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A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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INTERNAL BRANDING IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR:  
**THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP**

## **Abstract**

The main purpose of this study is to advance the research of public sector performance in Saudi Arabia, by investigating leaders' use of internal branding strategies, since the majority of research in internal branding has been conducted in western countries and the private sector. This is achieved by investigating the effects of leadership (Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Based Transactional Leadership), on Brand Internalisation and its effect on increasing performance in the public sector. Other factors influencing public sector performance are also investigated including Structural Authority constraints, HR red tape, rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) and brand training.

The conceptual model integrates the key factors that influence the public sector employees' ability to internalise the organisational brand values; and how Brand Internalisation influences public sector performance in terms of in-role behaviour, and extra-role behaviour (public sector performance). The effect of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards is also examined in terms of increasing Brand Internalisation and public sector performance. In doing so, this study represents one of the few attempts made to investigate the potential value of internal branding and brand based leadership in increasing public sector performance in the Saudi Arabian public sector.

The research adopted an exploratory approach; the first stage consisted of interviews with 16 public sector middle managers in the Riyadh Municipality, Saudi Arabia. This was followed by a survey that was distributed to public sector employees. Data was collected from 352 employees in the Riyadh Municipality. The initial qualitative phase highlighted complexities and factors related to internal branding and offered insights into brand-leadership in the public sector from the perspectives of the middle managers. The survey then further investigated the findings from the interviews and highlighted the areas necessary for a revised conceptual model.

The results of the research show that the three most important elements that positively influence public sector performance in Saudi Arabia are brand based transactional leadership, brand related training, and intrinsic rewards. The research argues that these three elements not only increase a public sector employee's ability to internalise the organisational brand values and ability to "live the brand" but they also have a direct positive effect on increasing the day-to-day performance levels of employees in the Saudi Public Sector.

The results of a post hoc analysis are also shared showing interesting results variations between employees on the basis of their gender, age, educational levels, role and grade in the public sector organisation.

**Keywords:** Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Brand Internalisation, Internal Branding, In-Role Behaviour, Extra-Role Behaviour, HR Red Tape, Structural Authority Constraints, Intrinsic Rewards, Extrinsic Rewards, Brand Training, Public Sector Performance.

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-- Chapter One --  
Introduction

## **1. Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter is divided into the following sections. The first section is the research area and background; this section introduces the topic and sheds light on the contextual background in which the research takes place. The second section presents the research aim, research objectives and the research hypothesis. The third section presents the contribution of the research, arguing for both knowledge and practical contributions. The fourth section presents a summary of the previous studies in order to form the research gap that is examined in this study. The fifth section shows the structure of the thesis. The chapter concludes with a presentation of the thesis structure.

### **1.2 Research area and background**

Competition is a prominent force today across industries, and the public sector has not escaped its impact. Public sector organisations nowadays have to work hard to retain competent employees and are increasingly called to provide ‘customer’ service similar to that of private sector firms (Fountain 2001). In this landscape, public sector organisations are more and more frequently adopting practices that have offered performance results in the private sector (Laing 2003); internal branding is one of these practices. Economic competition is affecting the public sector as well, and competition between public sector organisations is becoming more common (Ashworth and Voogd 1990). Cities are being represented as ‘products’ and are heavily marketed to increase tourism rates and residential and commercial investments (Ashworth and Voogd 1990). Competition in the public sector is also evident in order for public sector organisations to receive funding for their programmes and initiatives (Keen and Marchand 1997).

Governments today need to be more business-like, inspired by entrepreneurs and high productivity; as Osborne argues, it is the dichotomy, monopoly and competition, not public and private, that guides public sector actions (Osborne 1993). Government organisations are facing more competition: they are venturing into creating semi-private subsidiaries; they are contracting out their services, implementing performance-related pay, setting key performance indicators, issuing standards of quality service, and implementing a more rigorous citizen feedback and complaints systems (Flynn 2007).

In the United Arab Emirates, the Knowledge and Human Development Authority is equivalent to the regional educational council for the Emirate of Dubai. Upon entering the building, there is a reception with free offerings of refreshments including a full menu of fruit juices and coffee options. The chairman's boardrooms are in view of the main entrance, signifying transparency. Musical entertainment, magazines, and a butler service attend to the citizens while they wait. Government clerks promptly meet with citizens in one of the many available meeting rooms, which are filled with smart boards and fresh fruit. After the meeting, citizens are asked to share their feedback and rate the service provided to them by pushing a button on a large machine near the exit which has three cartoon-like faces: a smiley face, a neutral face, and a sad face. This is a simple example of how government sector organisations in the Middle East region are implementing private sector and entrepreneurial ideas to enhance the quality of their service to their citizens.

Competition in the government is helping the public sector increase its performance and giving people options (Cooper 2011). Cooper argues that when the government sector starts allowing the private sector to provide similar services, it changes the expectation and behaviour of its citizens and its services are forced to become more dynamic and of better quality (Cooper 2011). Researchers also argue about the benefits of competition: it can help create innovation and increase efficiency (Crown 2011).

Public sector organisations are not only competing with other public organisations: they are also competing with the private sector (2011). Traditionally, the public sector provides citizens with goods and services that cannot be or are not provided by the private sector (2011), but the public sector is facing challenges related to efficiency and task fulfilment. Although the public sector is a regulative authority with different processes for employment status, recruitment procedures, and pay systems, there are some jobs that are being replaced by or offered by the private sector, and this creates competition for the recruitment and retention of competent staff (2011).

The public sector is going through serious structural changes such as greater privatisation, increased competition, and being forced to consider private sector bidding (Cox 2008). Researchers have described this transformation as the transferal of previously public

responsibilities to the private sector (Cox 2008). Therefore, the public sector is now no longer the sole provider of certain services and may compete with the private sector over funding or competent employees with specific skill sets (Cox 2008). And, in the local context of this research, Saudi Arabia does not have a competition law that extends or that includes the public sector (Vogel 2000). Saudi Arabian competition law only applies to and regulates competition between private sector entities. However, competition is quickly growing and extending and including the private and the public sector. Therefore, a review of the Saudi Arabian competition law could be of interest for decision makers during these structural public sector changes.

Branding has been traditionally associated with the private sector. Yet, some public sector organisations are taking the initiative and encouraging the practice of branding and especially internal branding. We are largely familiar with external branding, which includes the organisational logo or slogan. Internal branding refers to the philosophy of the organisation and how the organisation's culture, identity, and vision are transmitted to its employees (Clifton 2009). Researchers sometimes refer to the idea of 'employees as brand champions' or 'brand ambassadors', meaning a situation when the employees truly represent the company and are loyal to its ideals (Gotsi and Wilson 2001). Rather than teaching external customers about the company, internal branding is concerned with teaching employees about the company and ensuring that they understand the organisation's mission, vision, values, appropriate behaviours, culture, etc.

Employee behaviour is shaped by organisational branding because staff are 'trained' to project the organisation's message through their everyday work behaviour; this creates stronger employee engagement. Employee engagement has been linked with 12% higher customer advocacy, 18% higher productivity, and 12% higher profitability in private sector organisations (Robison 2009).

Take, for instance, the example of the Canadian government (Groom et al. 2008), which has conducted a series of research initiatives to identify best practices for internal branding in the public sector. Researchers have acknowledged that there are many organisational, fiscal, and political factors that influence the public sector (e.g. Perry 2000; Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright 2009; Rainey 2009). In the 1990s, public sector organisations were seen as having political rather than economic agendas (Whelan, Davies et al. 2010). However, more recent

research looking at the private business-like functions of the public sector, such as entrepreneurial activities (Luke, Verreynne et al. 2010) and internal branding, adds that a similar effect will occur not only on citizens, but all internal and external stakeholders. Focusing on internal branding efforts with a clear focus on goals and strategy, for instance, is likely to have an impact on the entrepreneurship and innovation of the public sector (Luke, Verreynne et al. 2010).

Moreover, some countries are worried that the image of a public sector employee is deteriorating in the eyes of the public, a situation described as a ‘loss of prestige of public employees’ (Androniceanu, Corbos et al. 2011). Researchers have suggested several actions, including building a more positive image of the public sector to be communicated internally and externally. The image of the public sector is often not very positive, clear, or stimulating. Although there are exceptions in some countries, young people in general do not rate public employment very highly. The public sector is deemed to be dull, bureaucratic, and old fashioned, and the prestige of civil service is low. In addition, citizens’ trust in government has decreased, further negatively influencing the image of government (Androniceanu Corbos, and Sora 2011: 11).

Although public organisations do not view one another as competitors, internal branding efforts can help them to align their vision, culture, and image; it also improves their processes, supports their mission and increases their levels of service quality (Gronroos 1981; Jaworsky and Kohli 1993; Quester and Kelly 1999; Varey 1995b, as cited in (Finney and Scherrebeck-Hansen 2010).

Internal branding leads to improved communication and internalisation of the organisation’s vision and mission, and helps employees to ‘live the brand’ and provide better service to customers by reflecting organisational values (Gotsi and Wilson 2001; Mahnert and Torres 2007). Internal branding has also been found to be correlated with increased performance, as it aligns internal processes, employee behaviours and attitudes, and corporate culture with the corporate brand (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007).

Internal branding is the combined responsibility of senior managers, the human resources department, the branding team, and the marketing and communication team.

There are several key factors, such as training and leadership, which have been linked to

successful internal branding. The role of transformational leadership has been emphasised as a critical factor (Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2009) in the success of their organisations: leaders take change and can promote trust and optimism in the public sector and increase employee work engagement (Stander, de Beer et al. 2015). Leaders have a vital role in influencing attitudes and behaviour and thereby affecting organisational performance (Ljungholm 2014). Leaders take charge of shaping and managing their brand's identity and acting as the mediators between an organisation's structures and its people (De Chernatony and Vallaster 2006). Applied in the public sector, transformational leaders may help employees to interpret, internalise, and 'live' the brand,' thereby affecting behaviours and attitudes towards citizens. Although some public sector organisations may operate as monopolies, there is still much to gain by offering a satisfying experience to citizens through a positive employee-citizen interaction, which has a direct effect on citizen commitment and trust. This is despite the fact that some private sector companies are increasingly offering similar or alternative services, which gives more reason for public sector organisations to provide a satisfying and competitive experience (Deon et al. 2000). So what can public sector organisations do to affect their 'customers' positively? Frontline employees' and middle managers' behaviours and attitudes not only have a direct effect on citizens, but also shape the organisation's brand and reputation in the eyes of the public and other stakeholders (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, and Crothers 2002; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007). Behaviour is a key factor in improving the outcomes of public sector organisations, as stated by Robertson and Seneviratne: 'The behaviour of organisational members is a key determinant of organisational outcomes, behaviour change will have an impact on the nature of these outcomes' (Robertson and Seneviratne 1995).

When used by leaders as a strategic tool, internal branding can have a major impact on how the public organisation is seen and understood by its employees, who will then re-iterate the experience internally and to citizens and other stakeholders (Morhart et al. 2009). Transformational leadership in the public sector can also be used to boost public service and intrinsic motivation, in alignment with the values, goals, and objectives of the public organisation. However, the public sector is likely to face different or additional constraints to the private sector (Whelan et al. 2010). This research provides needed insight into the role of leaders in promoting brand-supporting behaviours within public sector organisations, the constraints that public sector organisations face when practicing internal branding, and the benefits that internal branding can bring to the public sector.

Most of the research on internal branding has been done in western countries and developed countries. Little research has been done in developing countries. This research investigates the role of leadership in internal branding in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Research studies in Saudi Arabian contexts have focused on the pressures currently arising in the entire neighbouring areas (Mosa 2015), especially in the government agencies and ministries that face growing competition, an increasing number of graduates seeking jobs, and the need to increase efficiency in the government and decrease the perception of corruption. There has been some research on internal branding in Saudi Arabia, but all in private sector banking and investment corporations (Mosa 2015); it found that internal branding was linked to increased employee commitment. Furthermore, within this increasingly complex business environment (Azeem and Akhtar 2014), with the unique geopolitical and infrastructural changes currently taking place in Saudi Arabia, it is important to present a rational justification for the context before moving on to the literature review. Why was Saudi Arabia, and specifically, the Riyadh Municipality, chosen for this research, and how is the Saudi Arabian context different to other contexts?

It has been argued that Saudi Arabia is the most influential Arab country in the Middle East and North African region (Dazi-Heni 2014). The entire gulf and Middle East region is witnessing geopolitical and infrastructural change. According to an analysis published by the Institute for International Political Studies, Saudi Arabia is currently going through a transformative change process (Dazi-Heni 2014), and, following the Arab uprisings, the United States is seeing its ability to control the Arab region decrease. Challenging socio-political developments are reshaping command and directive in the region.

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic, traditional monarchy, with a large ruling royal family (Cordesman 2003). The Holy Quran is considered the constitution of the country under what is known as Shari'a Law. The King is the highest authority and he has the ability to make drastic changes in the government sector such as changing ministers, approving large national budgets, etc. (Cordesman 2003). Despite the recent efforts to train and educate women, including offering them scholarships abroad, there are still many challenges to female participation in the workforce. Usually, female employment (or unemployment) is not included in national published statistics (Cordesman 2003). Managerial attitudes are also influenced largely by Islamic values and principals; as an employee you are required to follow, respect, and abide by



what your superior asks of you. Table 1 shows some of the Islamic values that relate to employee behaviour in an organisation (Ghazali 1994, cited in (Cordesman 2003):

| Islamic values and employee behaviour                                     |                      |
|---|----------------------|
| <i>Employee behaviour</i>   | <i>Islamic Value</i> |
| The intention of what you wanted to do rather than what actually occurred | Niya                 |
| Being conscientious and knowledgeable in what you do                      | Itqan                |
| Being proficient and efficient  | Ihsan                |
| Being sincere   | Ikhlas               |
| Having and showing a passion for achieving excellence                     | Al falah             |
| Examining oneself and being mindful of God's greatest power               | Taqwa                |
| Pursuing justice in all what you do                                       | Adl                  |
| Always saying the truth   | Amanah               |
| Being patient   | Sabr                 |

**Table 1: Islamic values and employee behaviour**

Islamic practices also influence the relationships between employees and their managers and the top managers as well. There is usually a designated prayer room in all public and private sector organisations, where employees meet to pray several times a day, giving employees from different 'ranks' the opportunity to pray together and interact.

It is also important to note that there is a large influence of tribes, relatives, and family in the Saudi Arabian culture. People show loyalty and preference to their own tribes and families, and this is sometimes an issue when dealing with people in the government sector (Cordesman 2003). As we will see in this research, these Islamic values were mentioned implicitly and at times explicitly in the qualitative section of this research study when conducting the interview sessions and are deeply rooted in the organisational culture as well as the individual's own professional commitments.

The current research was based in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), and there are certain characteristics of that context that need to be clarified. The following is a summary of the contextual features and characteristics of KSA (SAGIA 2009, unknown 2014):

- The Saudi government has focused its attention on increasing competition.
- A comprehensive growth strategy was published in 2014. It stated that its focus was on enhancing competition in order to enable public and private sector organisations to improve their performance.
- Increased funding is planned for the next five years; in all, about 2.4 trillion of all the

major sectors, including HR, economic resources, social, health, and infrastructure.

- The creation of more public-private partnerships is also planned.
- Funds will be focused on providing short-term and long-term loans to different regulating bodies.
- The increased plans for public funding aim to ensure stability and sustainability.
- They also aim to increase non-oil public revenue through tourism, transportation, telecommunications, financial services, etc.
- The funding aims to improve the quality of public services.
- Exemplary leadership in public sectors will be rewarded.
- It is hoped that complaints and customer feedback will be made more transparent, allowing the public and citizens to make judgments and ensuring predictable and transparent outcomes (SAGIA 2009).
- This will also increase public trust in politicians.
- The long-term hope is that it will increase the efficiency of public spending.

A study of public sector participants, including 72 Saudi Arabian decision makers, found that the top goals of the Saudi government, similar to those of private sector organisations, were to increase efficiency, increase productivity, increase the quality of services to citizens, and reduce costs (CISCO 2006).

