?
2) What are the antecedents that lead to creating successful internal branding?
3) What are the results and consequences of creating a successful internal branding?

5.2 Finding One - The Antecedents that lead to Creating Successful IB

The findings on the antecedents of internal branding are revealed as closely parallel with those of the internal branding literature. There is only one surprising contradictory result which relates to the effect of internal customer orientation on job satisfaction (see Table 41). In general, however, the findings claim that the specified factors (as per the proposed research model) allow internal branding to lead to customer satisfaction and to job satisfaction. The interpretation of the four-factor solution was established by relating the factors to the theoretical concepts of internal branding, marketing and human resources.

The four factors which present the antecedents of Internal Branding are discussed in turn. F1) External Customer Orientation, F2) Internal Customer Orientation F3) Internal Service Quality, and F4) Interdepartmental Connectedness. The results of confirmatory Factor Analysis in Chapter (4) emphasized a four-factor solution with 23 items, and four factors with Eigen values of more than one, accounting for

77.32% of the variance and a Cronbach Alpha range of 0.92 to 0.94. All the four factors were reflected in the literature as antecedents of internal branding. This research supports the previous theoretical views of different researchers on the four antecedents.

Firstly, the research findings on the *External Customer Orientation* factor (Anosike & Eid, 2011) consist of 6 items which fit very well with 'External Customer Orientation' (Anosike & Eid, 2011; Boshoff & Allen, 2000; Hajjat, Mahmood M. 2002). This is in line with the literature contributed by these authors (Hajjat, 2002; Deshpande et al., 1993; Nahm et al., 2004; Heikkila, 2002), who report customer orientation measurements and validity and their positive relation to a firm's development (Doyle & Wong, 1998; Harris, 1996a; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990; Anosike & Eid, 2011).

The factor comprised elements that are closely grouped regarding values. The results indicated a need for the DED objectives to be clearer to employees than they are at present, with the lowest score value (0.60) of all the variables in the same factor. Meanwhile the highest value (0.82) showed that the DED has a system for solving customers' problems. These authors (see, for example, Homburg & Stock 2005; Kelley 1992) emphasize the way that customer orientation leads to customer satisfaction. The results also demonstrated a positive influence of external customer orientation on internal branding (H1) with (Standardized Estimate=0. 264, P< 0.01).

Internal branding is considered the first step (Zucker, 2002) in encouraging employees' behavior towards the brand, through customer orientation (George & Gronroos, 1989). In view of the theoretical framework of this research, the previously discussed internal branding theories in Chapter 2 are in line with the findings of the research. For example, the social identity theory which is used to express internal group behaviors in organisations (Hogg & Terry 2000; Haslam, 2004) offers a multifaceted perspective which connects the behavior of individuals to the organisational values represented by customer orientation (Bhattacharya & Sen, on 2003).

This is a critical construct in the organisational behaviour literature, impacting both the satisfaction of the individual and the effectiveness of the organisation (Brown, 1969; Hall et al., 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). As Haslam, et al. (2003) observe, when “people engage in a process of self-stereotyping whereby their behavior is oriented to, and structured by, the content of that group’s or organisation’s defining characteristics, norms and values, [it results] in the internalization of a particular organisational identity”.

For external customer orientation to be effective, this theory suggests that managers act as role models and perceive values of orientation which they then communicate to employees. In this sense, customer oriented behavior is then driven and reflected by employees (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Stock & Hoyer 2002). According to Reicher et al. (2005), leaders are “entrepreneurs of identity” and can positively influence and reinforce employees’ perceptions of organisational identity. The relevant literature claims that modern service organisations seeking high quality services embody customer orientation in their identities (Bass, 1985). The social identity approach contributes to the literature on customer orientation (Haslam, 2004; Hartline & Ferrell 1996; Stock & Hoyer 2002; Hartline et al. 2000).

Further, the brand-oriented company theory links brand building to the organisation’s vision and focuses on brands as resources and strategic concerns developing a brand identity along with a constant interaction of desirable objectives and targeted customers to a competitive advantage (Urde, 1994). It also claims that customer orientation is the backbone of brand-orientation which considers brand identity as a focal point for organisational strategy, behavior and culture. And brand-orientated companies do eventually shift to customer orientation and maintain a strong brand relationship with customers (Urde, 2003, 2009).

In addition, the findings support that external customer orientation positively relates to service quality (Webb et al., 2000) and that customer orientation leads to customer satisfaction (Homburg & Stock 2005; Kelley 1992; Webb et al., 2000). Empirical research also evidences that external customer orientation has a correlation with job satisfaction (Hartline & Ferrell 1996; Stock & Hoyer 2002; Hartline et al. 2000), which is also endorsed by the findings of present research. Effective long-term internal relationships require commitment, fairness, shared information and open communication (Spekman et al., 1998; Ragatz et al., 1997; Nilson, 1998).

Hence, high quality shared and delivered information expresses accuracy and adequacy (Monczka et al., 1998; Holmberg, 2000). Further, operational practices in customer- centric firms and through customer orientation may use lean systems and time-based management to reduce unnecessary costs, time, and processes (Rich & Hines, 1997; Handfield & Nichols, 1999). These factors enhance flexibility and reduce delays (Tu et al., 2004). Overall, the findings also support the claims by Anosike & Eid (2011) that customer orientation decides how the organisation is going to perform in the future, and that high performing organisations are more customer-centric and often develop customer satisfaction.

Secondly, the DED *Internal Customer Orientation* is found to be positively related to internal branding, (H3) (Standardized Estimate=0.160, P< 0.01). This finding is similar to the claim by Kapferer, 2008; Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, Berthon, 2002 that internal customer orientation is made possible by the process of internal branding. Moreover, the view of Anosike and Eid (2011) also indicates that internal customer orientation generates internal service quality which in turn result supports customer orientation. And as internal customers provide goods and/or services to the end users, they generate customer satisfaction (Mohr-Jackson, 1991). Thus, internal customer orientation is shown to be positively related to customer satisfaction (Conduit & Mavondo, 2011; Rod & Ashill, 2010). This factor consists of 5 items whose factor loadings revealed values which are closely grouped. The highest is "treating other internal departments as a customer" (0.82) and the lowest is "continuous improvement of the service provided to other internal departments" (0.72).

Surprisingly, however, the research findings showed that the DED's internal customer orientation insignificantly impacts job satisfaction (H11) with a Standardized Estimate=0.089, P= 0.027; this would not have been expected by close investigation of the study, since the insignificant direct effect (.030) is strengthened by the indirect positive effect (.078) of the internal branding. This means that it is the improvement of internal branding through internal customer orientation that indirectly leads to job satisfaction rather than the direct impact of internal customer orientation. Therefore, internal customer orientation indirectly affects job satisfaction through enhancing the internal branding practices.

The results also show that internal customer orientation leads to internal service quality and hence to customer orientation. This is supported by similar literature findings in the work of Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003; Frost & Kumar, 2000, 2001; Narver & Slater, 1990; Naude et al., 2003; and Reynoso & Moores, 1995). Satisfied customer-contact employees' behavior assists internal and external customers (Anosike & Eid, 2011; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Ahmed et al., 2003). Hence customer orientation is closely associated with high job satisfaction (Todd et al., 2004). Consequently, organisations need to stress the balance between their internal and external orientation to achieve customer satisfaction (De Chernatony, et al., 2003) because it is also found that ICO and internal branding are influenced by employees' intention to stay in the organisation and their understanding of their role and their objectives (Matanda & Ndubisi, 2013). Hence ICO helps to clarify the relevant organisational objectives for the DED employees.

Thirdly, as reported by the present research analysis, the DED Internal Service Quality positively impacts on internal branding (H2) (Standardized Estimate=0.254, P< 0.01). This supports the empirical evidence of the positive relationship between internal branding and service quality found by Tansuhaj et al., 1987; Richardson & Robinson, 1986. The research findings on this construct are in line with the social identity theory which claims that many modern service organisations seeking high internal and external service quality adopt customer orientation in their identity. Moreover, the internal brand building theory claims that attributes such as the quality of the provided products and/or services strongly helps to building reliable internal branding in an organisation, which they urgently need if they are to stay competitive (Burmann et al., 2009).