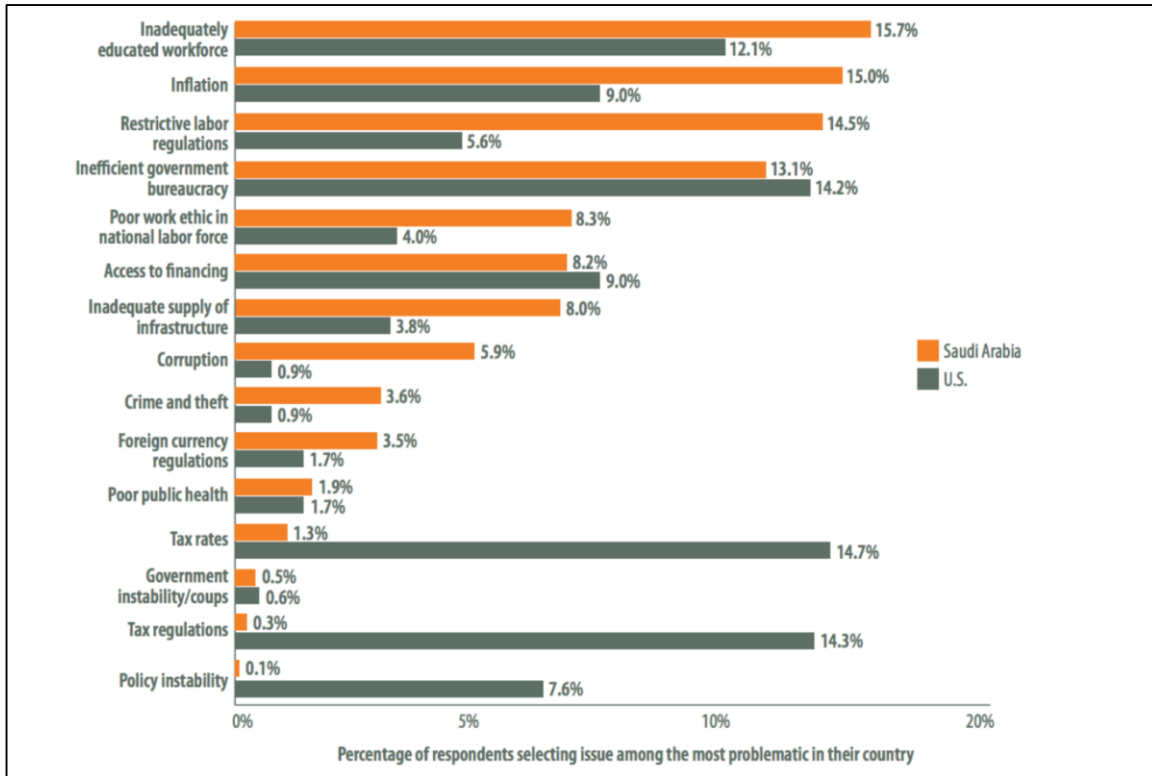
To develop a better understanding of the contextual background of the Saudi Arabian public sector's organisational context, it is important to describe the current minimum wages in Saudi Arabian government organisations. The qualitative findings of this research also shed light on the reasons why employees choose to work in the public sector as opposed to the private sector, despite the lower wages in the public sector. Wages in the public sector are another problem that the KSA is facing, because they are much less than the private sector (Budhwar and Debrah 2004). The government has not increased public sector salaries since the 1980s (Cordesman 2003), causing more people to opt for the private sector. More entry level workers are choosing government jobs and then leaving for the private sector as soon as they have gained some years of experience (Budhwar and Debrah 2004). Figure 1 shows the minimum wages and how it has changed over the years (UnitedNations 2004):

| Data from the latest year available        |            | Saudi Arabia<br>1991-1995 | Saudi Arabia<br>1996-2000 | Middle East<br>& North<br>Africa<br>average <sup>4</sup><br>1996-2000 | Gulf States<br>average <sup>4</sup><br>1996-2000 | Middle<br>income<br>group<br>average <sup>4</sup><br>1996-2000 |
|--|------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| <b>Employment</b>                          |            |                           |                           |   |  |  |
| Civilian Central Government <sup>5</sup>   | (,000)     | ..                        | ..                        |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | ..                        | 0.65  | 0.68   | 0.59   |
| Sub-national Government <sup>5</sup>       | (,000)     | ..                        | ..                        |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | ..                        | 0.65  | 0.68   | 0.59   |
| Education employees                        | (,000)     | ..                        | 295.3                     |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | 1.58                      | 0.96  | 1.63   | 1.20   |
| Health employees                           | (,000)     | ..                        | ..                        |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | ..                        | 0.20  | 0.31   | 0.70   |
| Police                                     | (,000)     | ..                        | ..                        |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | ..                        | 0.37  | 0.76   | 0.30   |
| Armed forces                               | (,000)     | ..                        | 105.5                     |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | 0.54                      | 0.91  | 1.73   | 0.46   |
| SOE Employees                              | (,000)     | ..                        | ..                        |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | ..                        | 2.67  | ..   | 3.61   |
| Total Public Employment                    | (,000)     | ..                        | ..                        |   |  |  |
|  | (% pop.)   | ..                        | ..                        | 6.26  | ..   | 6.05   |
| <b>Wages</b>                               |            |                           |                           |   |  |  |
| Total Central gov't wage bill              | (% of GDP) | 18.0                      | ..                        | 11.1  | 11.2   | 8.5  |
| Total Central gov't wage bill              | (% of exp) | ..                        | ..                        | 32.6  | 40.6   | 21.6   |
| Average gov't wage                         | (,000 LCU) | 10.54                     | ..                        |   |  |  |
| Real ave. gov't wage ('97 price)           | (,000 LCU) | 10.68                     | ..                        |   |  |  |
| Average gov't wage to per capita GDP ratio |            | 0.4                       | ..                        | 2.4   | 1.7  | 4.2  |

**Figure 1: Wages in the Saudi Arabian Public Sector (Source: World Bank)**

It is also important to outline the challenges that citizens face when trying to deal with the Saudi public sector. In this research study, we refer to this as ‘finishing a case’. This is a common term used by citizens who approach the public sector to handle their specific requirements. In terms of the Municipality of Riyadh, these can be applications for commercial licenses, specific renovation requests for personal residential sites, etc. As we will see, this is a major concern faced by citizens and the government sector, and top management often place ‘finishing cases quickly and correctly’ at top priority for their departments.

Figure 2 displays the realities of doing business and public sector services in Saudi Arabia: there are deep concerns regarding the government bureaucracies as a barrier to doing business in the country and the realities of red tape and professional work ethics in the public sector (SAGIA 2009).



**Figure 2: Problematic factors in the KSA working environment compared to USA (SAGIA 2009)**

There are 1.3 million employees in the public sector in Saudi Arabia (Toumi 2014). Work in the public sector is about lifetime employment, wages are based on seniority, and social relationships take priority over competence (Budhwar and Debrah 2004). Tribes and family ties are more important than the organisation's success or loyalty to the organisation itself (Budhwar and Debrah 2004), and managers will prefer to promote those of the same tribe and family (Budhwar and Debrah 2004). Nepotism plays a large role in the government sector (Budhwar and Debrah 2004). Therefore, members of the public sector who are not of the same tribe may not be motivated to work as hard since they may not be guaranteed a reward or a position: rewards are not performance based (Budhwar and Debrah 2004).

As we can see from the above sections, there are differences between the Saudi and western contexts, and this research will investigate the underlying issues faced by managers and employees in public sector organisations, with a focus on the Riyadh Municipality.

The Riyadh Municipality was established in 1941, at which time it had an elected mayor. The Municipality is responsible for the organisation and coordination of the towns in the region, authorising the construction of buildings, preserving the aesthetic beauty of the city, protecting

the environment, controlling consumer goods, and maintaining the overall safety of the capital city in Saudi Arabia. The Municipality has over 932,000 employees and is considered as one of the busiest public sector organisations in the country. From inspecting shops and business practices, to addressing the traffic problems of the city, and ensuring that over three million flowers are planted throughout the city every year, the Municipality has a major role to play in Riyadh. Elections are currently taking place to elect new council members for the Municipality – including women for the first time in history. As an example of arguments made by one of the members running for election of council, he states that previous council members have not done a good job serving the citizens, and that, if he is elected, he will work towards ensuring that public buildings follow architectural standards for those with special needs and increasing quality of service to citizens (Al-Ribaie and Al-Shammary 2016).

The 2016 Saudi budget was 87 billion dollars, and upcoming plans will focus on increasing productivity and efficiency in government project (Editor 2016). The newly stated plans for 2016 are to implement reform within the government sector and to encourage competition in the public sector through a new programme called transformation citizenship (Unknown 2015). Articles published about the KSA's strategic goals focus on transformation, reform, improvement, proficiency, and productivity.

In these changing times the need for research into transformational leadership and performance in the public sector is pressing. Table 2 illustrates the congruence between Saudi Arabian strategic plans (specifically for the public sector) and the areas of focus for this research:

| <b>Congruence between Saudi Arabian Strategic plans and the areas of focus for this research</b> |  |  |
|--|--|--|
| <b><i>Saudi Arabian Strategic Goals 2014 - 2019</i></b>  | <b><i>Areas of focus for this research</i></b>   | <b><i>Description</i></b>  |
| Increase performance and productivity in the public sector                                       | Internal branding is a strategic tool used to change employee behaviour and align it to the organisation's brand values.   | This research focuses on strategic tools that leaders can use to enhance the performance of the public sector. This is very closely aligned to enhancing the productivity and enhancing the public sector quality of service.  |
| Reform, change, and development  | Leadership, especially transformational leadership, is suggested as a means of implementing and leading change and reform. | This research argues that the role of the leader, specifically the transformational leader, is as the key change agent implementing strategic tools to achieve change in employees' behaviour, and thus to increase their performance. It has been argued that transformational leadership is a successful leadership style in times of change and reform e.g. (Abdulla 2010). |
| Increase competition in the public sector  | Implementing marketing tools such as internal branding in the public sector  | This research argues for the relevance and benefit of implementing internal branding and other tools to increase public sector performance by changing the behaviour of employees and increasing citizen satisfaction.   |

**Table 2: congruence between Saudi Arabian Strategic plans and the areas of focus for this research**

### **1.3 Research aim, research objectives and hypotheses**

The overall aim of this research is to shed light on internal branding in the public sector and the role of leadership in enhancing brand-specific behaviours. This research addresses the following research objectives:

1. To investigate the role of leadership in internal branding in the public sector.
  - 1.1 Is there a role for internal branding in the public sector, specifically in a Middle Eastern Arab country like Saudi Arabia, and how is internal branding evident in such a setting?
  - 1.2 What are the key success factors of internal branding in the public sector, and how does leadership affect Brand Internalisation and employee brand based behaviour?
  - 1.3 Are leaders in the public sector aware of their role in building the organisational

brand by creating ‘brand champions’? And what strategies do they use to achieve this?

2. To investigate the differences in dynamics and the effects of transformational and transactional leadership in a non-western developing country.
  - 2.1 Does transformational leadership have a positive effect on Brand Internalisation, as it does in western research studies, or does transactional leadership also contribute to internal branding?
  - 2.2 What are the most effective types of leadership strategies used to enhance brand internationalisation and brand based behaviour?
3. To identify the constraints to the practice of internal branding in public sector organisations.
  - 3.1 What are the constraints that public sector organisations face when practicing internal branding strategies?
  - 3.2 How does HR Red Tape affect the ability of leaders to lead their team and increase an organisation’s Brand Internalisation?
  - 3.3 How do structural authority constraints affect the ability of employees to internalise the organisational brand and become ‘brand champions’?

Following an in-depth literature review of internal branding, leadership and public sector management studies, this thesis puts forward a conceptual model. This is followed by a qualitative research based on 16 interviews with middle managers in the Municipality of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The following hypotheses in Table 3 are then tested through a paper-based survey to test Brand Internalisation in the unfamiliar context of the public sector by studying the relationships between key variables.

| <b>Research hypotheses</b> |   |
|----------------------------|---|
| <b>Hypothesis</b>          |   |
| H1:                        | A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee. |
| H2:                        | A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee.    |
| H3:                        | A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee.                          |
| H4a:                       | A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.                       |
| H4b:                       | A significant positive relationships exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.                      |
| H5:                        | A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by employee.                             |
| H6:                        | A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by employee.        |
| H7:                        | A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by employee.                      |
| H8:                        | A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee.                   |

**Table 3: Research hypotheses**

#### **1.4 Contribution of the research**

This research investigates the link between three different areas, leadership, branding, and the public sector, by examining the effect of leadership style on the internalisation of the brand in the public sector. The diagram shown in figure 3 shows the three areas that were under research. This research contributes to both theory and practice by providing a thorough analysis of leadership, internal branding, and employee behaviour in the public sector. The present study:

1. Contributes towards effective leadership styles in Saudi Arabian public sector organisations that have the highest influence on affecting employee behaviour and thus enhancing public sector performance. Since most western studies argue the importance of transformational leadership over transactional leadership, the research also contributes by presenting evidence collected in a Middle Eastern context.
2. Contributes towards looking at public sector performance through the viewpoint of internal branding, by looking at how brand internalisation affects employee behaviour. Very little research has been conducted in this area. Morhart et al. (2009) investigated the role of brand leadership in the private sector, and found that transformational leadership had positive effects on brand internalisation and employee behaviour.



However, there is little research on the role of brand leadership in the public sector, especially in non-western countries. This leads to a better understanding of how the employee behaviour changes when there are deliberate actions taken by the organisation to align the employee values to the organisational values and its overall mission, providing hands on knowledge for public sector leaders who wish to enhance their internal branding as well as their overall organisational performance.

3. Contributes towards the key factors that influence brand internalisation and employee behaviour in the public sector compared to the private sector. Investigating the challenges that are unique to the public sector, such as structural authority constraints, HR Red Tape and lack of brand related training. This offers practical knowledge for public sector organisations to create stronger internal branding strategies investing in skills development in the areas that are most effective and have the largest potential success.
4. Supports the idea that in order to judge public sector performance, one must not only look at employees' efficiency in doing their expected day to day tasks (in-role behaviour). One must also expect employees to go beyond what is asked of them and encourage organisational citizenship behaviour such as positive word of mouth, going out of their way to satisfy citizens, etc. (extra-role behaviour). This provides public sector managers with practical knowledge about how internal branding could be a key factor in enhancing both in-role and extra-role employee brand building behaviour.
5. Contributes to how intrinsic and extrinsic rewards affect brand internalisation and employee behaviour. Research has shown that public sector employees have intrinsic motivation but little research has been done to see how different types of rewards enhance brand internalisation and employee behaviour in public sector organisations.
6. Provides support on the importance of investing in training that is aimed at enhancing employee internal branding and aligning employee values to the organisational values.

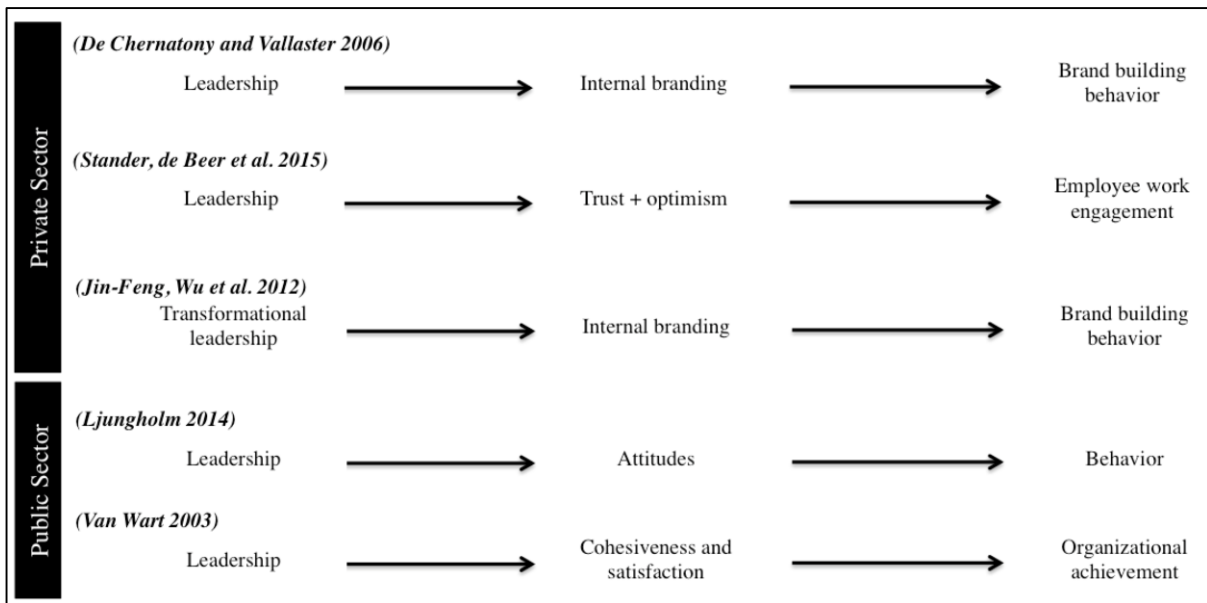


Figure 3: Internal branding, leadership, the public sector and the proposed research gap

### 1.5 Research Gap

In this section, an explanation is given to why this research has focused on these areas by summarising the research gaps based on previous research.

First, as we can see in figure 4, previous research has looked at the effect of leadership on employees and their feelings of trust towards the organisation. It also looks at the internalisation of the organisational brand values and being cohesive and in alignment with the organisational brand, and it turns how that affects employee behaviour and organisational performance (De Chernatony and Vallaster 2006, Uen, Wu et al. 2012, Stander, de Beer et al. 2015). However, most of these studies have been in private sector organisations. On the other hand, studies that have been conducted in the public sector have focused on western environments and in contexts very different to the focus of the research (Van Wart 2003, Ljungholm 2014). Therefore, this research addresses an important research gap by investigating the effect of leadership in a Middle Eastern context and in a public sector organisation.



**Figure 4: Main previous research on the effect of leaders on internal branding and employee performance.**

Secondly, there has been debate on which leadership style has a stronger effect on performance. Table 4 summarises that most research in the private sector has been divided into researchers who believe that transformational leadership is better at enhancing performance and others who believe that transactional or a mixed or full range of leadership is best at enhancing performance. In the public sector, most researchers argue that transformational leadership is better suited to enhance public sector performance. However, most of these studies have been

conducted in western countries. The two studies that have been reviewed from non-western countries (Pakistan) (Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012) argued for transformational leadership, and (Chaudry and Javed 2012) argued for transactional leadership. Therefore, this research addresses this gap in research by investigating the most effective style of leadership that can enhance employee brand internalisation and ultimately public sector performance. A more detailed review of the studies are presented in the next chapters of the literature review.

| Summarising the debate between transformational and transactional leadership |  |  |   |
|--|--|--|---|
| <b>Sector</b>  | <b><i>Transformational is better</i></b>   | <b><i>Transactional is better</i></b>            | <b><i>A full range is better</i></b>                |
| Private sector   | (Abdalla 2010) (Konorti 2012)<br>(Marturano and Gosling 2007)  | (Epitropaki and Martin 2005) (Lian and Tui 2012) | (Avolio and Bass 2001, Kirkbride 2006, Avolio 2010) |
| Public sector  | (Simola, Barling et al. 2010, Wright and Pandey 2010, Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012, Ljungholm 2014, van der Voet 2014) | (Chaudhry and Javed 2012)                        |   |

**Table 4:** Summarising the debate between transformational and transactional leadership

## 1.6 Structure of the thesis

In order to achieve the research objectives outlined in Section 1.3, this thesis is divided into ten chapters.

**Chapter one** introduces the research background, discusses the research gap, and presents the main objectives that this study aims to achieve. It also reviews the research hypothesis, the contribution of the research and the structure of the thesis. **Chapter two** starts with a historical review of leadership theories and how the understanding of leadership has transformed from trait theory all the way to transactional and transformational leadership. A comparison between transformational and transactional leadership is presented and the relevant research of leadership within the context of the private sector in contrast to the public sector is presented. The role of leadership in encouraging brand building behaviour amongst employees is also highlighted. **Chapter three** presents a historical review and development of the theories of a brand, and internal branding literature is then reviewed in an attempt to define the concept of the organisational brand and understand the importance of internal branding in helping employees to deliver the brand promise to stakeholders. Internal branding and transformational leadership are examined in the context of public sector organisations. The relevance of internal branding in the public sector is examined and the possible reasons for the lack of research in this area are discussed. The literature review in chapters two and three lays the foundations for

**chapter four.** Chapter four develops a theoretical framework for brand internalisation in the public sector looking at the key factors influencing brand internalisation and employee brand building behaviour; this includes transformational leadership, transactional leadership, rewards and training. It also discusses contextual challenges faced in the public sector, including structural authority constraints and perceived rates of HR red tape. **Chapter five** discusses the research design adopted for the purposes of this research and presents the two sections of the research methodology, the qualitative phase and the quantitative phase. The choice of research methods, the sampling design and the data analysis techniques are also presented. **Chapter six** presents the findings from the qualitative research. **Chapter seven** is divided into two sections; the first section presents the descriptive statistics of the data including the response rate of the main survey, the demographic profile from the participants of the survey. It also describes the factor analysis of the constructs and provides the reliability and the validity of the survey instrument. The second section of this chapter presents the results from the regression, and the post hoc analysis test that was done through SPSS. The results of the hypothesis support is presented including the findings from both chapters six and seven. **Chapter eight** presents a discussion to highlight the research findings from both the qualitative and the quantitative research. **Chapter nine** addresses the contributions made by this study along with guidance for future research. In addition, the theoretical and practical implications are also explained and the limitations of the present study are acknowledged. The chapter ends with the thesis conclusion. **Chapter ten** includes the references used in this study.

-- Chapter Two --  
Leadership

## **2. Chapter 2: Leadership**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Many agree on the importance of leadership: it enhances the quality of goods and services, brings cohesiveness to an organisation, and increases satisfaction and achievement overall (Van Wart 2003). But what does leadership look like in the public sector? And which leadership theory would be most effective in the context of this research?

This chapter is divided into the following sections: section 2.2 presents a comparative meta-analysis of leadership theories, presented as a historical review while discussing the relevance of the theory for the purpose of this research. Section 2.3 focuses on transformational and transactional leadership and why these theories were selected for this research. The dimensions of these leadership styles are discussed in detail along with the review of literature on the projected outcomes of each style, its strengths and its weaknesses. Section 2.4 looks at how leadership affects the fulfilment of follower needs by exploring self-determination theory. This section will be a key concept that will link with brand internalisation and employee attitudes and behaviours, which will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. Section 2.5 briefly presents a concept of ‘new models of leadership’, which has been recently researched as a new way to look at transformational and transactional leadership. Section 2.6 brings leadership to the public sector and looks at what previous studies have presented. This section also introduces what challenges public sector leaders could be uniquely facing compared to the private sector. Section 2.7 briefly introduces how culture and gender could affect leadership. Finally, section 2.8 presents a summary of the chapter.

### **2.2 Leadership theories**

Leadership has been researched worldwide and there are a wide variety of theoretical approaches that attempt to explain its complex processes (Northouse 2009). There have been more than 65 theories of leadership in the past 60 years (Fleishman, Mumford et al. 1991). Some of these theories have focused on power distribution (Cogliser and Schriesheim 2000), goal achievement (Piccolo and Colquitt 2006), skills and personality traits (Heller, Judge et al. 2002), and the situation (Vroom and Jago 2007). Early leadership theories focused on the leader rather than the relationship between leaders and their followers.

Leadership can be defined as the ability to move followers towards a desired goal. It includes elements of the ability to influence people as well as sharing common purposes and a common goal (Avolio 2010).

| Historical development of leadership approaches |  |   |  |
|---|--|---|--|
|   | <b>Leadership definition:</b> leadership can be defined as a process in which the leader moves followers towards a specific goal (Northouse 2009). |   |  |
| <i>Prominence of leadership approach</i>        | <i>Leadership Theory</i>   | <i>Characteristics</i>  | <i>References</i>                                      |
| Nineteenth century                              | Great man theory   | Only a few have the unique ability to be leaders, and they are rare people with unique characteristics. These theories were found to be not suitable for scientific study.  | (Van Wart 2003)  |
| Trait approach<br>1930s                         | Trait theory   | Focusing on leaders' traits, this theory argues that people have specific characteristics and inborn qualities that enable them to be leaders (physical qualities, personal qualities, ability characteristics, etc.).<br>Leadership definition: people are born leaders; their height, intelligence, extroversion, fluency, and other traits determine their ability to lead their followers towards the desired goal. | (Stodgill 1974)  |
| Behavioural approach<br>1940s to 1950s          | Skills approach  | Effective leaders require three specific skill sets: technical, human, and conceptual.  | (Bass 1990, Fleishman, Mumford et al. 1991, Katz 2009) |
|   | Style approach   | Style approach emphasises how the leader behaves and how he or she is balanced between tasks and relationships.   | (Blake and Mouton 1964)                                |
|   | Situational leadership   | Focuses on the situation and argues that different situations require different types of leadership; in order for a leader to determine what is needed, he or she must evaluate the employees, and assess their competence and commitment.  | (Hersey and Blanchard 1969)                            |
| Contingency approach<br>1960s to 1980s          | Contingency theory of leadership   | Different leaders are best suited for different situations; this theory emphasises the context or the setting.  | (Fiedler 1964)   |
|   | Path goal theory   | Emphasises the leadership style and the characteristics of the followers and the work setting. A leader must act in a way that meets the motivational needs of  | (House and Mitchell 1975)                              |



|                |   |   |  |
|----------------|---|---|--|
|                |   | followers.  |  |
| 1970s          | Leader-member exchange                                  | Adds to previous theories by focusing on the perspectives of followers. The quality of leader and follower exchanges (relationship, trust, respect) evolves through the stages of stranger, acquaintance, and partner.          | (Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995)  |
| 1970s to 1980s | Transformational leadership<br>Transactional leadership | A process through which the leader transforms and changes followers' behaviour. Focuses on the exchange between leader and follower in which the leader promises something to a follower if he or she behaves in a certain way. | (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass 1998, Avolio and Bass 2001, Bass and Riggio 2006) |

**Table 5: Historical development of leadership approaches**

A comparative meta-analysis of leadership theories is presented as a historical review in table 5. Within each leadership approach, theories were selected to illustrate the main components of that particular approach. Some leadership theories, such as e-leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, cross cultural leadership, and spiritual leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa et al. 2009), were excluded from this review because they were irrelevant in this research context or not widely studied in the public sector.

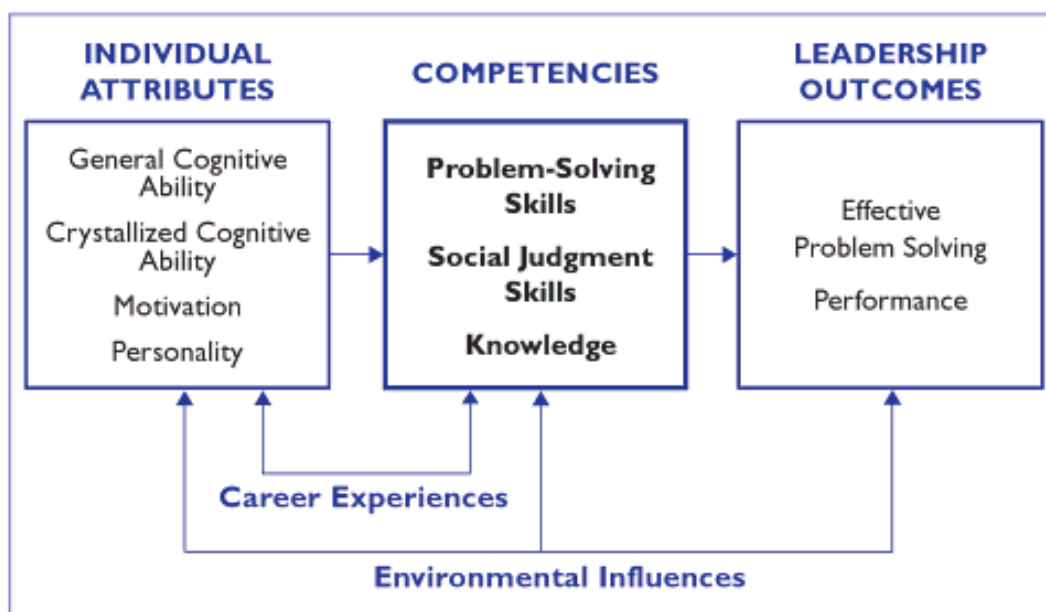
### 2.2.1 Trait theory

Early leadership theorists focused on the traits generally possessed by leaders, such as openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, self-esteem, and perfectionism (e.g. Stogdill 1974). Proponents of the trait theory, therefore, focused on identifying the most effective traits for leaders. However, the research outcomes of the trait theory were inconsistent and generally inconclusive, because although some leaders had these traits, not possessing them did not prevent a person from being a leader (Hogan et al. 1977). Furthermore, traits such as honesty, integrity, persistence, adaptability, decisiveness, or loyalty were difficult to measure (Bolden, Gosling et al. June 2003). Researchers in the field of public sector management agreed that trait theory was of limited use when researching the public or government sector because it was more theoretical rather than practical (Whicker and Areson 1990). Therefore, other theories were needed.

### 2.2.2 Skills

Research on leadership evolved to focus on skills that could be developed in leaders. Roberts Katz (1955) proposed a ‘three skills approach’ for effective leaders that comprised technical skill, human skill, and conceptual skill. Katz also stated that leaders at different levels require different amounts of each skill. Top management requires less technical skill, and line supervisors require less conceptual skill.

The skills approach was later developed by Mumford et al. (2000) into the Skills Model (figure 5). The Skills Model created a framework with which leaders could manage their capabilities in terms of knowledge and skills. Mumford et al. (2000) argued that leaders acquired competencies over time, through experience, and according to environmental influences (Northouse 2009). Similarly to Katz (1955), Mumford et al. (2000) argued that leaders at different levels develop different competencies due to the nature of their work. Top management, for example, requires more problem solving and social judgment skills.



**Figure 5: Skills Model of Leadership (Mumford et al. 2000, cited in Northouse 2009).**

One of the strengths of the Skills Model was that it defied the earlier belief that leaders are born. The Skills Model emphasised that leaders could be effective based on the skills that they gained (Northouse 2009). However, one of the weaknesses of this approach was that it did not explain how leadership led to better performance. The Skills Model extended beyond the

boundaries of leadership to include critical thinking, motivation, and personality theory (Mumford et al. 2000). Finally, the Skills Model also looked at the cognitive capabilities and personality variables of the leader, and thus became similar to the trait theory of leadership. Therefore, a different leadership theory was needed.

### 2.2.3 Style

Instead of the traits and abilities of leaders, the style approach emphasised the behaviour of leaders – what they do and how they act (Northouse 2009). Researchers here focused on two categories of leadership behaviour: task behaviours and relationship behaviours. The managerial grid, created by Blake and Mouton (1964) and later renamed the leadership grid, was designed to show how leaders could place emphasis on production and people, thereby outlining a similar dichotomy to that of tasks and relationships. The leadership grid defines five types of leadership: country club management, team management, middle of the road management, impoverished management, and authority compliance management, as shown in figure 6 below.

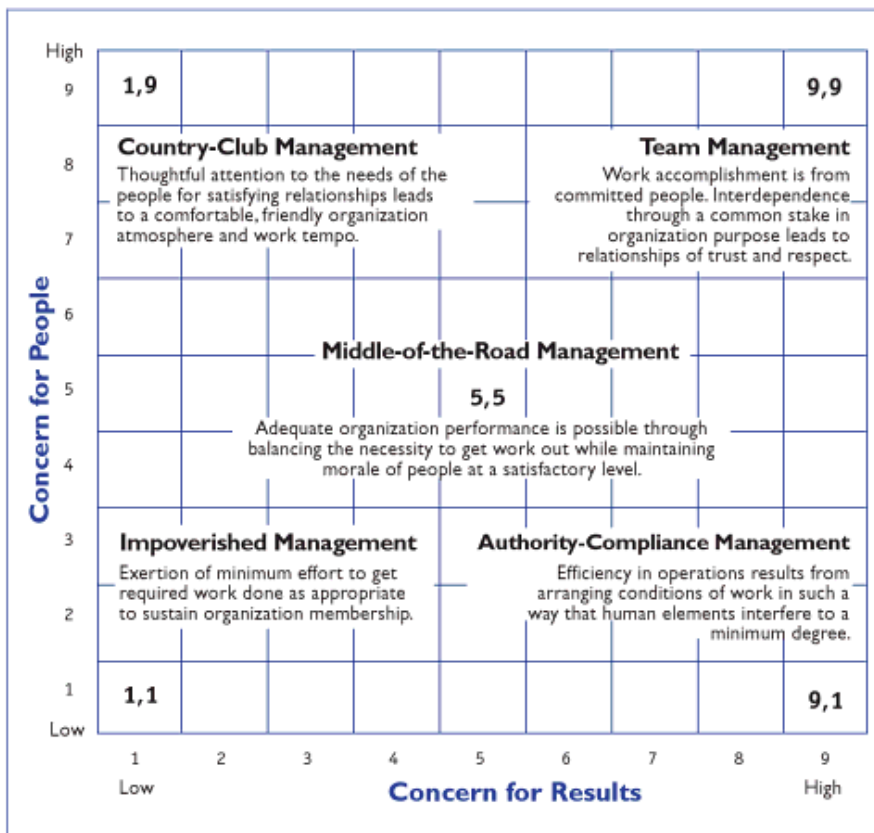


Figure 6: The Leadership Grid (Northouse 2009)

Much like the skills approach, this theory also failed to identify how leadership leads to better performance. For example, there is no empirical research on the link between task or relationship leadership and increased job satisfaction or job performance (Northouse 2009). Furthermore, this leadership style failed to identify any universal behaviour of a successful leader. It would also be false to imply that a leader who was effective at tasks and relationships would be most effective, because this would not be the case in all situations (Northouse 2009). This leads us to investigate a different leadership theory.

### 2.2.4 Situational leadership

Situational leadership (see Figure 7) was developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969 (Northouse 2009). As the name suggests, it stated that different kinds of leadership styles are needed in different situations. Leadership can be more directive or supportive based on the competency of the followers, and leaders must match their leadership style to the commitment and competency of the employees (Northouse 2009). It outlined four leadership styles: delegating, supporting, coaching, and directing (Northouse 2009). The situational leadership theory stated that employees move along a continuum as per their commitment and competency, and leadership must find out followers' positions on this continuum in order to adjust their style accordingly (Northouse 2009).

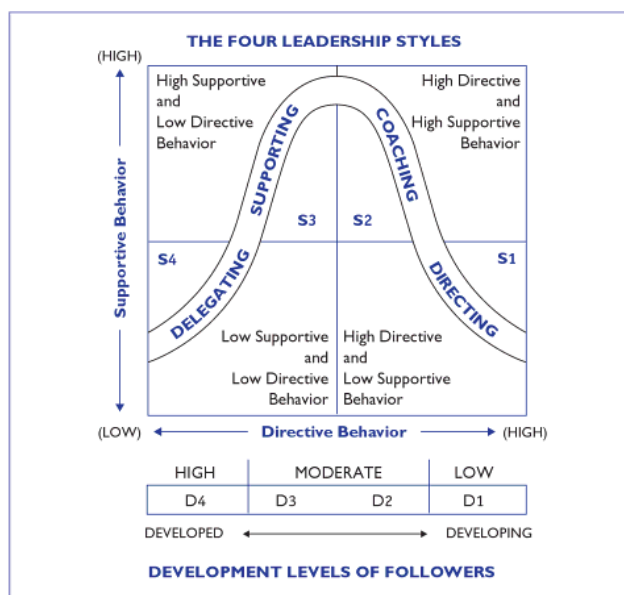


Figure 7: Situational leadership (Northouse 2009)

Some of the weaknesses of the situational approach are related to its validity, and the lack of empirical research linking it with higher performance, as well as its vague explanation of how followers move along the continuum and the clear description of each approach (Graeff 1983).