It is also endorsed and supported by the findings that internal service quality has a positive association with internal customer orientation and hence customer orientation. As empirically demonstrated there is a close link between internal customer orientation and internal service quality which results in enhancing the work environment, improving productivity and effectiveness (Anosike & Eid, 2011; Naude et al., 2003; Conduit & Mavondo, 2011). The internal service quality factor consists of 6 items and fits very well with the 'Internal Service Quality' (Anosike and Eid, 2011). The values of this factor element showed highest in the positive interaction of the DED employees with each other (0.81) and the lowest appeared in the DED management's positive response to employees' explanations (0.57), which indicates the DED management's need to put more effort into responding to the employees. Podsakoff et al., 1996; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Yoon et al., 2001; and Alexandrov et al., 2007 produced evidence that supportive caring and concern to employees on the part of management positively impact job satisfaction.

This research produced findings on the DED's internal service quality which shows that service quality creates customer satisfaction, reinforcing the argument by Parasuraman et al., 1985; Zeithaml et al., 1988, which reports that internal service quality is an important inward element for providing outward quality for external customers; hence it positively influences job satisfaction and customer satisfaction (Berry et al., 1990; George, 1990; Gronroos, 1990; Silvestro et al., 1992; Heskett et al. 1994). The findings also support the relationship between perceived internal service quality and customer satisfaction, which is highly featured in the literature (Taylor & Baker, 1994, Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Dabholkar et al., 2000; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1993; Spreng & Mackoy, 1996). Most of the empirical findings posited customer satisfaction as a consequence of perceived service quality (Brady & Robertson, 2001; Dabholkar & Overby, 2005) and positively associated job satisfaction with service quality (Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991; Yoon et al., 2001; Reynierse & Harker, 1992).

Authors such as Kunda & Vora, 2004 point out that organisations which are internal service-oriented positively impact on customer satisfaction and the more focus is given to internal service quality, the higher the satisfaction (Johnson, 1996; Schneider & Bowen, 1985) which is been confirmed and supported by the present study findings. Sasser & Arbeit (1976) report that organisations must get the buy-in of internal customers and satisfy them before selling services to external customers, and this will lead to business success (Gremler et al., 1994; Rosenbluth & Peters, 1992). Consequently, researchers claim that job satisfaction has a positive relationship with service quality (Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991; Yoon et al., 2001; Reynierse & Harker, 1992).

A number of organisational elements have also been identified by the literature as having an impact on job satisfaction, such as the procedures or practices of human resources, leadership practices, pay scale policies, job surroundings, career development, the organisational climate and the social context (Liao & Chuang, 2004; Harter et al., 2002; Chebat et al., 2002; Lum et al., 1998; Bitner, 1992; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Paulin et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Joshi & Randall, 2001; Lusch et al., 1996). Moreover, the literature reports that factors such as compensation (Acker, 2004; Christen et al., 2006; Lum et al., 1998), job autonomy (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006; Paulin et al., 2006), fairness perception (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Paulin et al., 2006), and management support are said to be directly linked to job satisfaction (Babin & Boles 1996; Paulin et al., 2006). Further, to maintain a high value quality service, employees must be empowered and authorized to better serve customers. Studies such as Laschinger et al., 2001; Spreitzer et al., 1997; McDonald and Siegall, 1993; Riggs and Knight, 1994; Brown et al., 1993 identify significant relations between empowerment and job satisfaction. And Heskett et al. (1994) report that service quality stimulates customer satisfaction and loyalty. Boshoff and Mels (1995) conclude that a participative management style helps to enhance service quality performance.

Fourthly, the results of the present study indicate from the evidence that Interdepartmental Connectedness positively influences and makes possible internal branding (H4) (Standardized Estimate=0.291, P< 0.01). This factor consists of 6 items and fits very well with the 'Interdepartmental Connectedness' (Anosike and Eid, 2011). The items values in this factor are all significant, the highest being in "informal talk between employees regardless of position" (0.82) which may imply easy social interaction between the DED's employees and also reflects the hierarchal culture the DED has established over time, while, the lowest value was shown in "regular meetings held by individual functional departments" (0.75).

Tajfel's definition of the social identity theory (1981) strongly confirms the positive impact of interdepartmental connectedness as an organisational enabler. He posits that social identity theory is "that part of the individual's self-concept which derives from knowledge of their membership of a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1981). Clearly this is the core building block of the interdepartmental connectedness which requires intergroup relations and processes emphasizing multi-faceted relationships between individual behavior and the social context. The focus of the social identity approach minimizes dysfunctional interaction and enhances positive differentiation. Hence, this concept of belonging in an individual gains satisfaction and serves to enhance group success and distinctiveness (Blake et al. 1989).

The research finding on interdepartmental connectedness also supports the claim that this factor facilitates customer orientation and drives higher service quality. This is confirmed by Denison & Hart, 1996 and Pitta & Franzak, 1996, who posit that interdepartmental connectedness and interaction between individuals across functional departments can impact on the organisational service level in terms of integration, coordination, and lowering cross-functional barriers; moreover, and interdepartmental connectedness can be improved through cross-functional activities.

Overall, the study findings are also run parallel with the internal brand-building theory, which holds that brand identity develops organisational meaningful associations with an added value for customers (de Chernatony, 2002; Aaker, 1996). This theory is positively borne out in the four antecedents of internal branding and their associated dimensions. Moreover, the results confirm the claim that the productivity and success of an organisation can be improved through the use of customer orientation, internal customer orientation, interdepartmental connectedness, internal service quality and internal branding. This is in line with the findings of Anosike and Eid, 2011; Barclay, 1991; Bergstrom et al., 2002; Kleinbaum et al., 2008; Lee, 2005; Mahnert and Torres, 2007; Podnar and Golob, 2010.

To create superior service value, customer orientation and coordination must be the focus across departmental barriers (Narver & Slater, 1990). Webb et al. (2000) claim that customer orientation positively relates to service quality and satisfaction. Interactive customers provide opinions on the quality of service that they have received and delivered and hence build and evaluate, as Webb et al., 2000 suggest.

Marketing practitioners and researchers (Bell, Menguc, & Stefani, 2004; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Montes, Fuerites, & Fernandez, 2003; Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Todd, Brown, & Mowen, 200) posit that customer-centric organisations, both internal and external, achieve superior value. Accordingly, the four analysed antecedents with their hypothesized associated relationships enable successful internal branding to be created.

5.3 Finding Two - The Current Level of IB in DED

Another study finding establishes that Internal Branding positively impacts the internal organisational culture (internal environment) enabling the organisation to clearly understand its customers (employees), by linking their capabilities and from there working to achieve superior customer satisfaction. This is in line with the work of (Keller, 1993) and provides support for proposition that Internal Branding is a driver of organisational success and employee satisfaction (King & Grace, 2008). It also provides empirical support for Holmgren, Schori & Wingard, 2003, who propose that Internal Branding empowers and aligns employees to the consistent delivery of appropriate experiences to customers.

The DED employees who responded to the survey were asked to evaluate internal branding in the DED. The factor analysis included seven items measuring the practices of internal branding. Accordingly, 7 items were identified with one factor that had eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 73.98% of the variance (see Table 25). The 7 items fit very well with the ‘internal branding’ construct. The factor loadings were all higher than 0.5, so that each item loaded higher on its associated construct than on any other construct, which is statistically significant.

The interpretation was achieved in line with the theoretical concepts of marketing and human resources management. The items' values were closely related, the highest being "The DED orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil the DED vision" (0.89) and the lowest, "The DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them" (0.90). This shows that internal branding has a mediating role in the relationship between the four specific antecedents and the consequences of customer satisfaction and job satisfaction. The results confirm what Mahnert & Torres (2007) claim about the ability of Internal Branding to sell the brand to internal customers (employees), which confers significant advantage.