### 2.2.5 Contingency leadership

Several empirical studies have examined contingency leadership, which matches a leader to a specific situation (Fielder 1964). Fielder developed the contingency leadership (figure 8) theory by researching leaders, how they worked, and how effective they were (Waters 2013). In contingency theory, leadership styles are either task-oriented (concerned with reaching a goal) or relationship-oriented (concerned with developing a lasting relationship with followers) (Waters 2013). The contingency theory argued that leaders are not effective in every situation. Rather, if there is a good match between an individual’s orientation and the current situation of the organisation, then that individual’s performance as a leader will be higher; if there is a poor match, then the leader’s performance will be poor (Waters 2013). The contingency theory suggested that the relationship between leaders and followers (the degree of confidence followers feel towards a leader, i.e. loyalty), the structure of the task (clear task definitions), and the position of power (the ability to reward or punish) lead to different leadership situations (Waters 2013).

|                                    |  | Leadership Situations |      |        |                       |        |      |                 |      |      |
|------------------------------------|--|-----------------------|------|--------|-----------------------|--------|------|-----------------|------|------|
| <b>Leader-Member Relations</b>     |  | Good                  | Good | Good   | Good                  | Poor   | Poor | Poor            | Poor | Poor |
| <b>Task Structure</b>              |  | High                  | High | Low    | Low                   | High   | High | Low             | Low  | Low  |
| <b>Position Power</b>              |  | Strong                | Weak | Strong | Weak                  | Strong | Weak | Strong          | Weak | Weak |
| <b>Favorableness of Situation</b>  |  | Most Favorable        |      |        | Moderate Favorable    |        |      | Least Favorable |      |      |
| <b>Appropriate Leader Behavior</b> |  | Task-Oriented         |      |        | Relationship-Oriented |        |      | Task-Oriented   |      |      |

Figure 8: Fielder's contingency leadership theory

It is also important to note the difference between contingency leadership and situational leadership (see table 6): contingency theory focused on the effectiveness of the leaders, saying that different leaders are more effective in different situations, and arguing that a situation can be very different but a leader cannot change their style (Fielder 1964). Situational leadership,

in contrast, argued that leaders can use different skills and abilities to lead people in different situations (see table 6). Table 6 outlines some of the key differences between contingency and situational leadership:

| Comparison between situational and contingency leadership   |   |
|---|---|
| Situational leadership  | Contingency leadership  |
| Leaders can use different skills and abilities to lead people in the current situation.           | Focuses on the effectiveness of the leader, based on his or her individual style and the match with the current situation.                  |
| Task oriented or relationship oriented  |   |
| There are four leadership styles: delegating, supporting, coaching, and directing (see figure 6). | The effectiveness (good or bad match) is determined by leader-member relations, task structure, and the power of a position (see figure 7). |
| Depends on the attitudes and behaviours of the followers.   | Relies on the current situation.  |
| Flexible because it allows the leader to use the appropriate style according to need.             | Assumes that the leader will function based on the style of the leader as an individual and his or her compatibility with the situation.    |
| Followers will react differently based on their attitude or behaviour.                            | Followers will react differently based on the style of the leader.  |
| Closer to behavioural theories.   | Closer to trait theory.   |

**Table 6: Comparison between situational and contingency leadership**

One of the advantages of the contingency theory is that it values the situation and its effect on leadership performance and outcomes (Waters 2013). On the other hand, other researchers have criticised this theory, arguing that it is not effective at describing an effective leader, is not effective in extreme situations, and is not reliable in measuring the specific style of the leader (Avolio 2010).

### 2.2.6 Path-goal

Path-goal leadership theory focused on finding the gap, motivation, and moving followers forward towards a goal (Schriesheim and Neider 1996). As Bass (1990) notes, the leader 'needs to complement only what is missing in a situation to enhance the subordinate's motivation, satisfaction, and performance' (p.627). House (1971) and Mitchell (1974) focused on how leaders motivate their followers to accomplish a goal. They noted the role of the leader in defining the goal, clarifying the path to that goal, removing any obstacles, and providing support to ensure that the goal is reached. However, research findings on path-goal theory have been inconsistent and criticised for their research methodologies (Schriesheim and Neider

1996). A further criticism is that path-goal theory assumes that the leader is the main person who helps followers, and therefore that he or she ‘knows all’ or ‘knows best’, and consequently followers must be dependent on their leader (Schriesheim and Neider 1996).

### **2.2.7 Leader member exchange**

Leader member exchange (LMX) centred on the relationship between the leader and the follower, in the context of an in-group and an out-group. It identified through three phases in followers’ relationships with their leader: Role-Taking, Role-Making, and Routinisation (Graen 1991, 1995). It was based on the principle that leaders have different exchange relationships with their employees and that the quality of these relationships affects the behaviour and attitudes of their followers (Ilies, Nahrgang et al. 2007). The LMX theory was based on the social exchange theory and has been found to have a positive correlation with performance, satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (Ilies, Nahrgang et al. 2007). The in-group are dedicated members who form the team, and the out-group are withdrawn members with negative work attitudes. The in-group members are given greater responsibility and offered more challenging jobs, and they achieve a better performance, while the out-group are given fewer responsibilities and are not considered for promotions (Ilies, Nahrgang et al. 2007). The weaknesses of the LMX was that it assumed that all employees in the in-group are considered trustworthy; it also did not account for leadership styles or group dynamics. In addition, LMX did not provide guidance on how to establish successful relationships with followers (Power 2013).

### **2.2.8 Psychodynamic**

Carl Jung proposed a theory that was later adapted by Myers-Briggs, which argued that leaders had 16 different personality types, based on four dichotomies: Introversion-Extroversion, Sensing-Intuition, Thinking-Feeling, and Judging-Perceiving (Oliverio and Writing 2008). Jung believed that people had different perceptions about themselves and how they feel and think, and that these perceptions and preferences affect the way that they work and relate together in an organisation. Jung identified the basic personality traits of ‘introverts’ and ‘extroverts’, and this work was later developed by Briggs and Myers, leading to the creation of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Jackson and Texas 2008). Together, their tools for classifying personality traits were used to better understand individuals and develop new

behavioural strategies. Researchers explored the plausibility of certain personality types and the predictability of certain behavioural outcomes. Although the MBTI was one of the most well-known personality and leadership personality tools in the world, its weaknesses included that it tried to predict behaviour solely based on personality rather than based on a model that accounted for both cognitive and emotional factors (Jackson and Texas 2008). Additionally, the MBTI theory places a similar importance on every type of leadership personality, but, as we will see next, not all leadership types have positive outcomes.

### **2.3 Transformational and transactional leadership**

The literature was reviewed in order to investigate appropriate leadership theories for the context and purposes of this research. Overall, the literature review suggested that transformational and transactional leadership had the strongest influence on public sector performance and would be the most appropriate leadership style to investigate for the purposes of this research.

Unlike the theories discussed so far, which focused on the behaviours and attitudes of a single leader who stands out from the crowd, the 1990s saw a shift in leadership paradigm towards a focus on a leader's relationship with his or her followers (Bolden, Gosling et al. June 2003). Kouzes and Posner (2008) provided five evidence-based practices of exemplary leadership based on over 25 years of research, reaffirming that 'leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow' (p. 24). Among these practices were some that focused on the behaviour of the leader (by setting the example or being the role model and venturing out in search of new, innovative ways to improve by challenging processes) and others that focused on the relationship that the leader created with his or her followers. The latter included inspiring a shared vision and enlisting others in this vision by creating a dialogue, knowing about followers' dreams, hopes and visions, and explaining why they should follow, not just what they should do (Kouzes and Posner 2008). Extraordinary leaders also enable their followers to act by fostering collaboration and building trust by engaging all the stakeholders, including peers, customers, and citizens, because they believe that doing so will 'strengthen everyone's capacity to deliver' (Kouzes and Posner 2008). Great leaders get people to commit to the organisational cause and 'infuse their energy into strategies is called transformational leadership' (Kouzes and Posner 2008).



One of the most popular and most researched theories of leadership is transformational leadership (e.g. (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass 1998, Awamleh, Evans et al. 2005, Barbuto 2005, Bass and Riggio 2006, Abdalla 2010). Transformational leadership has the ability to influence change and help to move employees and organisations towards the desired goal while transforming their behaviour and achieving higher levels of productivity and performance (Abdalla 2010). Transformational leadership, in its essence, blooms from charismatic leadership, but has unique components that are most effective in times of change, or in times during which performance is being enhanced (Abdalla 2010). These four components are outlined below. Along with transformational leadership, transactional leadership has also been the centre of many research studies (Bass 1990, Bono and Judge 2004, Awamleh, Evans et al. 2005, Barbuto 2005, Berson and Linton 2005, Bealer and Bhanugopan 2013).

Transformational and transactional leadership theory is attributed to the works of Robert Houseon (1976) and James Macgregor Burns (Bass 1998). These later led to the widespread investigation of transformational, transactional and passive (*laissez-faire*) leadership styles (e.g. (Burns 1978, Bennis and Nanus 1985, House, Wright et al. 1997, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Konorti 2012). Transactional leadership emphasises the exchange or transaction that occurs between the leader and the follower: the leader makes clear what is expected of the employee and what the rewards are for achieving it (Bass 1998). Transformational leadership inspires followers to go beyond what is expected of them, and it typically results in increased performance (Bass 1998). Bass wrote:

Transformational leadership is more effective and satisfying than corrective ones. Passive leadership is least effective and satisfying. Leaders use all these approaches, but some do more than others in how they lead. Better leaders are transformational more frequently. (Bass 1998: xi)

Transactional leadership represents some social exchange between the leader and the follower, and ‘transformational leadership provides a deeper level of connection with followers through the leader’s ability to be a role model for the followers, inspire them through a vision, intellectually challenge them, and demonstrate a genuine concern for the follower’s wellbeing’ (Marturano and Gosling 2007).

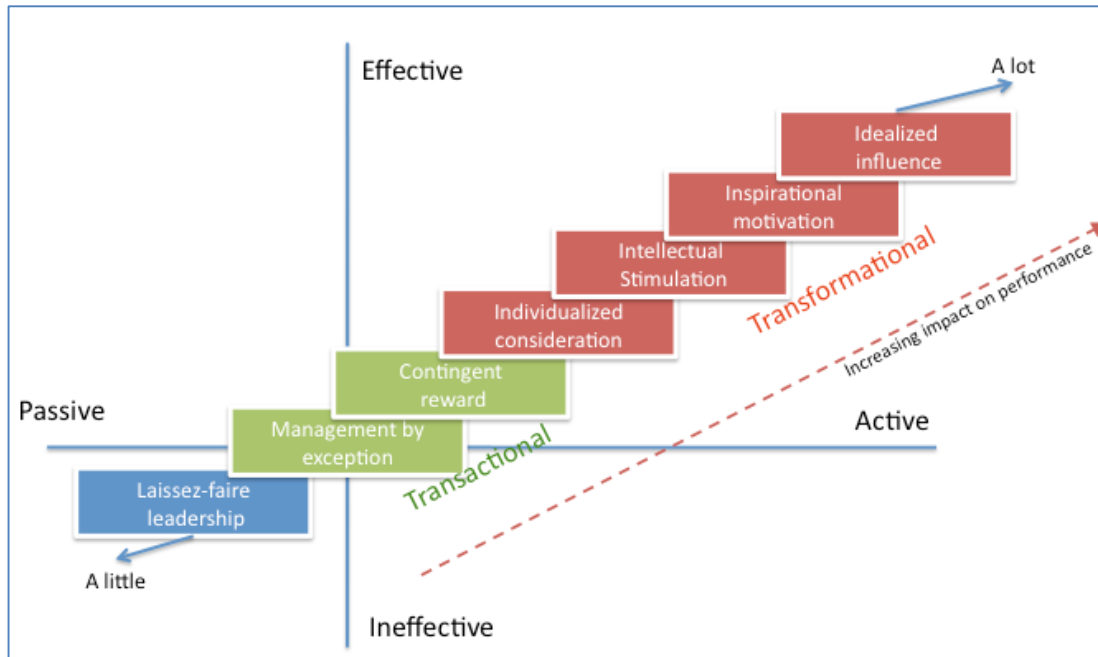
Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang (2008) investigated leadership in government agencies and argued that, compared to other theories of transformational leadership (e.g. Bennis and Nanus 1985; Burns 1978; Tichy and Devanna 1986), Bass's theory of leadership had been rigorously researched. It uses eight factors to survey leadership; these described the recent definitions of leadership in terms of inspiring and stimulating relationships, persuading and influencing goal achievement, 'role differentiation, reinforcement, initiation of structure, and perceived attributions of behaviour that are consistent with what perceivers believe leadership to be' (Bass, 1990: 19).

Burns (1978) argued that there is a dichotomy of transformational and transactional leadership, while Bass (1998) argued that there is a relationship between these two leadership styles and that both are needed to enhance performance by allowing a full range of leadership to emerge (see figure 9). The full range of leadership is one of the most popular leadership models today (Kirkbride 2006). It portrays a range of leadership styles and describes the different leadership behaviours, including laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership (Avolio 2010). Many researchers agree that leaders may adopt different leadership styles at different times, as suggested by (Rowold 2011).

Avolio (Avolio 2010), for instance, found that the best performance was achieved when transformational leaders applied transactional leadership behaviour to amplify actions and results. He thereby argued for a full range of leadership, a theory he described as a cumulative model. As illustrated in figure 9, the priority of the elements increases considerably from top to bottom: and the best performance is achieved when leaders exercise very little laissez-faire leadership behaviours, some transactional leadership behaviours, and mostly transformational leadership behaviours (Avolio 2010).

However, some researchers have also stated the limitations of the full range leadership theory (Trottier et al. (2008). Firstly, it is not clear how transactional and transformational leadership interact. Secondly, some important leadership roles are not covered in the theory, including negotiation and entrepreneurship. Thirdly, Bass's theory (1998) does not cover situational variables or the effects of context on leadership styles. This suggests that there may be differences in the effectiveness of the leadership types depending on the situation, or possibly being affected by other variables within the context.

Although individualised consideration is included in transformational leadership according to Bass (1990), Trottier et al. (2008) include it as part of the transactional leadership style, although the results of their empirical research still show transformational leadership style increases the impact on performance.



**Figure 9: Full range leadership model (Kirkbride 2006)**

Burns (1978) described transformation leaders as having the ability to make social changes by finding out what motivates people, looking for what satisfies their needs, and engaging them in their work. He argued that there is a relationship that develops between the leader and the follower that motivates them to complete goals. Transformational leaders motivate changes that are beneficial to the relationship between the leader and the follower, as well as to the resources around them (Stewart 2006). Transformational leaders ‘define public values that embrace the supreme and enduring principles of people’ (Stewart 2006, p. 29). Konorti (2012) believed that transformational leaders have skills that surpass those of a manager or administrator such as direction, planning, and delegation; transformational leaders also inspire their followers with their charisma and intellect. In this research the focus is on illuminating the role of transformational and transactional leadership in internal branding in the public sector. These kinds of leadership have been chosen because of the context of the research and the applicability of such leadership styles in times of transformation, following goals for national change. The next section discusses these two types of leadership in more detail.

### 2.3.1 Transformational leadership dimensions

There are four dimensions of a transformational leader: individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealised influence (Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Stewart 2006, Kouzes and Posner 2007, Konorti 2012).

1. **Individualised consideration:** the transformational leader focuses on an individual member of the organisation. He or she makes that employee feel heard, and acts as a teacher, coach, and mentor. The employee believes that the transformational leader cares about him or her as an individual just as much as the organisation and its goals. The aim is to connect with the employees on an individual level.
2. **Intellectual stimulation:** the transformational leader stimulates the followers' brains and challenges them intellectually to solve problems, testing old assumptions and creatively thinking about the situation in new ways. Transformational leaders encourage their followers to think critically and creatively (Konorti 2012). The aim is to challenge employees to think differently in order to achieve their goals.
3. **Inspirational motivation:** transformational leaders do not tell their followers to act; they inspire and motivate their followers to believe in why they must act in order to reach their shared goal. Transformational leaders have the ability to inspire their employees to help them to achieve goals by aligning their vision to these organisational goals. Together with the first component, these two components are sometimes described as charismatic leadership.
4. **Idealised influence:** a transformational leader functions as a role model, acting out the behaviours that he or she wishes to instil in followers, which are consistent with the organisational brand or vision (Wright and Pandey 2010). The leader has the ability to be a positive role model, 'walking the talk', and instead of telling employees what to do, he or she shows them by doing it him- or herself and is heavily involved in the process of accomplishing the goal.

### 2.3.2 Limitations of transformational leadership

Liu, Zhu, and Yang (2010) listed the limitations of transformational leadership, which they characterised as the 'dark side of transformational leadership' (p. 3): transformational leaders may cause a unidirectional effect on their followers, while followers may become obedient and

overly dependent, with low self-esteem, and incapable of making decisions by themselves. Transformational or charismatic leaders may also be highly emotional and illogical, and therefore more risky if placed in charge of an organisation's brand (Liu, Zhu et al. 2010).

Brand-specific transformational leaders must lead within the realm of the organisational vision. They must be tied to beliefs, values, and behaviours that are in alignment with the organisation's brand, vision, and culture. Brand-specific transformational leaders in the public sector are bound to lead their teams towards a shared goal that serves and benefits the citizens and the community (Liu, Zhu et al. 2010).

Others argue that transformational leaders may have the power to use their charismatic ability for unethical purposes such as personal or political gain (Liu, Zhu et al. 2010). While transformational leaders focus on value congruence between their followers and the organisation's brand, they could well encourage their followers to believe that the only behaviours that will be rewarded are those that are in alignment with the organisation's brand and vision. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) argued that this might have a negative effect on followers by reducing creativity and innovation. On the other hand, Konorti (2012) argued that transformational leaders encourage their followers to think critically and creatively by challenging them to become involved in solving problems, thinking critically, and developing creative solutions.

### **2.3.3 Transformational leadership outcomes**

Transformational leadership is linked to better employee performance (Konorti 2012). Wright and Pandey (2010) maintained that transformational leadership was also linked to follower performance and satisfaction in the private sector, governmental organisations, and non-profits. Transformational leadership is also positively linked with better communication flow between members of the organisation, employee productivity, and better financial results.

Transformational leaders have a positive effect on public service motivation (Judge and Piccolo 2004), behavioural change (Piccolo and Colquitt 2006), commitment to public interest (Ritz, Giauque et al.), increased tendency towards innovation, and greater alignment with organisational culture (Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012). Transformational leadership has been found to be positively correlated with performance (Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Barling, Weber, and Kelloway 1996; Bass et al. 2003; Dvir et al. 2002), increased morale-related outcomes such as

self-efficacy (Kirkpartick and Locke 1996), effective commitment (Barling et al. 1996), intrinsic motivation (Charbonneau, Barling, and Kelloway 2001), and trust in the leader (Podsakoff et al. 1990, as cited in (Lian and Tui 2012)).

Researchers have also found a significant relationship between transformational leadership and organisational brand climate (organisational brand climate is described as the shared perception of the stakeholders towards the organisational practices, policies, and procedures), although there are other supporting factors such as formal human resource practices, service procedure design, and the organisational structure necessary to support multiple organisational relationships (Jin-Feng, Wu et al. 2012). Transformational leadership was found to be both directly and indirectly positively related to employee internal branding and brand-based behaviour in the Taiwanese private sector (Jin-Feng, Wu et al. 2012), where it helped to differentiate the organisation from other competitors and build long-term relationships with customers. Given increasing competition between government sectors, this is an important value even outside of the private sector, since governments are increasingly understanding their achievement and performance within their country in terms of competition, and, with the increasing competition faced by governmental organisations today, it is an important advantage in securing long-term success.

### **2.3.4 Transactional leadership dimensions**

Transactional leadership, which is often referred to as managerial leadership, has two main dimensions: contingent reward and management by exception (Burns 1978).

1. Contingent reward: transactional leaders provide rewards and positive reinforcements for a job well done.
2. Management by exception: transactional leaders maintain the situation and intervene when followers do not meet the specified performance outputs by taking certain corrective action.

Furthermore, a brand-specific transactional leader focuses on eliciting brand-building behaviour from their employees based on an exchange and reward system (Morhart et al. 2009). Brand-specific transactional leaders closely monitor their followers for any deviances from the organisational brand and take immediate action to realign their behaviour with brand values. Brand-specific transactional leaders reward and offer recognition to employees who behave in

alignment with the organisational brand. Additionally, because employees are also considered as customers, public sector organisations have to make an effort to retain them (Whelan, Davies et al. 2010), and reward systems are one mechanism that can achieve this.

### **2.3.5 Transactional leadership's limitations**

Although transactional leadership clearly defines the expectations and roles of followers, the failure of employees to follow the rules can result in negative consequences such as a reduction in pay, the absence of promotion or bonuses, or demotion. Transactional leadership is not strongly correlated with employees' motivation to work (Barbuto 2005) because it assumes that employees perform to get rewards and to avoid punishment. There is no obligation for the transactional leader to provide encouragement or praise to the followers. The rigidity of transactional leadership limits employee creativity because it cannot accept change, challenge, or participation in discussions (Burpitt 2009). When the employee makes a mistake or does not follow the rules outlined by the transactional leader, it is never the transactional leader's fault. Employees are always accountable and must face the consequences of their actions (Howell and Avolio 1993). Finally, there is an overreliance on the need for the transactional leader to 'always be watching' in order for the work to be done properly. The transactional leader does not empower the followers, so he or she must always be present to check, approve, and critique work (Burpitt 2009).

### **2.3.6 Transactional leadership outcomes**

Epitropaki and Martin (2005) found that transactional leadership was positively related to followers' ability to identify with their organisation's rules, expectations, norms, and values because transactional leaders provide contingent rewards and monitor follower performance for errors and deviation; such clarification allowed employees to better understand their role and performance expectations. Hetland et al. (2011), on the other hand, found that transactional leadership had a limited ability to satisfy the need of employees to relate to the organisation, with little focus on teams and social support. These variations in findings could be because of different definitions of transactional leadership, as some researchers view laissez-faire leadership as passive transactional leadership.

Other research studies found that when compared to transformational leadership, transactional leadership was not as strongly correlated with employee job satisfaction or performance (Awamleh, Evans et al. 2005). The role of the transactional leader can be redundant or

irrelevant when a large part of the task is highly standardised or routine (Awamleh, Evans et al. 2005). Transactional leadership had a weak effect on team behaviour and the speed of strategic decision-making (Gu, Weng et al. 2012). Transactional leadership focuses more on extrinsic motivation as a means of increasing productivity (Burpitt 2009). Transactional leadership is also negatively related to group ability for divergent thinking and brainstorming (Jung 2001).

### **2.3.7 Leadership and the fulfilment of followers' needs**

Both transactional and transformational leadership satisfy employees' basic needs, but they differ in their focus and degree. The following section examines these two types of leadership in the context of Maslow and self-determination theory (Gagne and Deci 2005). In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Gagne and Deci 2005), transactional leaders focus on the lower levels of satisfaction by focusing the followers' attention on certain tasks for performance, placing emphasis on process and output rather than the big picture. Rewards, such as praise, are given when the employee performs a task on time or before the allotted time, and punishment is given when the employee fails to meet the required performance. On these lower levels, transactional leaders are helping their employees with their basic work requirements (Lian and Tui 2012). The transactional leader limits the employee's input or effort towards job satisfaction and effectiveness (Bass 1990). On the other hand, transformational leaders focus on their followers' higher levels of satisfaction because they push them to strive beyond their expected performance.

In the context of the public sector, brand-specific transformational leaders motivate and challenge their followers to work in alignment with the values of their organisational brand, those of public service and providing benefit to the citizens and the community. This is a high level of ethics and morality when in congruence with the employee. It values self-actualisation, the ultimate level of feeling that one has when one achieves one's potential and maintains one's personal goals while being an integral part of developing and contributing to the community.

In the workplace, according to self-determination theory, employees have three needs: "the need for autonomy", "the need for competence" and "the need for relatedness".

Transformational leadership has an obvious propensity to satisfy and fulfil these needs. However, transactional leadership has also been found to be positively related to some of these



needs. Transformational leadership satisfies the need for autonomy, because transformational leaders give their followers individualised attention, offering them choice and using a participatory decision-making style (Hetland, Hetland et al. 2011).

Transformational leadership satisfies the need for competence, because leaders stimulate their followers intellectually and challenge them to solve problems and think critically. They also give them individualised attention, coaching, and mentoring to ensure that their employees develop their skills and reach their fullest potential (Hetland, Hetland et al. 2011). Transformational leadership satisfies the need for relatedness and belonging because transformational leaders are naturally charismatic and spend time working with teams in a supportive style (Hetland, Hetland et al. 2011).

Conversely, transactional leadership does not satisfy the needs outlined above. Transactional leaders are more concerned with controlling their followers' behaviours, motivating and rewarding them only if they behave in certain ways, and thus controlling the way that they think, work, and behave. Such leadership therefore does not satisfy the need for autonomy (Hetland, Hetland et al. 2011). These leadership behaviours also seem to be incompatible with the need for competence: the close-knit control that is exerted by transactional leadership makes it difficult for employees to make mistakes, grow, learn, and develop their competencies. Transactional leaders also provide less room for satisfying the need for relatedness, especially with more passive management types, where there is less focus on teams and social support (Hetland, Hetland et al. 2011).

### **2.3.8 New models of leadership**

The problem of the pseudo-transformational leader who does not adhere to an ethical code of conduct and has little concern for morality has already been noted in previous sections (Bass and Steidlmeier 1999). Moreover, the other limitations of transformational leadership have also been considered. This section briefly introduces a new model of transformational leadership. Konorti (2012) presented a new model of leadership after arguing that the current model does

not pay enough attention to leadership traits. He called his new model a 3D transformational leadership model. It builds on the three traits of wisdom, courage, and vision. He defined the traits thus: wisdom is acquired by knowledge and practice, courage by trial and error, and vision by studying the environment. Konorti (2012) described transformational leaders as ‘well-rounded and experienced individuals’ (p. 170). Furthermore, he argued that a leader who does not possess these traits is not likely to be successful. Konorti proposed that individuals who have none of these traits cannot become transformational leaders, and those who have only some of these traits must continually develop them and undergo continued education and ‘sharpening of the saw’.

In this research, the role of transformational leadership, and specifically that of departmental leaders, is investigated. These leaders have a critical role in mediating and transforming their employees’ understanding of the brand and thereby encouraging brand-supporting behaviour (De Chernatony and Vallaster 2006). But how does the role of leaders differ in the context of public sector organisations?

### **2.3.9 Leadership in the public sector**

Leadership is a crucial part of public sector administration, which is described as ‘doing the right things right in the service of society’ (Fairholm 2004). According to Van Wart (2003), in the last fifty years there have been only a handful of empirical studies on public administration leadership, and these, up until the last decade, focused exclusively on executive leadership. Some researchers argue that leadership in the public sector did not receive the deserved attention for three reasons (Van Wart 2003): first, because public sector organisations are highly technocratic, with an instrumental approach to leadership; second, because the added constraints and powerful controls over decisions in the public sector diminish the significance of the leader’s contributions; third, because researchers’ attention may be diverted to political leadership or other related topics rather than administrative leadership.

Yet, the introduction of transformation and charismatic leadership in the 1980s fuelled a greater interest in public sector leadership (Van Wart 2003). In 1996, the *International Journal of Public Administration* held a symposium prepared by Bernard Bass about transformational leadership, and in 2001, Rusaw presented the first overarching textbook that reviewed public

sector leadership (Van Wart 2003). The introduction of transformational leadership brought about a new focus on leadership as a means of promoting useful change (Van Wart 2003). Accordingly, 'transformational leadership has become one of the most prominent theories of organisational behaviour' ((Moynihan, Pandey et al.) 2009, p. 76).

Sanders (1998) described leadership in the government sector as the essential work of transformation. Behn (1998) argued that leadership in the public sector requires taking initiative, and motivating and inspiring people. It is important to note the vital role leaders have in adding meaning and value to the public organisation's goals and mission (Selznick 1983). In the public sector, researchers have examined the effect of transformational leaders on intrinsic motivation, particularly on public service motivation (PSM) (Moynihan, Pandey et al. 2009), which is defined as the motivation to serve the community, its citizens, and the nation. This idea can be applied to any individual, regardless of the sector (Rayner, Williams et al. 2011, Rayner 2011). Pandey et al. (2009) also found that transformational leaders engage and influence their followers by creating meaning in their jobs. Some have argued that a public ethos (which is described as the concept of public duty, the ethical ideals of serving the community, and the feeling of accountability, honesty, integrity, and motivation for public interest) depends a great deal on the effectiveness of its leaders and on the internalisation of these values and norms (Rayner, Williams et al. 2011, Rayner 2011).

Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang (2008) highlight the leader's role in New Public Management (NPM) as improving organisational administration by helping teams to identify with the organisational vision. Kachornkittiya et al. (2012) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership, goal perception, and motivation. They defined goal perception as 'the feelings and ideas of employees in perceiving the goals for public services of their organisations' (p. 80). Public service motivation was defined as employees' willingness and motivation to exert effort to reach the goals defined by the organisation, including their rational, norm-based, and affective motives. Data were collected from municipal employees in Thailand. Results showed that transformational leadership was positively related to employee motivation to work in the public sector and general commitment to the public interest, especially when the overall organisational goals were clear and understood by the municipal employees. Transformational leaders were found to involve employees in decisions and to define the goals of the organisation clearly, thus increasing employees' commitment to serving

citizens.

Furthermore, Brookes and Grint (2010) have argued for the relevance and importance of new public leadership compared to new public management. They reviewed a number of local government reform programmes and found a common set of characteristics, including putting meaning behind the government strategy and stronger engagement with local communities. As a result they called for a greater level of leadership instead of management to deliver public value. This increasing emphasis on leadership exists because the public sector faces challenges that require the promotion of interactions, interdepartmental coordination, and functional interdependencies (Brookes and Grint 2010).

Nohria and Khurana (2010) emphasised the importance of creating meaning, value, and purpose in an organisation. Their review of existing studies (e.g. Roethlisberger and Dixon 1939; Mayo 1960; Bernard 1968) indicated that successful organisations are those with members who perform in a coordinated fashion by ‘internalis[ing] a common purpose and perceive[ing] the connection between their actions and the organisation's ability to fulfil this common purpose’ (2010). A leader’s role is to create a shared and collective awareness of and confidence in the organisation’s purpose (Nohria and Khurana 2010). As a result, leaders are expected to create meaning. But how does creating meaning and infusing value into a public sector organisation’s goals result in behaviour and action?

In an investigation of government agencies in the Netherlands, Pieterse et al. (2009) compared how two types of leadership, transformational and transactional, resulted in behaviour. They argued that transactional leaders were successful at communicating what is expected of their employees in terms of job requirement (in-role task performance), and they monitored and measured results as they provided instructions. Transformational leaders in the government agency served as role models, sacrificing self-gain for collective gain, and thus motivating their employees to follow in their footsteps (idealised influence); they expressed their vision in a motivating manner (inspirational motivation); they encouraged their followers to question the status quo (intellectual motivation); and they provided support for employees’ individual developmental needs (individualised consideration) (Pieterse, Knippenberg et al. 2009).

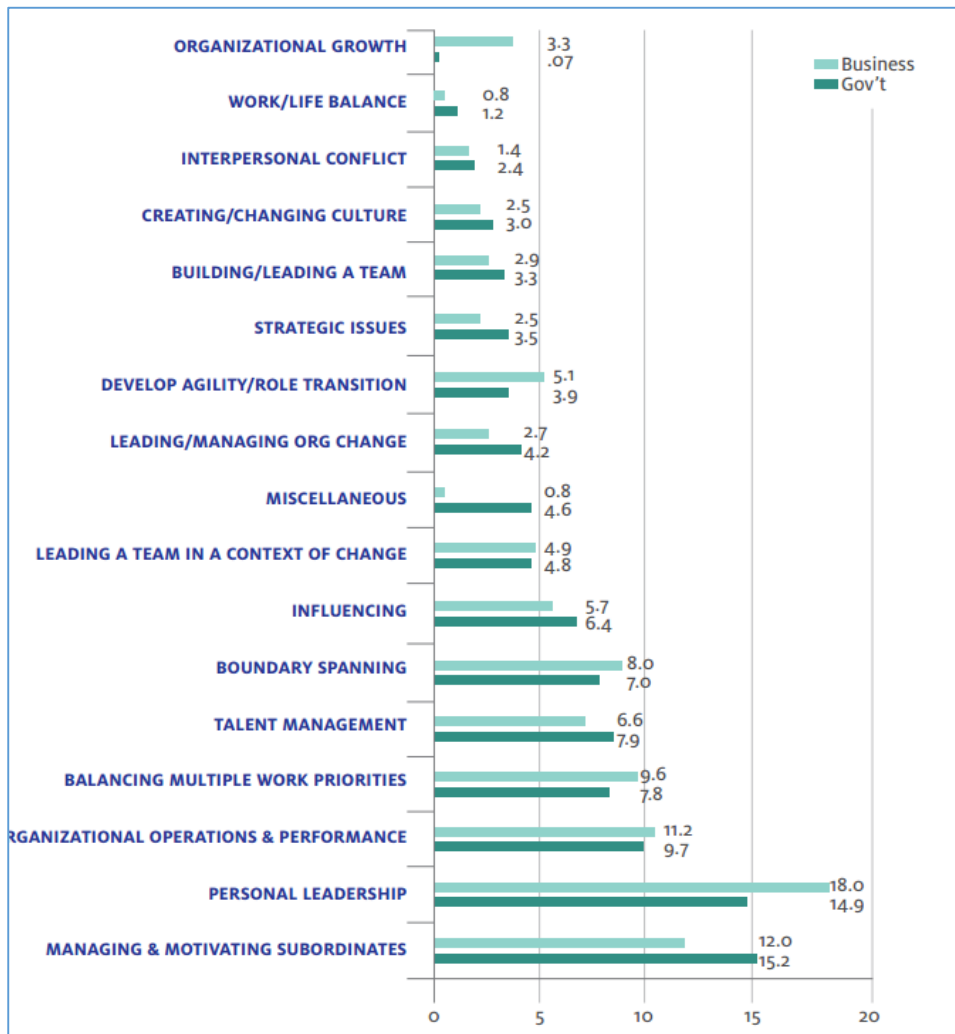
Moreover, as the main purpose of public sector organisations is to provide services to the community, transformational leaders increase the attractiveness of the organisation’s goals in

the eyes of its employees (Moynihan, Pandey et al. 2009). Pandey et al. (2009) state that transformational leaders motivate their followers to work towards a goal by being a role model and through intellectual stimulation, encouraging them to commit to the cause of the public organisation and not simply to its plan (Kouzes and Posner 2008). Transformational leaders transform their followers' behaviour and motivate them to behave differently. They do this by raising awareness of why the organisation's goals are important, thereby stimulating employees' higher order needs and moving them to surpass their own self-interest for that of the organisation (Bass and Riggio 2006, Wright and Pandey 2010).

Furthermore, in an investigation of the importance of transformational leadership compared to transactional leadership in a government setting, Trottier et al. (2008) found that federal workers ranked their leaders higher in transactional rather than transformation behaviours, because public sector leaders lacked in inspirational motivation, which is a key area of transformational leadership. This is perhaps due to the need for 'rule-based mentality' in the public sector (Howard 1994). They concluded that transformational leadership would clearly be more successful in the public sector in the form of 'mission articulation, vision, and inspirational motivation'.