The findings are also parallel with the finding of (Keller, 1993) which posits that Internal Branding ensures the strategic alignment of human capital with organisational goals by continuously connecting employees to the organisation's vision and values, leading to a positive impact on organisational culture. The findings support the view of the Internal Brand Building theory, which posits employees as "brand ambassadors", meaning that every action that they take should have a regular interaction of brand meaning (Vallaster & de Chernatony 2005; de Chernatony et al., 2006). Similarly, internal branding has been found a driver of job satisfaction (King & Grace, 2008) as the research results underline.

The findings also support the view that internal branding communicates the brand to employees by engaging them in the organisation strategy, training them in brand strengthening behaviors, and recognizing and rewarding them (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991), leading to the positive significant value of employees' commitment (Almgren, Ek & Goransson, 2012; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday, 1998; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Brodie et al., 2006;

Kleinbaum, Stuart, & Tushman, 2008). All of these tend to encourage and enhance the organisational culture of the DED.

Additionally, the research findings on internal branding agree with the claim of King and Grace (2005) that motivating employees to always understand the values of internal branding leads to greater recognition and employee satisfaction (Leberecht, 2004; King & Grace, 2005). Successful internal branding facilitates the motivating of employees to contribute, thus satisfying them with their jobs (Caruana, 1999). Blumenthal (2001) posits that internal branding improves the quality of employees' lives by focusing on compensation, the organisational culture, communication, commitment and clarity, leading to job satisfaction.

The claim of Azizi, Ghytasivand & Fakharmanesh, 2012; Al-Hawary *et al*., 2013; Tansuhaj et al., 1991) is in line with the research results: that there is a direct positive relationship between internal branding and job satisfaction. This is relevant to the internal branding dimensions such as communication, feedback and appraisal, customer consciousness and employee training which are all closely inter-related and have a positive impact on job satisfaction. Hwang and Chi (2005) also agree that internal branding generally contributes to job satisfaction. Not only does it support the organisational culture, but internal branding greatly empowers employees to fully understand the brand identity and express it (Arruda, 2001). It is considered an effective engagement tool, which facilitates employees' delivery of the brand promise (Sartain & Schumann, 2006) with a competitive advantage (O 'Reilly III & Pfeffer, 2000) and leads to a positive value-adding experience for customers, resulting in their satisfaction (Holmgren, Schori & Wingard, 2003).

Further, internal branding is a multi-functional process that is critically significant for the organisation's success (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, Bravo, 2007). It requires cultural change along with sufficient alignment of such functions as HR and marketing (Aurand et al, 2005). These functions have an important role in developing employees' capabilities and improving organisational performance (Pfeffer, 1998; Gronroos, 1978; Berry, 1981; Browning, 1998; de Chernatony & Harris, 2000; Zerbe, et al., 1998). In addition, authors such as Ahmed et al., 2002; Gummesson, 1991; Tansuhaj et al. 1991; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007; Vallaster & De Chernatony, 2003; Rao & Dewar, 2005; and Burmann, Zeplin & Riley, 2009) report an association between human resources, corporate communication, marketing and management for the successful implementation of internal branding. For Holmgren, Schori and Wingard (2003), internal branding makes employees live the brand through the business strategy framework which requires employees to share the vision, values and promise of the brand in their daily work (Reid et al., 2005; Urde, 1994, 1999; Baumgarth, 2010; Pringle & Thompson, 2001; de Chernatony 2001). Accordingly, the previous discussion has interpreted the answer to the research question: What is the current level of internal branding within Abu Dhabi government departments.

5.4 Finding Three - The Consequences of Creating a Successful IB

In the review of the literature, two factors were found to measure the consequences of internal branding. These are External Customer Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction. The consequences of internal branding were assessed so as to figure out and identify the results that could be achieved by the DED if it follows the internal practices of branding. The research analysis identified 12 items and two factors with eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 74.82% of the variance (see Table 29). The interpretation of the two-factor solution was interpreted regarding the theoretical concepts of marketing and Human Resources Management.

The first factor consists of 4 items and fits very well with ‘External Customer satisfaction’. The values of its items are closely related, the highest being “Overall Satisfaction on the DED service performance” (0.87) and the lowest “Your expectation of the DED’s business policy compared to other local departments” (0.83). Lee (2005) considers customer satisfaction to be the core of business success and indicates that increased customer satisfaction can lead to better productivity, higher reputation, and competitive advantage. The research findings are in line with the previous view, as the analysed outcomes of external customer satisfaction were significantly positive.

As noted above, internal service quality is positively related to customer satisfaction and most of the empirical literature claims that customer satisfaction is a consequence of perceived service quality (Brady & Robertson, 2001; Dabholkar & Overby, 2005; Taylor & Baker, 1994, Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Dabholkar et al., 2000; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1993; Spreng & Mackoy, 1996). The relevant literature also demonstrated a positive relationship between internal branding, customer satisfaction and service quality (Tansuhaj et al., 1987; Richardson & Robinson, 1986). Together they motivate employees to do their best to satisfy external customers (Berry, 1981; Donnelly et al., 1985; George, 1990; Sasser & Arbeit, 1976). Fornell (1991) attests that customer satisfaction directly impacts on the organisation’s performance.

Turning now to Factor 2, Job Satisfaction, it consists of 8 items with values which are closely grouped, the highest being “I would not consider leaving my current job” (0.82) and the lowest, “I feel that I am making an important contribution in the DED” (0.70). The analysis findings are supported by the claim of Van Knippenberg & Hogg 2003 that the actions of job satisfaction entail a range of identity-based aspects which create behavior and attitude. Based on the social identity theory, which supports the research findings on job satisfaction, it seems clear that organisational identification, as an organisational behavior, is a critical construct, affecting both the satisfaction of the individual and the effectiveness of the organisation (Brown, 1969; Hall et al., 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). And organisations seeking their employees’ job satisfaction could conform to the job characteristics model of Hackman & Oldham, 1975. In addition, the findings on job satisfaction reveal a positive impact on internal service quality and customer orientation. This is similar to what is reported by Tschohl, 1998; Rafiq & Ahmed, 1998, 2000; and Geralis & Terziovski, 2003). Moreover, the results of this study also confirm the theoretical claims of Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000 who posit that performers of empowered customer-centric services who are also authorized to make immediate decisions are more likely to satisfy internal and external customers. The hypothesized findings on job satisfaction are positively correlated with internal service quality and customer orientation, as confirmed by Anosike & Eid, 2011 and Todd et al., 2004). Organisational elements such as procedures, HR practices, leadership, pay scales, job surroundings, career development and the firm’s social context highly impact on job satisfaction (Liao & Chuang, 2004; Harter et al., 2002; Chebat et al., 2002; Lum et al., 1998; Bitner, 1992; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Paulin et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Joshi & Randall, 2001; Lusch et al., 1996).

Research studies by Gallup (2006) and the Hay Group (2002) show that human resource practices have a significant impact on improving employee satisfaction and performance. Accordingly, the hypothesized model in the present research supports the earlier expectation that there is an association between customer orientation and job satisfaction, which directly influences the behaviour of customer-centred employees. The research findings also support the view of Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000; Montes et al., 2003; Ahmed et al., 2003; and Bell et al., 2004. Employees who are highly satisfied with their jobs are more likely to engage in service-oriented behaviors than those who are less satisfied (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Netemeyer et al., 1997).

The non-financial contributing factors of job satisfaction such as recognition programs, motivational practices, and empowerment (Timmreck, 2001; Snipes et al., 2005; Carless, 2004; Chebat & Kollias, 2000; Gonzalez & Garazo, 2006) are claimed to result in significant job satisfaction, and higher levels of service for end customers, leading to sustainable competitive advantage (Gronroos,1997). Authors such as Podsakoff et al., 1996; Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005; Yoon et al., 2001; and Alexandrov et al., 2007 contend that supportive leadership and management concern shown to employees positively impact on job satisfaction. Therefore, organisations which are interested in increasing their employees' job satisfaction can implement the job characteristics model of Hackman & Oldham, 1975) that was used in the present research The actions of job satisfaction have various identity-based aspects that create behavior and attitude (Van Knippenberg & Hogg 2003).