However, a later study by Pandey and Wright (2009) found that public organisations evidence higher levels of transformational leadership than the private sector. They also showed that public sector organisations are not always highly bureaucratic and, more interestingly, although many public organisations experience added constraints from external authorities, Pandey and Wright found that the effects of transformational leadership may not be affected by such external controls. This may be because employees understand such constraints and are motivated to serve despite such challenges due to their intrinsic motivation, which is increased by the role of transformational leaders (Jung, Chow and Wu, 2003). Pandey and Wright (2009) suggest that transformational leaders in the public sector align the commitment of their followers to that of the organisation by meeting three conditions: by motivating their inspiration to an appealing organisational mission, by assisting and encouraging them to work towards that mission by being a role model, and by intellectually challenging them in order to transform their old assumptions and align them with the message of the organisation.

Figure 10 illustrates some of these leadership challenges:



**Figure 10: Comparison of leadership challenges in the private and public sectors, adapted from (Ferguson, Ronayne et al. 2014)**

As we can see from figure 10, government or public sector organisations do not experience vast amounts of organisational growth; compared to the private sector, things do not change so radically. The government sector also allows employees a better chance to achieve work-life balance. This may be because business and private institutions have longer working hours, strict deadlines, and performance-based pay that add pressure and stress to employees. Leaders also believe that building and leading teams in the government sector is more challenging than in the private sector. This may be because public sector leaders do not have as wide an array of options when it comes to selecting or hiring their teams as business leaders. Public sector leaders also face more political and strategic issues; this may be because government strategic plans are interlinked, and one government authority's strategic plan may be linked to another government sector, the objectives of which are derived from a national level plan, which can

itself be influenced by international forces and other influential countries. One of the key differences is the struggle of public sector leaders to motivate their subordinates. As we will see later in this research, public sector leaders often feel powerless and as if they have few tools with which to motivate their employees. Lastly, figure 10 shows that government sector leaders face more challenges in managing change.

According to Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) and Yukl and Tracey (1992), influence occurs when an agent of change or a transformational leader is able to alter followers' perceptions by getting them see the benefit of organisational values. It would be expected that transformational leaders would have a better chance to achieve sustainable change because they use softer and more personal tactics to change their followers' attitudes, while transactional leaders command their followers to behave in a certain way (Lian et al. 2012). Transformational leaders get to know their followers in person and use consultation tactics to help them critically think and plan for their activities. They work to align the followers' personal value systems with that of the organisation. In the public sector setting this involves putting the organisation's public service goals ahead of followers' individual goals (Lian et al. 2012). On the other hand, transactional leaders use exchange tactics and exert pressure to ensure the compliance of their followers. Transactional leaders therefore punish or reward followers based on their behavioural alignment with organisational goals, ensuring that they comply with the mandated policies and procedures of the public sector organisation.

### **2.3.10 The effect of national culture and gender on leadership**

#### ***2.3.10.1 The effect of national culture and its effect on leadership***

Research studies investigating transformational leadership are more common in western countries. Some argue that transformational leadership is less successful in under-developed and developing countries. However, there are some positive findings on the prevalence and success of transformational leadership in non-western countries. In the following section, some studies of transformational and transactional leadership in different cultures are reviewed.

(House, Wright et al. 1997, 2001) argued that leadership concepts cannot be universally applied in different cultural settings due to differences in uncertainty avoidance, power distance, societal collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane orientation. For example, the results of the GLOBE leadership study showed that, compared to the United States, Middle Eastern countries were less performance-oriented and had fewer participatory relationships between leaders and followers. Although there were some universal traits that all countries agreed were necessary in leaders, such as trustworthiness, honesty, and decisiveness, House et al. (1997) called for caution in applying leadership styles across different contexts or cultures.

A research conducted in Pakistan found that transformational leadership was positively linked to organisational culture and innovation propensity (Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012). Researchers such as Hofstede argued that in cultures like that of Pakistan there is a greater difference in power between leaders and followers, and followers accept that leaders react firmly and strongly, thus assuming that a transformational leadership style would not be appropriate in such a context (Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012). However, the results were contrary to this: transformational leadership was found to be positively related to organisational performance, organisational culture, and innovation propensity.

Another research of Pakistan, by Chaudry and Javed (2012), found that transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles were related to employee motivation. However, their research instrument only included transactional and laissez-faire dimensions, and did not investigate transformational leadership; if they had included it, they could have found stronger links between motivation and transformational leadership.

This may cause doubts as to whether transformational leadership exists in developing or underdeveloped countries. Researchers who have investigated leadership styles in the Arab world, such as Nafei, Khanfar, and Kaifi (2012), who conducted a research study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, have found that both transactional and transformational leadership existed in the region's organisations. They also found that transformational leadership was related to increased organisational learning. Additionally, a study conducted in the public sector in the United Arab Emirates found that, although transformational leadership was favoured by public sector employees, its impact was not as significant as it is in western cultures (Abdalla 2010).



In this research, results will highlight the importance of context for the success of a leadership strategy, and how one style can work better in one context and another style can be successful in another context.

### *2.3.10.2 Gender differences in leadership*

Some recent literature has examined the gender differences in leadership styles. For example, meta-analyses have evidenced the idea that female leaders exhibit slightly more transformational leadership styles than their male counterparts (Rowold 2011). Rowold (2011) examined different leadership models in the context of mixed-gender work teams and found that transformational leadership was best suited for work teams that consisted of both male and female workers. He concluded that transformational leaders are better able to inspire a vision based on values that are suitable for both men and women. The focus of brandbased transformational leaders is on conveying the organisation's overall brand values beyond personal gain. Similarly, Brand Based Transformational Leadership in the public sector takes followers beyond the goals of the organisation to aiming to help to serve the citizens of the community and the nation as a whole. Additionally, Rowold (2011) found that homogeneous work teams using laissez-faire leadership styles had results that were positively correlated with performance because those teams took initiative themselves and compensated for the absence of a leader. When this research was first started, there were only male employees in the Riyadh Municipality, but during its progress – specifically after the author conducted the interviews (preliminary qualitative research stage) – the Municipality launched a reform act and opened a new female-only section of the public sector to encourage the female workforce. However, there were no female managers appointed at that time. In December 2015, 20 women were elected to the Municipal council, bringing groundbreaking change and development to the country. These issues are discussed further in the research limitations and recommendations are made for researchers to consider these issues for future research.

## **2.4 Chapter summary**

This chapter reviewed and presented the evolution of leadership theories. An array of leadership theories were discussed, along with their strengths and limitations. The strengths of transformational and transactional leadership and why these theories were chosen for this research were then discussed. The literature on leadership in the public sector was briefly

reviewed, highlighting the different challenges faced by leaders in the public and private sectors. The chapter also reviewed the advantages and disadvantages of transformational and transactional leadership. The positive effects of transformational leadership in the public sector were highlighted. Although transformational leadership appears to yield benefits in the public sector, results to date have varied across different cultures. Issues with leadership in different cultural backgrounds were addressed, and the reasons why this research does not encompass women's leadership were described.

The next chapter discusses the tools that leaders can use to enhance public sector performance. What can public sector leaders do to increase competition in the public sector? How can public sector leaders enhance the motivation of their employees? What are the most effective ways to transform the behaviours and deep underlying beliefs of the employees in order to increase their loyalty and task achievement and to encourage them to go beyond the daily requirements of the job by spreading positive word of mouth about the organisation, putting in extra hours, and encouraging others to join the organisation? We now turn our attention to the literature on internal branding.

-- Chapter Three --  
Internal Branding

### **3. Chapter 3: Internal branding**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Internal branding is a key strategic function for an organisation that seeks to align the behaviours and attitudes of employees with its brand values (Gotsi and Wilson 2001). Internal brand building is achieved through collaboration between the marketing department, human resources, and strategic planning; the focus is on creating customer (or citizen) satisfaction and loyalty by fully engaging employees in order to create the best experience and highest performance, reflecting the organisation's brand promise. (Whelan, Davies et al. 2010) found that, when front line employees of public sector organisations become brand ambassadors, they have a higher chance of influencing the perception of the brand in the minds of the citizens, and it is more likely that citizens will have a positive experience and interaction with the public sector organisation.

The chapter starts by defining the concept of the brand and discussing its dimensions. It then reviews the literature on internal branding. Finally, the literature on internal branding in the public sector is discussed. Section 3.2 starts by defining what a brand is. The evolution of the definition of a brand is presented in this section. The brand system is presented and which management functions need to be involved in the branding process. Additionally, in order to gain a deeper understanding of a brand, section 3.3 provides a comparison between the product and the organisational brand. Section 3.4 discusses the dimensions of branding, and Section 3.5 provides an in-depth understanding of successful brand management, bringing employee branding to the forefront of the branding process.

At the end of this section, internal branding is presented as a subset of employee branding. Section 3.6 is dedicated to internal branding, discussing relevant studies on internal branding and the key factors of internal branding success. Section 3.7 discusses the more recent concept of internal branding in the public sector and presents some of the conflicting beliefs about the potential success of internal branding in the public sector. Section 3.8 presents the summary of the chapter.

### **3.2 Definitions of a brand**

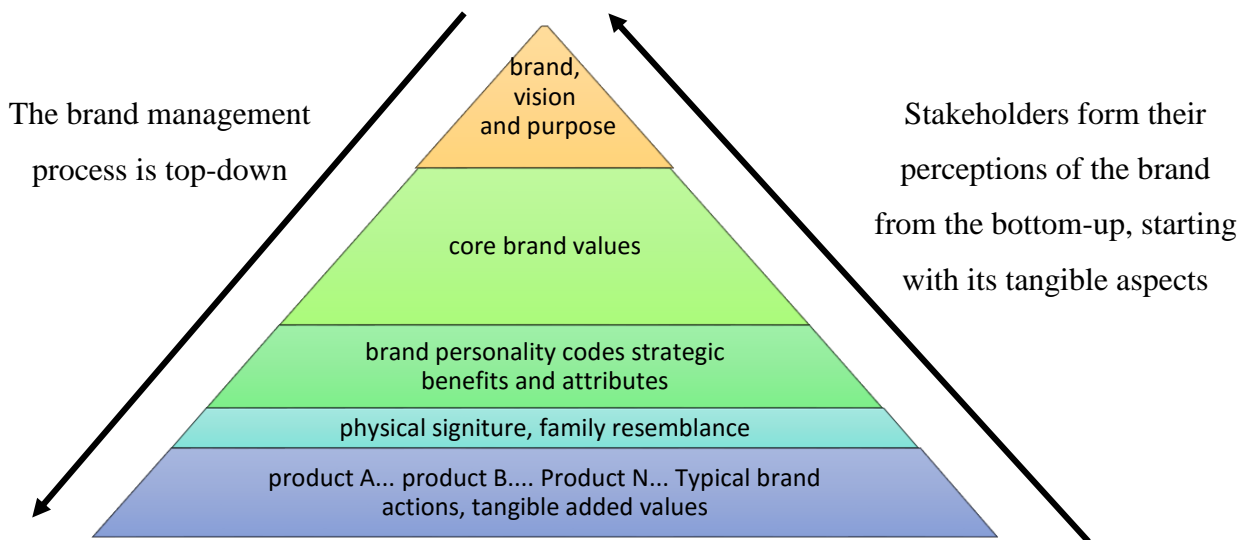
Definitions of a brand in the literature have evolved (see table 7 below). A brand can be described as the perception held by every stakeholder from inside or outside the organisation of the organisation's products, services, people, and all its other tangible and intangible elements (Kotler et al. 2010). Polonsky and Jevons (2006) stated that stakeholders evaluate the organisation's performance based on the strength of the brand. Although there are some similarities, an organisation's brand is not the same as its reputation, in that a brand is unique, while reputational characteristics may be similar between organisations (Bergstrom, Blumenthal et al. 2002). A brand is everywhere: from packaging, invoicing and walls, to employees and stakeholders, everyone and everything in the organisation contributes to building the brand, knowingly or unknowingly (Bergstrom, Blumenthal et al. 2002). Branding is therefore the responsibility of everyone in the organisation (Davis 2009). Schroeder (2009) widened the definition of a brand to include corporate culture, strategy, and values, arguing that 'brands exist as cultural, ideological, and sociological objects' and that 'understanding brands requires tools developed to understand culture, ideology, and society, in conjunction with more typical branding concepts, such as brand equity, strategy, and value' (Schroeder 2009).

| <b>The evolution of brand definitions</b>   |   |
|---|---|
| <b>Contemporary brand definitions</b>   |   |
| A brand is a cluster of functional and emotional values. A brand communicates the personality and culture of the organisation and is positioned in the minds of the stakeholders to show the core competencies of the organisation. A brand is the symbol, name, packaging, and advertising of an organisation. 'A promise about a unique and welcomed experience'. | (De Chernatony 2010)                              |
| The brand as a promise, the totality of perceptions.  | (e.g.(Kotler, Pfoertsch et al. 2010)              |
| Brands are the entire organisation as seen through the eyes of the stakeholders, which includes employees, customers, partners, shareholders, and social communities, making the brand the responsibility of every person in the organisation.  | (Davis 2009)                                      |
| A brand is an organisation's attempt to tell its story. It is important because it suggests a promise to meet consumer expectations   | ((Judson, Aurand et al. 2009)                     |
| <b>Uniqueness and Competitive Advantage</b>   |   |
| A brand is an organisation's name, symbol, terms, and design that distinguish its goods or services from its competitors.   | (Kotler 1991)                                     |
| Successful brands require a useful and valuable product, a unique identity, and added value, with differentiation being key to a successful brand.  | (Doyle 2001, Aaker 2003)                          |
| A brand is some combination of a name, symbol, and design that identifies the 'product' of a particular organisation as having a sustainable competitive advantage.   | ((Doyle 1989)                                     |
| <b>Intangible Elements</b>  |   |
| Service and customer relationships, symbolic values, social and personal values, brand communication, relevance, advantage, bond, and culture.  | (de Chernatony and Riley 1998)                    |
| Synthesis of all these elements.  | (Hart and Murphy 1998)                            |
| A multi-dimensional construct aligning organisational values with consumers' emotional and rational needs.  | (de Chernatony and Riley 1998)                    |
| The brand encompasses emotional rational elements.  | (LePla and Parker 2002) (Balmer and Greyser 2003) |
| <b>Tangible and Visual Elements</b>   |   |
| A brand is the distinct name, logo, colours, and advertising slogan.  | (e.g. Bailey and Schechter 1994)                  |
| Functionality.  | (e.g. de Chernatony and McWilliam 1989),          |
| Symbol and slogan.  | (e.g. Aaker 1992)                                 |

**Table 7: The evolution of brand definitions**

Although the functional aspects of a product or service contribute to the value of a brand, it is

the emotional affinity and identification with a brand that stakeholders feel that leads to sustainable competitive advantage (Bergstrom, Blumenthal et al. 2002). As explained by Kapferer (2008), stakeholders form their perception of the brand first by starting with the tangible aspects of the brand (see figure 11).



**Figure 11: The brand system (Kapferer 2008)**

Kapferer (2008) compares brands to a pyramid, stating that at the top of this system stand the brand's vision, purpose, and core values. Below is the brand's style of communication, which reflects the brand's unique character. On the bottom level lie the tangible aspects of the brand, which Kapferer (2008) argues are often the starting point of stakeholders' formation of brand perception. Kapferer's (2008) brand system suggests several important ideas. First, it suggests that brands have their own distinct identities. Second, that stakeholders, including employees, start by forming their perception based on the tangible aspects of the brand and then, depending on the brand's strength, create distinctive and solid emotional bonds with the organisational brand, which in turn leads to their loyalty and helps them to internalise behaviour and attitudes which eventually become instinctive (Bergstrom, Blumenthal et al. 2002).

It is important to note that branding is not just the responsibility of the marketing department. It involves several management functions, including HR, strategic management, employee relations, internal and corporate communication, marketing, and others (Finney and

Scherrebeck-Hansen 2010) (see figure 12).



**Figure 12: Management functions involved in the branding process**

### 3.3 Product versus corporate/organisational brands

There is a difference between organisational brands and product brands. An organisational brand is a bigger umbrella, an entity that should have the sustainable competitive advantage (Balmer and Gray 2003). An organisational brand can also be thought of as an organisation's reputation (Argenti and Druckenmiller 2004), while the product brand is that of the specific product that is produced or owned by an organisation. For example, Proctor & Gamble (organisation) make several personal care items (products): while the organisation has its own overall encompassing brand, its products can each have their own individual brands, reputations, symbols, and advertising slogans, without needing to mention the organisation except on their labels.

Table 8 provides a brief comparison between organisational and product brands:



| <b>Comparison between corporate and organisational brands</b>  |  |
|--|--|
| <b>Organisational brand</b>  | <b>Product brand</b>   |
| Plays a more prominent role in the brand portfolio (the master brand) (Aaker 2004) and it is more internally focused (Uggla 2006).   | Has a more external and less strategic focus than the organisational brand (Uggla 2006).   |
| Can have several roles to play within the organisation (Aaker 2004) and involves all of the stakeholders (Uggla 2006).   | Has a specific set of fundamental values that define the brand (Uggla 2006).   |
| Organisational brands act as the global standard that is defined primarily by top management of that specific organisation, which is used to measure the actions of both the employee and the employer (Balmer and Gray 2003).   | Product brands can be restricted to marketing and middle management and focus more on the consumer (Uggla 2006).   |
| Focuses on creating synergy between product brands, clarity, and leverage (Aaker 2004).  | Product brands can be individualised and specific (such as Doritos or Ruffles), or can belong to a brand family (Panasonic and the Mitsubishi corporation) (Uggla 2006).   |
| Provides credibility and reassurance for the product because of its rich history, heritage, values, and performance over the years (Aaker 2004).<br>The organisational brand can convey a message to the public that is different to that of the product brand (Aaker 2004). | Relying on a psychodynamic metaphor, if the product brand promises something that may seem unreasonable or exaggerated, then the corporate brand can balance these claims based on values and the trust that it has established through other products (Uggla 2006). |

**Table 8: Comparison between corporate and organisational brands**

This thesis focuses on internal branding within the organisational brand, rather than on specific product or service brands. The following section deconstructs the different dimensions of the organisational (often also referred to as corporate) brand.