A theory by Heskett et al. (1994), called the service-profit chain holds that organisations' financial performance comes from customer satisfaction, which is a result of employee performance, which in turn is an outcome of employee satisfaction. Hence, employees' job satisfaction highly influences customer satisfaction. It is argued that satisfied employees achieve higher levels of performance than those with low job satisfaction (Kelly & Hise, 1980; Brief, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002). Carrying out employee and customer satisfaction surveys helps to find how far employees keep the brand promise and the impact of this on customers (Farrell, 2002). Fornell (1991) reports that customer satisfaction directly influences the organisation's performance.

Finally, and as discussed above in this chapter and the previous one, internal customer orientation is found to be not significant. This calls for additional research to examine the relationship between internal customer orientation and job satisfaction. Contrary to this, however, the other suggested specified factors positively affect job satisfaction in Abu Dhabi's Department of Economic Development.: they are External Customer Orientation (H10) (Standardized Estimate=0.214, P<0.01), Interdepartmental Connectedness (H12) (Standardized Estimate=0.195, P< 0.01), Internal Branding (H13) (Standardized Estimate=0.371, P< 0.01) and Job Satisfaction (H9) (Standardized Estimate=0.137, P< 0.01).

Most importantly, in its contribution to the literature of customer satisfaction and job satisfaction, this study offers greater understanding of the antecedents and consequences of internal branding. To build successful internal branding, management should develop a supportive structure in terms of strategic vision, organisational culture, communication, behavior and identity, all of which deliver brand related messages to employees (Hatch & Schultz, 2003, 2001, 1997; Schultz et al., 2000). The internal branding behavior of employees is also referred to as employees' contribution to a customer-oriented organisation (Heskett et al., 1997, 2003; Arnett, et al., 2003; Bhattacharya & Sen 2003; Miles & Mangold 2004; Algesheimer et al., 2005; Bettencourt & Brown 2003; Bettencourt et al., 2005; MacKenzie et al., 1998; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Organisations which strive to build internal branding are more likely to have employees who are accountable and more supportive of the brand promise (Devasagayam et al. 2010).

To sum up, the above section interpreted the answer of the third research question (What are the results and consequences of creating a successful internal branding?). The findings generally support the research conceptual model. The results answered the research questions and support most of the hypotheses. The suggested factors positively affect the internal branding in Abu Dhabi's Department of Economic Development. The suggested factors, apart from Internal Customer Orientation, which is not significant, positively affect job satisfaction and external customer satisfaction in the DED. The findings and results back up the conceptual literature on the enablers and consequences of internal branding and the associated relationships between them. The above discussion, then, tends to support this attempt to remedy the gap in the literature on the specified antecedents and consequences of internal branding and have some insights to add to the current empirical research.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Overview of the Study Aim, Objectives, and Achievements

This study is the first to empirically examine and rigorously investigate the antecedents and consequences of internal branding. The process through which this research was developed and verified is reported in six chapters. Chapter 1 aims to present an overview of the dissertation, covering the research objectives and questions, while Chapter 2 presents the overall background of the related subject, the literature, the hypotheses, variables, and model. Chapter 3 presents the methodology, the empirical aspects of the research and the design. Chapter 4 discusses the results and analysis. Chapter 5 carries the research discussion and finally Chapter 6 presents the conclusion. Before doing so, it makes explicit the research contribution to knowledge. First it presents an overview of research objectives and findings as well as the contributions of the study to research and theory. Then it discusses the management and research implications, and finally outlines the limitations and suggestions for future research in turn.

As noted above, the main aim of this study was to develop a conceptual model framework of antecedents and consequences of internal branding. To achieve this aim, this research carried out a full investigation, paying particular attention to some theories that underpin research into internal branding success. Consequently, the study had four main objectives:

1. To identify the antecedents (factors) that lead to internal branding.
2. To find out the consequences of internal branding.
3. To develop and clarify a conceptual model integrating antecedents, internal branding and consequences.

4. To specify and test the hypothesized relationships derived from the conceptual framework.

The research design used a survey questionnaire (quantitative analysis) which gave it a wider and deeper understanding of the research dimensions in interpreting the findings. Some deeper insights into the key dimensions involved were obtained from the literature, providing a valuable source of data for the analysis. This, it is hoped, encouraged clearer understanding of the key concepts and possible relationships between variables. Next, the research constructs and hypothesizes were developed on the basis of relationships between the internal branding construct, its antecedents, and its consequences. While Chapter 3 set out the methodology used to test the hypotheses, Chapter 4 provided the results of the descriptive analysis, data purification, and tests for all the hypotheses and also showed how the specified elements related to internal branding. Then Chapter 5 provided a comprehensive discussion of the quantitative findings, answered the specified research questions which were:

1) What is the current level of internal branding within Abu Dhabi government departments?
2) What are the antecedents that lead to creating successful internal branding?
3) What are the results and consequences of creating a successful internal branding?

Suggesting that the four research objectives set out in Chapter 1 had been adequately addressed.

6.2 Contribution of the Study

This study makes contributions to research and to the theory of internal branding, being the first to investigate the antecedents and consequences of internal branding in the Middle East and in UAE in particular. It has brought together a large body of literature and unified different schools of thought into a single integrated perspective, extending the current concepts of internal branding. In fact, understanding the key enablers as consequences and antecedents of internal branding is crucial to understanding the successful implementation of internal branding.

Moreover, this research takes an important step by proposing a conceptual model and empirically testing the antecedents and consequences of internal branding. The results reveal a number of areas for future research. This study also provides new conceptual grounds for successful internal branding because this could provide organisations with a number of operative factors that might be essential to their remaining competitive in the quest for business success. Not only does this study provide an empirical assessment of the essential elements in internal branding implementation, but it also assesses the critical success factors that were derived from a comprehensive review of the relevant literature.

Accordingly, it may be concluded that organisations need to establish clear metrics and clear goals, to ensure that every employee agrees to them (Boyd & Sutherland, 2006; Flick, 2009). Organisations are required to identify, understand and satisfy customers' needs, and develop a customer orientation culture where superior value is provided, for this is ultimately what drives high performance (Porter, 1985). Organisational identification is recognized as a vital construct in the literature on organisational behaviour, affecting both the satisfaction of the individual and the effectiveness of the organisation (Brown, 1969; Hall et al., 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Therefore, organisations should consider the factors that are related to internal branding, as well as developing dynamic collaboration, an open attitude and responsiveness. Top management should also be personally knowledgeable about the internal branding process and proactively involved in its internal diffusion in order to manage it effectively. Furthermore, successful implementation of internal branding depends on how clearly the organisation defines the strategic goals. Finally, organisations should consider building a supportive internal environment that understands and conforms to the new values, management processes and communication style created by the new methods of internal branding and should also define the internal brand teams and champions. The latter is one of the primary tasks for organisations, because it determines how and when actors should be involved. The present study is one of the first to empirically validate the antecedents and consequences of internal branding.

First, to examine the implications of internal branding, the study focuses on specified factors as antecedents which may be encouraged through the implementation of internal branding. More specifically, the study focuses on internal branding activities that may be integrated and enhanced by the attributes of the specified enabling factors. On this basis, the study develops an integrated model of the antecedents and consequences of internal branding, and their implications. The methodological contribution of this study is to have taken an empirical approach to business research, which incorporated a survey questionnaire. The proposed model together with its relationships emerged from the literature and was tested and validated by rigorous quantitative analysis (Factor, Regression and Path analysis) using SPSS. In its empirical study of internal branding, combining an in-depth literature review with quantitative survey research, this study overcomes the limitations of previous research and provides a new perspective on the relationship of internal branding with organisational success and benefits.

6.3 Managerial Implications

A key managerial implication of the study is that it provides useful guidelines to specific antecedents for engendering the success of internal branding efforts. Consequently, practitioners can derive a better understanding and measurement of the activities that are undertaken by professionals in their organisations and can appreciate how an appropriate balance between traditional internal marketing and the new approach of internal branding can achieve results of a different form of. The purpose of this study was to empiracally examine several hypotheses in regard to the antecedents and consequences of internal branding.

The findings stress the major role of internal branding through the specified antecedents of external customer orientation, internal customer orientation, internal service quality, interdepartmental connectedness. They successfully lead to external customer satisfaction and job satisfaction, whereas the relationship between internal customer orientation and job satisfaction was not found significant. The study emphasizes that internal customer orientation efforts in the internal branding process are what leads to job satisfaction.

The findings also reveal that the role of top management in the DED can greatly intensify the fostering of the antecedents of internal branding. Notably, it was found that customer orientation and interdepartmental connectedness are highly influenced by the involvement and efforts of top management. Hence, managers play a facilitative role in customer orientation as well as in interdepartmental connectedness and therefore they are required to direct their efforts to effective business performance. Furthermore, the proposed factors provide information to improve external customer satisfaction and job satisfaction, hence enhancing organisational performance overall. A number of implications emerge here, as follows:

Firstly, top management controls the organisation’s communication and creates a brand vision while acting as a sender when delivering it to the receiver, i.e. the targeted group. Such messages usually include such distinct parts as the corporate name, identity and positioning, all of which are directed to long-term goals. When the corporate name and identity become an integral part of the brand, it becomes particularly important to coordinate the communication is (King, 1991). From this perspective, the brand vision is seen as a guide derived from the strategy which in itself should be well-defined and fully representative of the organisation’s uniqueness. The brand vision directs organisational efforts and energy to its recognition (Murphy, 1990).

Secondly, the implication for managers is that they should emphasize interdepartmental collaboration among service employees (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). The social identity theory suggests that managers must act as role models and perceive the values of orientation in the first place and then communicate these to their employees to gain orientation, commitment and customer oriented behavior on the part of employees (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Stock & Hoyer 2002). When managers believe that strategic cross-functional relationships are vital to competitiveness, then they will not restrain their effort to be flexible and share information, encouraging employees to participate in reducing processing time (Monden, 1983). Managers and supervisors must constantly stimulate the brand identity by mediating between employees and organisational systems in order to encourage the desirable acts of internal branding (Giddens, 1979; Miles & Mangold 2004; Wieseke et al. 2009).

Bergstrom et al. (2002) shows that culture, commitment, coordination, communication, and compensation are of high value to internal branding. The consistency of internal branding depends on management's support and smooth integration between the functions of marketing and human resources (Vallaster & de Chernatony, 2003; Mulhern & Whalen, 2004, 2006; Mahnert & Torres, 2007). And leaders in organisation through empowerment and recognition highly impact on the effectiveness of the internal branding process (Hankinson, 2012). If they supply these, it will reduce conflicts and improve interdepartmental connectedness (Menon et al., 1997).

Furthermore, managers require feedback to evaluate the effectiveness of internal branding and make any necessary changes (Mahnert & Torres, 2007). This can be done through educating employees and guiding them so that they understand the underlying dynamics of internal branding. Moreover, building mental models and inscribing an attitude among employees enables them to properly formulate a coherent view of the internal branding process (Mahnert & Torres, 2007). In addition, management, should sustain employees' confidence in the organisation, by providing an appropriate system for recognizing and rewarding them for keeping the brand promise, maintaining consistency in the supporting practices of human resources over time (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005).

Such fundamental factors create employee engagement (Berry, 2000) which is made possible by the process of internal branding (Kapferer, 2008; Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, Berthon, 2002). Given the critical role of employee 'buy-in' and its significance to supply encouragement to internal branding leading to job satisfaction and external customer satisfaction, managers should also pay attention to employee diffidence, which arises from the fear of providing feedback and previous perceptions that organisations do not take corrective actions to employees'/customers' satisfaction.

Consequently, managers' behaviour is important for service employees' understanding and acceptance of the organisational identity associated with customer orientation norms (Van Knippenberg & Hogg 2003). Managers have a moderating effect on the relationship between employees' identity and customer orientation. As claimed by Boshoff and Mels (1995), a participative management style helps enhance service quality performance. This can be done through "supervisory control systems" (Zeithaml et al., 1990) to remove the differences between service quality specifications and actual service delivery.

The increasing importance of internal branding practices requires a shift of focus to internal employees, given that the effectiveness of the internal branding greatly depends on how motivated employees are to reflect the desired behaviour towards the brand. In the context of organisational behaviour, identity identification reduces negative functional interaction and improves positive differentiation, motivating employees as well as newcomers to be committed to the organisation and readily adopt its values and beliefs.

To reach successful internal branding, the leaders must develop a supportive structure in terms of strategic vision, organisational culture, communication, behaviour and identity, which, as a whole, communicate and deliver brand related messages to employees (Hatch & Schultz, 2003, 2001, 1997; Schultz et al., 2000). Leadership and management support are quite critical to customer orientation (Conduit & Mavondo, 2001). When managers believe that strategic cross-functional relationships are critical to competitiveness, then they will not hold back on efforts to be flexible and share information that encourages employees to participate in reducing processes time (Monden, 1983).

Lovelock (1992) and Schneider et al. (1998) suggest that Human Resource Management should be cross-functioned with services marketing and operations management to emphasize the importance of interdepartmental connectedness. The validation of the model of antecedents and consequences of internal branding helps management to focus on specific elements and thus influence employees' behavior in carrying on the internal branding process. In particular, the significant influence of the model's constructs on job satisfaction and customer satisfaction, suggests that management, if it is serious about realizing the benefits of internal branding, must take proactive steps to develop a culture that appreciates and supports the internal structure and relationships.

Thirdly, brand teams are also key players in ensuring that internal branding concepts to achieve successful internal branding are adhered to by employees (Mahnert & Torres, 2007). As a result, the proposed model clearly outlines how employees can develop a knowledgeable level of internal branding which will affect their role and their level of understanding and contribution to the business's success. In order to implement, sustain and promote the internal branding process, a variety of techniques should be applied. For example, seven key principles are suggested by Harold &

Perry (1981) and Lloyd (2002) as tools or techniques to employ in organisations. They are co-creation, a larger purpose, empowerment, education, accountability, shared incentives and measurement.

Fourthly, it is identified and believed that human resources activities and functions have a major role in successful service quality, improving recruitment, training and motivation and in turn customer satisfaction (Gronroos, 1978; Berry, 1981; de Chernatony & Harris 2000; Zerbe, Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Browning, 1998). According to Creswell (2009) and Farrell (2002), encouraging the appropriate behaviors of employees is the key to successful implementation, which suggests that human resources play a major role in successful cycles of internal branding. Furthermore, Podnar and Golob (2010) find that work flexibility is critical in improving an organisation's service quality delivery and thereby increasing the productivity and efficiency of internal customers while increasing their job satisfaction.

Interdepartmental interactions could be increased by adopting in the culture a management style that is ready to embrace risk; decentralization, in the form of employee empowerment; and a reward system based on market similarities (Menon et al., 1997). Accordingly, companies which develop successful internal branding create an organisational culture that boosts all the organisational levels that are involved in the branding operations; hence, the corporate strategy message and performance to the employees must be constant in order to effectively interact with the customers and external stakeholders (King & Grace, 2005).

6.4 Theoretical Implications

In terms of academic research implications, this study, discussing a number of implications for management theorists, makes not only a significant contribution to knowledge in its discipline/field, but one which also has implications for the wider body of knowledge. The findings significantly and empirically support the conceptualization of the antecedents and consequences of the internal branding model, providing nomological construct relationships. The overall collective strength of the model's seven constructs is indicated by its strong R^2 (i.e. 0.79). While many of the relationships hypothesized in the model are supported by the existing literature, the unique value of this study appears in the insight on the way in which these relationships integrate. Although the importance of such relationships has been validated and promoted by the literature, they have been investigated either separately or in a specific setting or not directly relevant to internal branding. Accordingly, if internal branding practices or activities are to be improved and if concepts are to be insightfully extended then the integration of these relationships into one conceptual model is considered appropriate. Seeking to reduce the literature gap, this study results confirm what other authors have previously reported in the internal branding literature. The outcome of this study contributes a broader knowledge to the internal branding literature in another context, that of identifying and understanding the antecedents and success factors of internal branding and its consequences. Such findings can be used further in the area of internal branding since they open the door to future research in terms of considering other enablers or factors in a larger sample and in different industries.