### **3.4 Dimensions of branding**

De Chernatony and Riley (2001) described the dimensions of the brand as including a variety of things: the legal instrument, the logo, the organisation's name, the brand image, the brand value system (the values which both the customers and the brand share), the brand personality (psychological values which are communicated through marketing), the brand relationship, the brand value, and the evolving nature and changes that the brand goes through as it develops. De Chernatony also described a model for defining the components of a brand, called the 'double vortex model' (de Chernatony and Riley 1998). This incorporates the elements of the

brand that are related to the organisation (stakeholder values, brand vision, mission, corporate culture, and heritage) and those that are related to customers' perceptions (the emotional and psychological match between the customer and brand, the customer's confidence in the brand, the brand performance). Moreover, in order to create a successful, effective, and impactful brand, organisational branding requires a holistic approach to brand management. The next section reviews the key components of brand management.

### **3.5 Brand management**

As stated in the previous section, as we move from the product (or service) branding to the overall organisational brand, more focus is required within the organisation itself, which must coordinate its activities in order to ensure cohesion with the delivery of the line (product or service) brands (de Chernatony and Riley 1998, de Chernatony and Harris 2001). Therefore, before we investigate internal branding, it is important to understand the different components involved in the brand management process (Clifton 2009).

#### **3.5.1 Brand vision and culture**

The brand vision is what the organisation hopes that the brand will become and encompasses the core values that explain why the organisation exists (de Chernatony and Harris 2001). The main essence of the brand identity is the brand vision, although its culture (the values and assumptions which guide the behaviour of employees) is also important (de Chernatony and Harris 2001). The leaders of the organisation need to communicate the vision to the employees clearly, be attuned to the organisational culture, and ensure that it is consistent with the organisation's brand vision.

In the case of the public sector, a brand vision must ensure that the vision is of value to all of the stakeholders, including citizens, employees, the community, and the government. Citizens expect their issues to be dealt with efficiently and fairly, employees expect a productive and rewarding work environment, the community expects that the organisation will meet its needs, and the government expects the organisation to conduct the required service and support and collaborate with other public sector organisations (Kayode 2011).

#### **3.5.2 Brand positioning**

Each organisation has its strength competencies; the organisational brand brings these competencies to an external audience through positioning (De Chernatony 2010). Brand

positioning relates to the brand's distinct capabilities, which differentiate it from its competitors (de Chernatony and Harris 2001). Clifton (2009) described brand positioning as what makes an organisation credible and relevant and stretches the boundaries of the organisation to differentiate it from its competitors: brand positioning is 'owning a territory in people's minds and the marketplace' (p. 74). In relation to the public sector, brand positioning can be described as how the organisation wants citizens to perceive its service relative to those of its competition (Kayode 2011). Although one might think that competition occurs exclusively for the private sector, public sector organisations often also compete with government funds (Goldsmith and Eggers 2004). Sometimes projects and initiatives are duplicated and there is little sharing of information due to the competition between competing entities. This is especially true in developing countries where the scope of service is vague and transparency of information is scarce (LaPalombara 2001).

### **3.5.3 Brand personality**

The brand's personality portrays the brand's emotional characteristics (de Chernatony and Harris 2001). These are conveyed to customers through customer-employee interactions and external communications and marketing. The brand personality can make the brand more memorable and interesting to customers (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009). Brand personality can also be useful to an organisation in other ways, such as helping to extract feelings of youthfulness and energy (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009).

### **3.5.4 Brand reputation**

The brand's reputation is the representations of the brand over time and its ability to deliver the results that it promises to the customers over time (de Chernatony and Harris 2001). De Chernatony and Harris (2001) argue that it is vital for stakeholders to be familiar with the brand reputation, and try to minimise the gap between brand identity and brand reputation because this gap effects the brand performance.

### **3.5.5 Brand identity**

In contrast to the brand reputation or image (which is the current state of the brand), brand identity is what the organisation aspires to achieve and maintain (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009). These aspirations are the promise that the organisation makes to its customers. There have been different models for brand planning and management, one of which is illustrated in figure 13 (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009). In their model, Aaker and Joachimsthaler

encourage organisations to think about their brand as a product (or service), as an organisation, as a person, and finally as a symbol. Although all four of these perspectives may not be necessary for the organisation, they help it to think deeply about the brand and to articulate what the brand should stand for (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009).

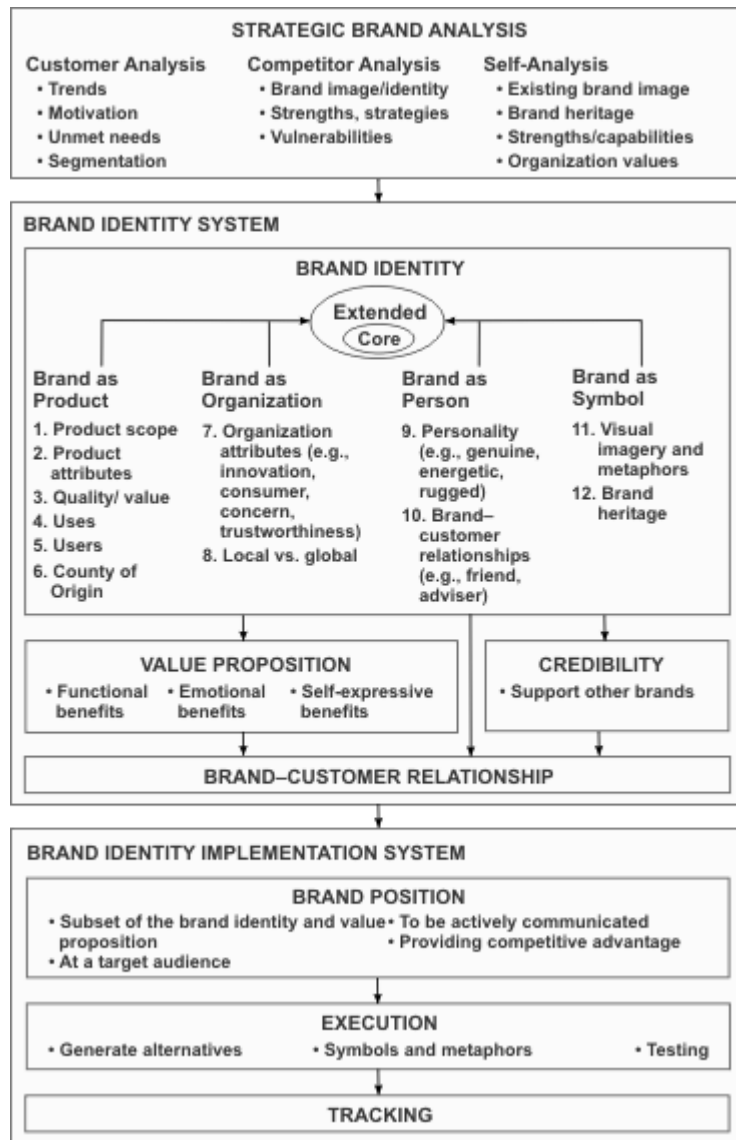
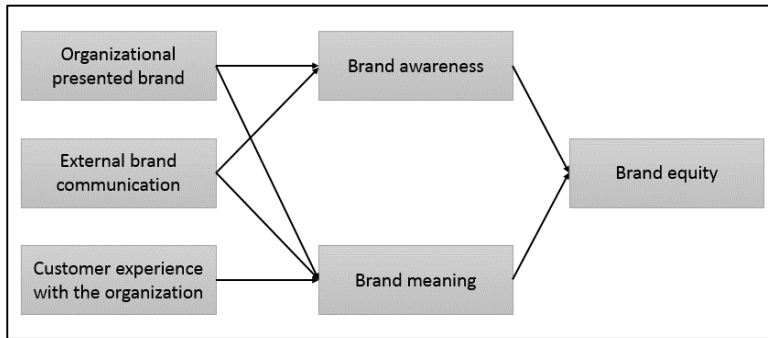


Figure 13: Brand identity planning model (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009)

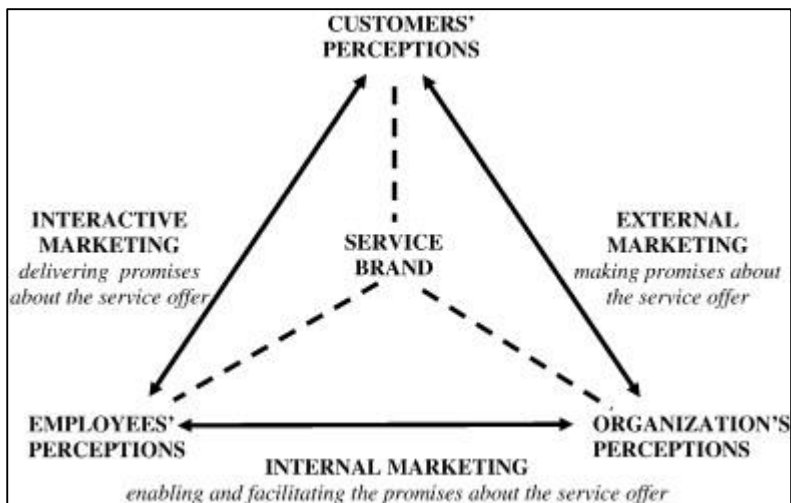
When looking at brand identity in the service sector, there is a greater focus on customer service, the interaction between employees and customers, and the behaviour of employees in alignment with the brand (Berry 2000). Berry (2000) presented a brand identity model for the service sector (see figure 14) that differs from that presented by Aaker. Berry argued that service organisations are affected by customers' views about the service and customers' word

of mouth; they must, therefore, perform their service well and affect their customers emotionally (2000). Rather than focusing on the product, service branding focuses greatly on the organisation and on creating brand equity (Berry 2000).



**Figure 14: Service branding model (Berry 2000)**

Another model emphasising the difference between service brands is that of Brodie et al. (2009). This model also emphasised customers' perceptions, yet adds another dimension which was not emphasised by Berry or Aaker and Joachimsthaler – employees' perceptions (see figure 15). Brodie et al. argued that service brands are about employees, and that a strong positive brand equity leads to brand loyalty (Elliott, Elliott et al. 2007).



**Figure 15: Service brands (Brodie et al. 2009)**

Once created, the brand identity has an important role in guiding internal communication and the internal branding efforts of the organisation (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009). De Chernatony and Harris (2001) argued that the creation of an organisation brand depends greatly on the success of internal mechanisms, on the way in which employees behave, and on how

they deliver the brand message to external customers (De Chernatony 2010). Therefore, the next section discusses the impact of internal branding on employee behaviour, and thus on the performance of the organisation.

Continuing the argument of De Chernatony and Harris, who stated that building a strong organisational brand depends on the success of internal mechanisms, we will begin by examining some of these internal success factors that are related to the organisational brand, starting with employer branding and employee branding.

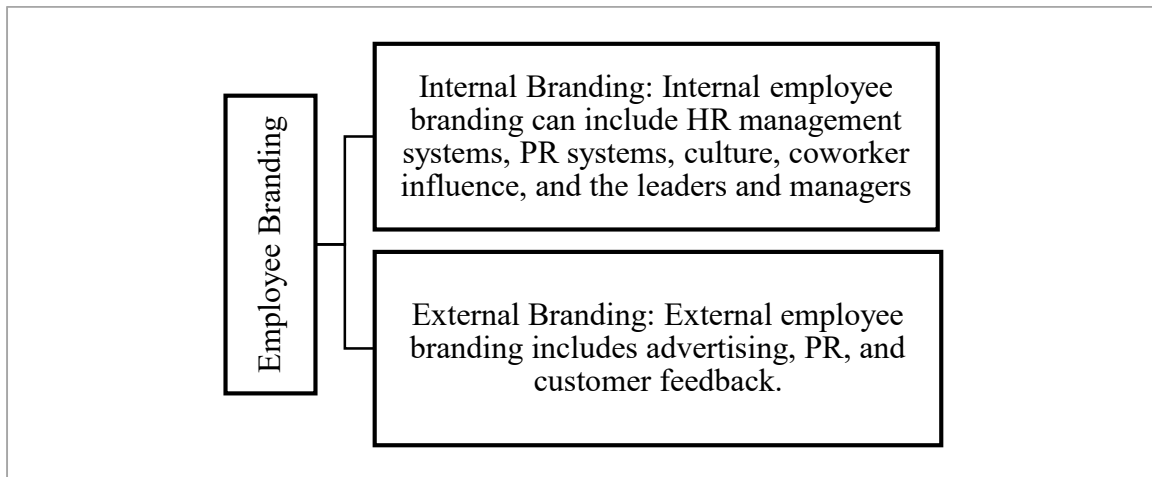
Employer branding is the act of promoting and elevating the reputation of the organisation as the company of choice for employees, which is useful when attracting and maintaining employees.

Employee branding is the act of shaping employees' behaviour so that they project and act in accordance with the organisational core message. Employee branding strategies are aimed at encouraging employees to identify with the organisational brand through a psychological connection (Harquail 2007). Some of the benefits of employee branding (including both internal and external employee branding) are: enhancing the position of the organisation in the customers' minds, decreasing turnover, increasing employee satisfaction, increasing customer loyalty, and enhancing the overall reputation of the organisation (Miles and Mangold 2004).

The employee should be able to project himself or herself as an organisational brand ambassador. Employee branding is considered part of the organisation's image. It involves the reputation of the organisation and how it is embodied in the actions of the employees towards customers and clients. Employee branding can also be used to attract employees, increase retention, and improve the company's image within the eyes of its employees (Muthupandian unknown). Employee branding is for the purposes of recruiting and sustaining employees that match the organisation's vision, and then strengthening the relationship with them through a psychological contract with the organisation by transforming their behaviour so that it matches the organisation's values so that their behaviour enhances the reputation of the company (Miles and Mangold 2004).

Miles and Mangold (2004) have also argued that employee branding is the act of creating a psychological contract with the employees and the organisation, and that there are several sources and strategies through which the organisation can deliver messages to the employee to

establish this psychological contract; internal branding is one of these strategies. Employee branding is defined as 'The process which employees internalize the desired brand image and are motivated to project the image to customers and other organizational constituents.' (Miles and Mangold 2004, p. 68). The psychological contract is defined as an employee's personal understanding of the promises and reciprocal exchanges between him or her and the organisation (Miles and Mangold 2004). This psychological contract is seen as vital for the success of the employee branding process.



**Figure 16: Sources, modes, and messages for employee branding, internal and external, adapted from Miles and Mangold (2004)**

Some researchers, such as Miles and Mangold, have differentiated employee branding and internal branding (see figure 16); other researchers, such as Semnani and Fard (2014), use these terms interchangeably. Table 9 further illustrates the difference between internal branding and organisational branding.

For the purposes of this research, internal branding is considered as a subset of employee branding. The next section further investigates the internal branding process and its components and success factors.

| Employee branding versus organisational branding |                                |                                 |
|--|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
|  | Employee branding              | Organisational branding         |
| <b>Internal</b>                                  | Internal employee branding can | Culture within the organisation |

|                 |   |  |
|-----------------|---|--|
|                 | include HR management systems, PR systems, culture, co-worker influence, and the leaders and managers | <p>How the organisation will behave in a particular way in order to achieve the performance that it needs.</p> <p>Internal communication</p> <p>Touch points to create engaged employees</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1- Raise awareness – change perception</li> <li>2- Securing buy-in – behaviour modification – done mostly by leaders – driven from the top and cascaded down to the front line that is ultimately the point of contact with customers</li> </ol> <p>Consistency for the customer to have the same experience.</p> <p>You want the organisational experience every time.</p> <p>The majority of the organisations have universal values; these have to be customised through brand-based behaviour that is unique to that organisation.</p> |
| <b>External</b> | External employee branding includes advertising, PR, and customer feedback.                           | External marketing and advertising to increase awareness   |

**Table 9: Employee branding versus organisational branding**

### 3.6 Internal Branding

Internal branding can be focused on employees but also on pulling together the entire organisational strategy to streamline communications with all stakeholders, not only employees. It involves leader buy-in, employee buy-in, and customer experience. It is broader than internal communications and is focused on enhancing awareness, loyalty, and a shared mission and culture, highlighting the importance of a continuous process, and also emphasising the role of employees (Semnani and Fard 2014).

Internal branding involves a set of strategic processes that need to be coordinated and implemented methodologically if successful results are to be achieved and a positive experience is to be created for clients and customers (Semnani and Fard 2014). Internal branding involves both the human resources department and the strategic planning departments in creating and achieving a deeper understanding of the brand and the role that it wants employees to play within the organisation and when dealing with the customers.

Internal branding starts with recruitment: the organisation needs to find employees with the right values and attitudes. The organisation must make clear what it is and how it sees



employees contributing. The organisation needs to incentivise employees to ‘buy into’ the company. Internal branding talks to the employee’s heart.