6.4 Research Limitations

As is the case with all research studies, this study has a number of limitations, the listing of which may help future research. These limitations are mainly related to the breadth of the topic under investigation, its measurement and time constraints. These limitations are follows. Firstly, as established earlier, *the research topic* on internal branding is a relatively new area of research in the Middle East in general and in UAE in particular where theory and concepts are still developing although the literature has shown Internal Branding positive impact on organisational success. However, this research seeks to develop an integrative identification of the antecedents and consequences of internal branding, which demands broadening the scope of such studies in reviewing the literature and collecting appropriate data. And, while the research has sought to meet such requirements by extensively reviewing various bodies of literature (on marketing, internal branding and human resources management) and seeking different types of data from both primary and secondary sources, it could not be claimed that the empirical investigation in this study has come across all the relevant issues, at least those issues presented in the literature.

Secondly, the *research design* of the study was limited by its cross-sectional nature. The use of cross-sectional design for survey research in the quantitative phase means that data were collected through a drop and pick up survey technique, which captured the perceptions of the respondents at a certain point. Because the study was not longitudinal, no causal inferences can be made about the in-firm order of effects between the dimensions of the study. Although survey research may be beneficial in predicting relationships between variables, causal relationships between the constructs cannot be determined on a temporal dimension or by the statistical results of a survey. In other words, it is impossible to prove a causal relationship between constructs of interest on a longitudinal basis. The cross-sectional design of the present study limited overall the possible inferences about the nature of the causal relationships among the constructs of the antecedents, internal branding and consequences.

Thirdly, another limitation is the *self-reporting perception measure* which is the reliance on the subjective, self-reported indicators for measuring the research constructs in the survey questionnaire. Although it is admitted that using specific objective indicators would improve precision, such measures are also sensitive and difficult for the respondents to remember precisely. Furthermore, asking for such information can often lead to the consequence of a low response rate. The survey research in the quantitative phase of the study relied fully on the respondents' self-reports regarding the different dimensions of the research. Fourthly, time constraints, and the limited access to organisational information with the use of a questionnaire survey, were further limitations/ More time would have allowed more data to be collected, which would have contributed to gaining more responses and hence greater accuracy.

6.5 Recommendations for Future Research

As this study covers a broad area of research, there are many directions in which future research can be described as needed. The study, though preliminary in nature, has many implications for future research, pertaining both to the methodology employed in collecting and analysing the data and to the substantive findings of the research. However, several findings in particular indicate a need for further investigation. By integrating the antecedents and consequences of internal branding, the study provides a new model tailored to internal branding implementation success. On the one hand, future researchers could use this model for assessing the implementation of the antecedents of internal branding, namely, external customer orientation, internal customer orientation, internal service quality and interdepartmental connectedness.

On the other, this model could also stimulate future researchers to develop better instruments for assessing the consequences of internal branding, namely; external customer satisfaction and job satisfaction. The current study has synthesized the various critical factors that contribute to successful internal branding. However, an agenda for further research might focus on improving the understanding of these antecedents and consequences in a different setting.

- The first future direction might logically be to carry out a similar study of the antecedents and consequences of internal branding, to compare its results with those of this research. The factors developed by the current study could also be employed in such a study.
- The second direction might be to develop the quantification of the model into an "index of practice" so that companies could determine the level of internal branding with a time-based approach. The results from an audit with regard to the index could pinpoint areas that need attention and improvement.
- Third, more research is needed to study how the perceived importance of these factors may differ across different industries. With a better understanding of the issues involved in internal branding, managers would be able to make informed decisions and allocate the necessary resources to make internal branding process a success in the long term.

- Finally, internal branding as a concept combines human resources management and the disciplines of marketing. It includes three major activities: communicating the brand to the employees; convincing employees of the brand worth; and effectively linking and integrating every job in the organisation to deliver brand value (Bergstrom et al., 2002).

Further, each variable in the model warrants more in-depth study because their implications for internal branding require a new perspective. Therefore, future research may choose to focus on one or more of these factors to generate an in-depth knowledge that can inform both theoretical and practical applications. Future researchers could use these factors to evaluate the success of organisations that implement an internal branding process. Hence, these factors should be subjected to review, critique, and discussion for some time before getting general acceptance.

In regard to its research methodology and research design, researchers could consider quantitative and qualitative samples that are heterogeneous, taking different sectors, cultures, approaches and management configurations into account. This should enable more research findings to emerge and facilitate comparative studies. Finally, the area of internal branding is developing rapidly as organisational focus to obtain business success shifts inward. Consequently, for the successful implementation of internal branding, effective schemes of recognition and reward are required, having been shown to enhance employees' job satisfaction and commitment to the organisation (Khan, 2009; Punjaisri & Wilson, 2007). To sum up, internal branding could introduce a significant opportunity for the Abu Dhabi government departments in general and the Department of Economic Development in particular to be more competitive and also add insight to the government sector into raising the cultural level of competitiveness and performance.

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Appendix

The Research Questionnaire

Antecedents & Consequences of Internal Branding: The case of Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development

Dear Employee,

I invite you to participate in a research study entitled (**Antecedents and Consequences of Internal Branding; the case of Abu Dhabi Department of Economic Development**). I am currently enrolled in the Doctorate of Business Program at the United Arab Emirates University, and I am in the process of writing my doctorate dissertation.

Through your participation, I hope to understand Internal branding by investigate antecedents that enable internal branding within Abu Dhabi government context specifically within DED and also examine the relationship between these antecedents, internal branding and the consequences that may arise. Accordingly, recommend a practical solution to challenges facing DED; by proposing a model that could be a successful tool for DED and can be adopted by other government entities seeking a competitive added value for government employees.

Enclosed with this letter a brief questionnaire that asks a variety of questions relevant to your current job. Please take few minutes of your time, to answer each question on the survey as completely and accurately as possible. Your responses will be processed with full confidentially and only group data will be made available. No one other than the researcher will know your individual answers to this questionnaire.

Kindly note that participation in this research is optional. Your cooperation is highly appreciated and I sincerely hope that you will find the study of interest to you.

If you have any questions regarding the survey or would like to have a copy of the research results, please contact me on:
am_alshaikh@hotmail.com

Yours sincerely,

Amna Ahmed Al Shaikh Al Zaabi
DBA Student, UAE University

March, 2016

ممكنات ونتائج الترويج الداخلي:
دراسة حالة عن دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بأبوظبي

عزيزي الموظف،

أدعوك للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية بعنوان (**ممكنات ونتائج الترويج الداخلي: دراسة حالة عن دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بأبوظبي**)، حيث أنني أعمل حالياً على استكمال أطروحة التخرج لنيل درجة الدكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال من جامعة الإمارات.

بمشاركتك، آمل أن أصل إلى فهم الترويج الداخلي من خلال دراسة الممكنات التي تساعد في تطبيق الترويج الداخلي ضمن إطار حكومة أبوظبي، وبشكل خاص في دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية، ودراسة العلاقة بين هذه الممكنات والترويج الداخلي والنتائج المترتبة عليه. ووفقا لذلك، سيتم تقديم التوصية بحل عملي للتحديات التي تواجه دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية عبر اقتراح نموذج عمل يمكن أن يكون أداة ناجحة للدائرة ومن ثم الاستفادة منه من قبل الجهات الحكومية الأخرى التي تسعى للحصول على قيمة تنافسية مضافة لموظفيها.

ستجد مع هذه الرسالة استبيان مختصر يطرح مجموعة متنوعة من الأسئلة المتعلقة بوظيفتك الحالية. أرجو منح بضع دقائق من وقتك للإجابة على كل سؤال في الاستبيان بشكل كامل ودقيق بقدر الإمكان. ولضمان خصوصيتك، سيتم التعامل مع إجاباتك بسرية تامة، ولن يقوم أي أحد سوى الباحث بالاطلاع على اجاباتك في هذا الاستبيان.

يرجى العلم بأن المشاركة في هذه الدارسة اختيارية، وأقدر تعاونك معي في هذا البحث، وآمل أن تجد في هذه الدراسة ما يثير اهتمامك.

إذا كانت لديك أية أسئلة بخصوص هذه الدراسة، أو أردت الحصول على نسخة من نتائج الدراسة، يرجى مراسلتي على:
am_alshaikh@hotmail.com

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام والتقدير،،،

آمنة أحمد الشيخ الزعابي
طالبة دكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال، جامعة الإمارات

مارس 2016

Who should complete this questionnaire? | **من الذي يجيب على هذا الاستبيان؟**

This questionnaire is only for DED employees. | هذا الاستبيان خاص بموظفي دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بأبوظبي.

أولاً: المعلومات الشخصية
First: Background Information

Q1. Please put a tick in the appropriate box | **س1: يرجى وضع علامة على المربع المناسب**

1.1. Gender | **1.1 الجنس**

☐ ذكر Male	☐ أنثى Female

1.2. Nationality | **2.1 الجنسية**

☐ غير مواطن/ وافد Non National/Expat	☐ مواطن إماراتي UAE National

1.3. Age | **3.1 العمر**

☐ 55 سنة أو أكبر 55 years and above	☐ 45-54 سنة 45-54 years	☐ 35-44 سنة 35-44 years	☐ 25-34 سنة 25-34 years	☐ أقل من 25 سنة Less than 25 years

1.4. Qualifications | **4.1 المؤهل العلمي**

☐ دون الثانوية Below High School	☐ الثانوية العامة High School	☐ دبلوم Diploma	☐ بكالوريوس Bachelor	☐ دراسات عليا (ماجستير/دكتوراه) Higher Studies (Doctorate/Masters)

1.5. Job Classification | **5.1 تصنيف الوظيفة**

☐ إدارية Administrative Level	☐ فنية/تخصصية Technical Level	☐ إشرافية Supervisory Level	☐ قيادية Top Management

1.6. Experience within DED | **6.1 سنوات الخبرة في الدائرة**

☐ أكثر من 10 سنوات More than 10 years	☐ 7-10 سنوات 7-10 years	☐ 4-6 سنوات 4-6 years	☐ 1-3 سنوات 1-3 years

1.7. Sector | **7.1 القطاع**

Who should complete this questionnaire?

من الذي يجيب على هذا الاستبيان؟

This questionnaire is only for DED employees.

هذا الاستبيان خاص بموظفي دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بأبوظبي.

أولاً: المعلومات الشخصية

First: Background Information

Q1. Please put a tick in the appropriate box

س1: يرجى وضع علامة على المربع المناسب

1.1. Gender **1.1 الجنس**

☐ ذكر Male	☐ أنثى Female

1.2. Nationality **2.1 الجنسية**

☐ غير مواطن/ وافد Non National/Expat	☐ مواطن إماراتي UAE National

1.3. Age **3.1 العمر**

☐ 55 سنة أو أكبر 55 years and above	☐ 45-54 سنة 45-54 years	☐ 35-44 سنة 35-44 years	☐ 25-34 سنة 25-34 years	☐ أقل من 25 سنة Less than 25 years

1.4. Qualifications **4.1 المؤهل العلمي**

☐ دون الثانوية Below High School	☐ الثانوية العامة High School	☐ دبلوم Diploma	☐ بكالوريوس Bachelor	☐ دراسات عليا (ماجستير/دكتوراه) Higher Studies (Doctorate/Masters)

1.5. Job Classification **5.1 تصنيف الوظيفة**

☐ إدارية Administrative Level	☐ فنية/تخصصية Technical Level	☐ إشرافية Supervisory Level	☐ قيادية Top Management

1.6. Experience within DED **6.1 سنوات الخبرة في الدائرة**

☐ أكثر من 10 سنوات More than 10 years	☐ 7-10 سنوات 7-10 years	☐ 4-6 سنوات 4-6 years	☐ 1-3 سنوات 1-3 years

1.7. Sector **7.1 القطاع**

ثانياً: التوجيه بالعملاء الخارجيين
Second: External Customer Orientation

س2. تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى استخدام المعلومات بطريقة فعالة ومجدية من شأنها أن تغير سلوك الموظفين والخدمات المقدمة من منظور القيمة المضافة.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

Q2. Questions in the next part indicate the usage of information in an effective and efficient way that changes employees' behaviors and the provided services to an added value perspective.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة **Strongly Agree**	أوافق **Agree**	محايد **Neutral**	لا أوافق **Disagree**	لا أوافق بشدة **Strongly disagree**

5	4	3	2	1	**1.2** أهداف دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية واضحة بالنسبة لي. 2.1. DED objectives are clear to me.
5	4	3	2	1	**2.2** تفهم دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية احتياجات العملاء. 2.2. DED understands customers' needs.
5	4	3	2	1	**3.2** تضع دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية ردود أفعال العملاء بعين الاعتبار عند تطوير الخدمات. 2.3. DED uses customers' feedback in the service development process.
5	4	3	2	1	**4.2** يمكن للعملاء تقديم الشكاوى بسهولة. 2.4. Customers can raise complaints easily.
5	4	3	2	1	**5.2** تمتلك دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية نظاما لحل مشاكل العملاء. 2.5. DED has a system for solving customers' problems.
5	4	3	2	1	**6.2** تطبق دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية قياسا منتظماً لمدى رضا العملاء. 2.6. DED applies regular customers' satisfaction measurement.

ثالثاً: التوجيه بالعملاء الداخليين
Third: Internal Customer Orientation

Q3. Questions in the next part indicate the attitudes and behaviors of DED's members to deliver quality to other employees' requirements and needs.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

س3. تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى مواقف وسلوكيات موظفي دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية لتوفير الجودة لمتطلبات وحاجات عملائهم من موظفي الدائرة.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة **Strongly Agree**	أوافق **Agree**	محايد **Neutral**	لا أوافق **Disagree**	لا أوافق بشدة **Strongly disagree**

5	4	3	2	1	**1.3**عند التعاملات الداخلية فيما بين الادارات، نعامل كل إدارة على أنها عميل. 3.1. In interdepartmental dealings, we treat each department as a customer.
5	4	3	2	1	**2.3** نسعى باستمرار لزيادة قيمة الخدمات التي نقدمها للإدارات الأخرى. 3.2. We constantly seek to increase the value of services we provide to other departments.
5	4	3	2	1	**3.3** نركز على فهم متطلبات الأقسام الداخلية. 3.3. We focus on understanding internal departments requirements.
5	4	3	2	1	**4.3** تركز الدائرة على أهمية معاملة الإدارات الأخرى على أنهم عملاء. 3.4. DED stresses the importance of treating other departments as customers.
5	4	3	2	1	**5.3** تقوم الإدارات الأخرى بتقييم ممنهج لجودة الخدمات التي نقدمها لهم. 3.5. Other departments systematically evaluate the quality of services we offer them.

رابعاً: جودة الخدمة الداخلية
Fourth: Internal Service Quality

Q4. Questions in the next part indicate the quality service carried out by units or employees towards other units or employees within DED.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

س**4**. تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى جودة الخدمة التي يتم توفيرها من قبل الإدارات أو الموظفين لعملائهم من موظفي دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة **Strongly Agree**	أوافق **Agree**	محايد **Neutral**	لا أوافق **Disagree**	لا أوافق بشدة **Strongly disagree**

5	4	3	2	1	**1.4** يمكنني القول بأن جودة تفاعلي مع الإدارات ممتازة. 4.1. I would say the quality of my interaction with departments is excellent.
5	4	3	2	1	**2.4** يمكنني القول بأن تفاعلي مع الموظفين الآخرين إيجابياً. 4.2. I would say my interaction with employees is positive.
5	4	3	2	1	**3.4** تعكس مقاييس رضا العملاء حقيقة ما نقوم به. 4.3. Customer satisfaction measures reflect what we do.
5	4	3	2	1	**4.4** تأتي مقاييس رضا العملاء بنتائج قابلة للتنفيذ في إدارات الدائرة. 4.4. Customer satisfaction measurements produce actionable outcomes within DED departments.
5	4	3	2	1	**5.4** تستجيب الادارة العليا بالدائرة بشكل ايجابي لإيضاحاتنا. 4.5. DED's management responds positively to our explanations.
5	4	3	2	1	**6.4** أثق بمقاييس رضا العملاء بدائرة التنمية الاقتصادية. 4.6. I trust DED's customer satisfaction measurements.

خامساً: الترابط بين الإدارات
Fifth: Interdepartmental Connectedness

Q5. Questions in the next part indicate the level of formal and informal contact across employees and departments.

س.5 تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى مستوى الاتصال الرسمي وغير الرسمي بين الموظفين والإدارات.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة Strongly Agree	أوافق Agree	محايد Neutral	لا أوافق Disagree	لا أوافق بشدة Strongly disagree

5	4	3	2	1	**1.5** تعقد اجتماعات متعددة المهام بين مختلف إدارات الدائرة على أساس منتظم. 5.1. Cross-functional meetings are held by individual functional departments on regular basis.
5	4	3	2	1	**2.5** تتبادل الإدارات السجلات والمذكرات والتقارير والمستندات. 5.2. Individual functional departments exchange records, memorandums, reports and documents.
5	4	3	2	1	**3.5** تتبادل الإدارات المعلومات لفهم وضع الإدارات الأخرى. 5.3. Individual functional departments exchange information for understanding the status of other departments.
5	4	3	2	1	**4.5** من السهل أن تتحدث مباشرة مع أي موظف بالدائرة بصرف النظر عن درجته أو منصبه. 5.4. It is easy to talk virtually to anyone you need to, regardless of rank or position.
5	4	3	2	1	**5.5** لا يتردد موظفي الدائرة من مختلف الإدارات في الاتصال بالموظفين الآخرين عند الحاجة. 5.5. Employees from different departments feel comfortable calling others when the need arises.
5	4	3	2	1	**6.5** هنالك فرصة للمحادثات العابرة" غير الرسمية بين موظفي الدائرة من مختلف الإدارات. 5.6. There is opportunity for informal "hall talk" among individuals from different.

سادساً: الترويج الداخلي
Sixth: Internal Branding

Q6. Questions in the next part indicate the grouped internal procedures and tools aligned together for better empowerment and support of employees to achieve customer expectations and ensure reliability; along with the business values.

س6. تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى الإجراءات والأدوات الداخلية المنظمة التي تتكاتف مع بعضها لتمكين الموظفين ودعمهم لتحقيق توقعات العملاء وضمان الثقة بما يتوافق مع قيم العمل.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة Strongly Agree	أوافق Agree	محايد Neutral	لا أوافق Disagree	لا أوافق بشدة Strongly disagree

5	4	3	2	1	**1.6** اعتبر نجاح دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية، نجاحاً شخصيا لي. 6.1. I consider DED success as my own success.
5	4	3	2	1	**2.6** اعتبر دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بمثابة عائلتي. 6.2. DED is like a family to me.
5	4	3	2	1	**3.6** أنا ملتزم بجعل دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية تنجح في تحقيق أهدافها. 6.3. I am committed to make DED succeed in achieving its goals.
5	4	3	2	1	**4.6** يمنحني التدريب بدائرة التنمية الاقتصادية المهارات المناسبة لتحقيق معايير الدائرة. 6.4. DED Training gives me appropriate skills to deliver DED standards.
5	4	3	2	1	**5.6** تلهمني برامج التوجيه بدائرة التنمية الاقتصادية لتحقيق رؤية الدائرة على النحو السليم. 6.5. DED orientation programs trigger my inspiration to appropriately fulfil DED vision.
5	4	3	2	1	**6.6** تشجعني دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية على تقديم اقتراحات جديدة. 6.6. DED encourages me to come up with new suggestions.
5	4	3	2	1	**7.6** تتعامل دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية بشفافية عند إبلاغ موظفيها بالأمور التي تتعلق بهم. 6.7. DED is transparent in informing employees about things relevant to them.

سابعاً: رضا العميل الخارجي
Seventh: External Customer Satisfaction

Q7. Questions in the next part indicate the overall customers' experiences and expectations of service performance.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

س7. تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى توقعات موظفي الدائرة عن مدى رضا العميل الخارجي وطموحاته القصوى من أداء الخدمة.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة Strongly Agree	أوافق Agree	محايد Neutral	لا أوافق Disagree	لا أوافق بشدة Strongly disagree

5	4	3	2	1	1.7 الرضا العام عن أداء خدمات دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية. 7.1. Overall Satisfaction on DED service performance.
5	4	3	2	1	2.7 الرضا العام عن سياسة عمل دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية. 7.2. Overall satisfaction on DED business policy.
5	4	3	2	1	3.7 توقعاتك لسياسة عمل دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية مقارنة بالدوائر المحلية الأخرى في أبوظبي. 7.3. Your expectation of DED's business policy compared to other local departments in Abu Dhabi.
5	4	3	2	1	4.7 التقديم الأمثل لخدمات دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية. 7.4. DED service delivery optimization.

ثامناً: الرضا الوظيفي
Eight: Job Satisfaction

Q8. Questions in the next part indicate the emotional state derived from employees' evaluation of their jobs and their attitudes toward their jobs.

Using the scale provided below, please, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

س8. تشير الأسئلة في الجزء التالي إلى مدى رضا موظفي الدائرة عن وظائفهم، تقييمهم لوظائفهم ومواقفهم تجاهها.

باستخدام مقياس التقييم الوارد أدناه، يرجى الإشارة إلى درجة اتفاقك مع كل من العبارات التالية:

5	4	3	2	1
أوافق بشدة Strongly Agree	أوافق Agree	محايد Neutral	لا أوافق Disagree	لا أوافق بشدة Strongly disagree

5	4	3	2	1	**1.8** أتمتع بالحرية الكاملة لأداء عملي. 8.1. I am given complete freedom to perform my job.
5	4	3	2	1	**2.8** أنا راضٍ عن مجموعة الأنشطة المتنوعة التي يوفرها لي عملي. 8.2. I am satisfied with the variety of activities my job offers me.
5	4	3	2	1	**3.8** أنا راضٍ عن المعلومات التي أتلقاها من رؤسائي حول أدائي الوظيفي. 8.3. I am satisfied with the information I receive from my superior about my job performance.
5	4	3	2	1	**4.8** تشجع دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية موظفيها على تقديم مبادرات وأفكار جديدة. 8.4. DED encourages its employees to come up with new initiatives and ideas.
5	4	3	2	1	**5.8** أنا راضٍ عن الراتب الذي أتقاضاه من عملي. 8.5. I am satisfied with the pay I receive from my job.
5	4	3	2	1	**6.8** أنا راضٍ عن الأمان الوظيفي الذي يوفره لي عملي. 8.6. I am satisfied with the security my job provides me.
5	4	3	2	1	**7.8** لا أفكر في ترك عملي الحالي. 8.7. I would not consider leaving my current job.
5	4	3	2	1	**8.8** أعتقد بأنني أقدم مساهمة فعالة في دائرة التنمية الاقتصادية. 8.8. I feel that I am making an important contribution in DED.

Any additional comments: **أية ملاحظات إضافية:**

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شكراً لوقتك في الإجابة على الاستبيان، ولك مني فائق التقدير والاحترام ،،،

Thank you for taking the time to fill the questionnaire, highly appreciated.