When this is achieved, the organisation is one step closer to having a powerful brand. Powerful brands come to life with the help of the people who deliver them (Mitchell 2002). Although the focus of many organisations is on shaping customers’ perceptions of the organisation externally, successful brands start by shaping perceptions internally and building a relationship with employees through internal branding (Grace and King 2008). Libby Sartain, a senior vice president of HR at Yahoo!, supported internal branding by arguing that ‘employees make or break the company’s brand, and ultimately, the company’s results’ (Sartain 2005, p. 89). Elliot et al. (2007) believed that brand equity is created through touchpoints – the different ways in which the customer interacts with the brand that make an impression on stakeholders.

Internal branding is an important tool for creating powerful organisational brands (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007) because the success of an organisation’s brand relies on the attitudes and behaviours of employees who deliver the brand promise to the external stakeholders. Elliot et al. (2007) argued that employee behaviour is the most influential factor in shaping customer perception of service brands. Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) maintained that understanding and orchestrating employees, especially front line employees who are in direct contact with the customer, will help their behaviour to be better aligned with the organisation’s brand values. This process of internal branding is defined as ‘the set of strategic processes that align and empower employees to deliver the appropriate customer experience in a consistent fashion’ (Groom, McQuillan et al. 2008). Scheys and Baert (2007) described internal branding as the process of enabling the employees to know, believe, and act upon the values of the organisation’s brand.

Internal branding aims to achieve consistency in the delivery of the brand promise by encouraging employees to become brand champions, reflecting the values and the essence of the brand both internally and externally to customers and other stakeholders (Mahnert and Torres 2007). Brand champions are the employees who are ‘stars’ or true representatives of the brand when they live as role models of the brand. However, brand based leaders are those leaders who take it upon themselves to influence and enhance internal branding. Gotsi and Wilson (2001) argued that employees who ‘live the brand’ (or brand champions) can enhance an organisation’s brand and corporate reputation, thereby enhancing its financial value,

influencing customers' intentions to buy, acting as a mechanism for assuring product and service quality, influencing customer and employee loyalty, and making the organisation inimitable. Leaders aim to encourage employees to behave as brand champions.

It is important to remember that an organisation's brand essence has its own personality, character, attitudes, motivations, and emotions, and that it is the employees who personify and represent this brand essence to customers and the general public through their attitudes and behaviours during customer interactions (Mahnert and Torres 2007). Internal branding can therefore be a competence (Scheys and Baert (2007). It fuels the customers' perceptions of the brand and corporate reputation, but it also transforms the behaviour of the employees so that it is aligned with the brand values, which leads to better performance (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007). As customers do not usually make a distinction between the organisation as a whole and the person delivering them the service (Scheys and Baert 2007), internal branding enhances reputation, perception, stakeholder loyalty (Bergstrom, Blumenthal et al. 2002), and organisation inimitability, and creates brand equity (Gotsi and Wilson (2001). Internal branding increases the effective use of organisational resources because it orchestrates multi-departmental efforts towards a shared organisational goal (Mahnert and Torres 2007). It is an implementation of the organisational strategy and a vital tool that aligns internal behaviours and attitudes with external branding, adding to organisational brand strength.

This thesis examines the role of brand based leadership in the internal branding process, so this section now examines the different factors that affect internal branding and support leadership roles. Mahnert and Torres (2007) found that there are several factors that affect the success or failure of internal branding, including education, staff support and reward systems, organisational strategy, communication clarity and consistency, market research, organisational structure, leadership, brand identification, and commitment. Figure 17 displays those factors by categorising them into two sections: factors under the control of the organisation, and factors that involve employees' interpretation. The categorisation of these factors was based on the works of De Chernatony and Cottam (2006), who stated that when the brand is codified and staff brand training takes place it is under the corporation's control. The second stage, however, includes employees' interpretations of the brand, where employees internalise the brand, begin to interpret it, and begin to behave according to the brand ethos.



**Figure 17: Factors under employee and corporate control that affect the success of internal branding, based on Manhart and Torres (2007) and De Chernatony and Cottam (2006)**

Indeed, internal branding is increasingly described as a process of transformation. Punjaisri and Wilson (2007), for instance, found that through the successful implementation of internal branding, an organisation can transform the behaviours and attitudes of its employees so that they are in better alignment with the brand. Similarly, Kapferer (2008) argued that internal branding transforms the brand's essence into effective behaviours and attitudes. Ind and Bjerke (2007) also defined branding as a process of transformation because it changes products and services into something that are perceived by stakeholders to be adding value and meeting their emotional and functional needs and wants.

To achieve this, scholars increasingly argue that transformational leadership is a prerequisite (Jin-Feng, Wu et al. 2012). Providing customers with a consistent and coherent brand image depends primarily on the ability of employees to reflect on the values of the brand and then apply those behaviours when serving clients (Miles and Mangold 2004). Creating this link is challenging and can be fostered by a brand-based transformational leader (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009). Especially in the service industry, employees need to acknowledge, accept, and internalise brand values and create a psychological attachment to the organisation (Jin-Feng, Wu et al. 2012). Whenever employees act by serving clients, they are doing so on the basis of (or lack thereof) their deep commitment to the organisation, and this emotional attachment and acceptance is transmitted to the customers, who can sense the employees' loyalty. For example, if the organisational brand values are to be courteous, helpful, sincere, positive, and innovative, then customer-facing employees should listen to an inquiry or complaint, offer support, suggest

solutions, and act quickly and efficiently to serve the customer. The customer is then not only satisfied with the result but also appreciative of the way the enquiry or complaint was handled and starts to build a positive perception of the organisation based on this interaction.

### **3.7 Internal branding in the service sector**

Public sector organisations provide a service to the public, and researchers have found that internal branding is especially important in the service sector (Scheys and Baert 2007). If employees are to ‘live the brand’, internal branding is critical, especially in service organisations, because quality of service is more difficult to manage and maintain than quality of product (Judson, Aurand et al. 2009). Let us consider Southwest Airlines (Miles and Mangold 2005) as a service provider, for example. Its internal branding techniques include consistent brand communication, developing employees’ knowledge and motivation, receiving continuous feedback from clients and employees, and focusing on employee satisfaction. It does this by appointing leaders whose main responsibility is to lead these branding efforts. Its brand values are unique and specific to their organisation: working hard, being courageous, displaying urgency, being innovative, having fun, celebrating successes, enjoying work, not taking itself too seriously. Southwest’s brand leaders motivate the staff by ensuring that there is a psychological contract between the leader and the follower and that the employee understands the desired brand image. These efforts have allowed Southwest to become one of the top airline providers by recruitment, profit, and turnover rates.

Consequently, there has been a growth of interest in internal branding in the public sector. For instance, focusing on the university context, a recent study of 227 public universities and 116 private universities showed that many of the institutions investigated were at some stage of implementing an internal branding campaign (Judson, Aurand et al. 2009). In their review of higher education branding, Judson et al. (2009) found that brand and reputation were among the most important reasons students chose to apply to a university. Internal branding is therefore a powerful strategy and a cost effective tool that universities can use to achieve marketing rewards. Chapleo (2010) similarly found that branding helps universities to establish a reputation, define a position, and identify a unique selling point to attract and promote loyalty to the institution, and most importantly, to develop a long-term strategy and vision for the organisation. Interestingly, budget disputes have not been found to be a limiting factor for branding in the public sector, specifically in university branding, where the most critical factor

for determining the success of the brand was employee buy-in, engagement, and internal branding (Chapleo 2010). Furthermore, Chapleo (2010) found that successfully branded universities shared common attributes: they all demonstrated support from leadership, a clear vision, internal buy-in of the brand, synergy with the brand of the city or town in terms of the university location, and the use of public relations.

Researchers and practitioners similarly agree that there is an increasing need for governments to align employee's commitment to the government's brand promise to build an attitude of commitment throughout the organisation (Eberl 2008). If employees are to comprehend and live the brand, internal branding is critical, especially since quality of service is difficult to manage in such service organisations (Judson, Aurand et al. 2009).

However, there is very little empirical research to date that studies internal branding in the public or government sector. There is some research on marketing in the public sector (Andreassen 1994) (Laing 2003) (Wæraas 2008), including public service motivation, mission valence, public ethos (Rayner, Williams et al. 2011), public organisational culture, values, and norms (Rainey 2009), and branding in non-profit organisations (Hankinson 2004). However, there seems to be little empirical research on internal branding in public sector organisations despite its promising benefits in aligning employee behaviours with the organisation's vision and goals.

There may be two reasons for this. Firstly, internal branding may be misunderstood and regarded as an unnecessary marketing effort which is less important than the main aim of governing (Walsh 1994). Secondly, perceptions of additional constraints in the public sector may act as a barrier to internal branding. As Colyer (2006) argued, the implementation of branding (either internal or external) faces greater challenges in the public sector due to its complexity of structure, political issues, limitation in funds for branding, and decision making authorities. Other constraints include jurisdiction restrictions, legislative alliances and subgroups with greater authority, the influence of the press, the short tenure of top executives, and the absence of clear performance measures (Rainey 2009). Therefore, although there may be several reasons explaining why internal branding has not been researched extensively in the public sector, this thesis argues that internal branding is especially important for organisations that provide important public sector services. Internal branding efforts can enhance competitiveness in the public sector by increasing competition amongst the different public

sector departments, depending on whether one is using better branding strategies than the other (Wallin Andreassen 1994, Whelan, Davies et al. 2010). Branding in the public sector can also help to raise public awareness, promote economic development, and manage elections and service delivery to citizens (Snaveley 1991). Furthermore, both external branding and the behaviour and attitudes of employees towards citizens during interactions such as complaints can affect citizen satisfaction, commitment, and trust (Deon et al. 2000), enable better communication between employees and citizens, increase attention to and retention of messages, and foster behavioural change, such as stopping smoking or not drinking and driving (Colyer, 2006). Researchers have found that the positive behavioural outcomes and increased performance obtained by transformational leaders in the public sector were not affected by the added constraints that are common in public sector organisations (Moynihan, Pandey et al. 2009). This may be due to the fact that public sector organisations have an important added advantage in comparison to the private sector: studies have shown that public sector employees rely more heavily on intrinsic than extrinsic work rewards (Houston, 2000). These are described by Perry (2000) as an attraction to policymaking, compassion, civic duty, public interest, and self-sacrifice.

| OECD Member country strategies to enhance the competitiveness of the public employer adapted from (Androniceanu, Corbos et al. 2011) |  |
|--|--|
|  | Strategy to enhance competitiveness  |
| <b>Denmark</b>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Plans to investigate public sector employee motivational factors.</li> </ul>                                  |
| <b>Finland</b>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Monitors and evaluates competitiveness and image.</li> </ul>  |
| <b>Ireland</b>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Promotes unique selling points of public service and ensure effective induction and socialisation.</li> </ul> |
| <b>New Zealand</b>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improves public sector branding.</li> </ul>   |
| <b>Norway</b>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improves public sector branding.</li> </ul>   |
| <b>Portugal</b>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Aligns HR systems with organisational brand values.</li> </ul>  |

**Table 10: OECD Member country strategies to enhance the competitiveness of the public employer adapted from (Androniceanu, Corbos et al. 2011)**

According to the OECD report (Androniceanu, Corbos et al. 2011), there are several countries that are implementing strategies to enhance the competitiveness of their services to the citizens in their nations. Table 10 shows the countries that are implementing strategies related to branding, such as focusing on enhancing organisational image.

In a survey of a public sector organisation, O'Donnell and Shields (2002) found that, although management claimed that they had an exemplary system, their employees did not share this vision and in fact trusted neither the system nor the management. O'Donnell and Shields (2002) argued that it is important to ensure that employees understand the written and unwritten rules of the organisation. This adds to the significance of internal branding in the public sector because brand based leaders communicate, verbally or through social interactions, not only the written and unwritten rules of the organisation, but also its goals, values, and vision, thus intrinsically motivating them to improve their behaviour in alignment with the 'brand' of the public organisation (Ryan and Deci 2000).

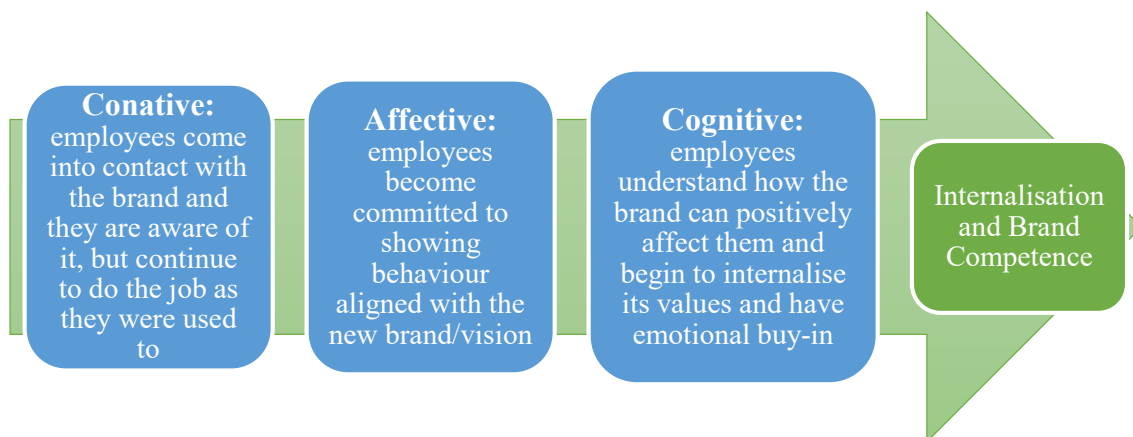
Organisational development (OD) interventions are more difficult to implement in the public sector than in the private sector because of added constraints such as the highly political nature of the sector and its greater range of rules and regulations, inflexible reward systems, specialised and invariant job designs, highly formalised processes and procedures, and bureaucratic, hierarchical administration (Robertson and Seneviratne 1995). Yet a review of public organisations showed that there is an increasing number of public sector organisations that are implementing a more 'customer'-oriented approach (Robertson and Seneviratne 1995). For example, in an investigation of OD interventions in public and private organisations, researchers Robertson and Seneviratne (1995) found that OD generated positive results in both sectors (89% positive results in the private sector and 84% in the public sector).

But how can public leaders foster behaviour that supports the public organisation's culture, vision, and strategy, and therefore its brand? Kuvaas (2009) argued that in relation to the self-determination theory, transformational leaders can have a direct influence on followers' intrinsic motivation by supporting their need for job autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Perry (2000) argued that when employees are motivated intrinsically, their positive behaviour increases due to loyalty and an internalised sense of obligation and public duty, ethical ideals of serving the community, and a feeling of accountability and desire to serve the public (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, and Crothers 2002). In other words, one could argue that when employees participate in an internal branding process with the support of their brand based transformational leaders, they internalise the brand, which results in brand supporting behaviours (Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak, 2009).

The process of internalisation can be better described by the works of Scheys and Baert (2007).



They argued that during the internalisation process employees go through a learning experience that cannot be achieved without leadership intervention. Scheys and Baert (2007) defined three steps towards achieving brand competence (shown in figure 18 below).



**Figure 18: The three stages of brand internalisation to achieve brand competence (Scheys and Baert 2007)**

### 3.8 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed the concept of branding and internal branding, and discussed their benefit to organisations and the key factors in their success. The elements and success factors of a brand were discussed in addition to how a brand can be expressed in the government sector. Different strategies for creating strong organisational brands were outlined, including internal strategies such as employee branding, and external strategies such as marketing and advertising. Internal branding was presented as a key strategic tool for aligning employee behaviour and creating brand champions that ‘live the brand’ when they interact with customers. In the context of this research – a busy public sector organisation that deals with hundreds of citizens every day – it was argued that internal branding would be a key success factor for building the overall reputation of the organisational brand. But how can we implement this strategy in a Saudi Arabian public sector organisation? Would similar frameworks apply? There is a place for internal branding in the public sector, but there is a clear gap in the literature with regard to internal branding in public sector organisations. There are some research studies that have been conducted on leadership and its effect on internal branding, but this has not yet been investigated in the context of the public sector. For example, the role of brand based leadership on brand internalisation and brand based behaviour was studied by Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak (2009). However, based on this literature review,



there are significant changes and modifications needed to ensure that the conceptual framework is applicable in the public sector, and especially in a unique and changing context such as Saudi Arabia. Therefore the next chapter presents this research and supports the development of a conceptual framework for this research.

-- Chapter Four --  
Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis

## **4. Chapter 4: Conceptual framework and hypotheses**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Chapter two and three dealt with the review of the existing body of knowledge on leadership, internal branding and discussed those concepts within the context of the public sector. In this chapter, we call upon the literature that was conducted in the last two chapters for creating a new conceptual framework for applying internal branding practices in the public sector to enhance brand based behaviour by looking at the role of leadership and other key factors affecting brand internalisation. The conceptual model (figure 19) illustrates the effect of brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, and structural authority constraints on brand internalisation. It also illustrates the effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour and the effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour.

### **4.2 Development of model and research questions**

#### **4.2.1 The influence of brand based transformational leadership and brand based transactional leadership on employee brand internalisation in the public sector**

Transformational leadership can be defined as the type of leadership in which the leader and the follower share the organisational purpose and this leads to the transformation, motivation, and enhancement of the follower's actions and their internal attitudes (Burns, 1978). It consists of four dimensions. First, "idealised influence" is when the leader models the qualities, behaviours and attitudes that aim to inspire the followers to imitate; second, "inspirational motivation," which is when the leader encourages the group to aspire towards the goals and aims of the group, third; "intellectual stimulation," which is when the leader encourages followers to conduct creative and innovative problem solving techniques; and finally, "individualised consideration," when the leader works to give followers the individual support that they need along with personal encouragement. In contrast, transactional leadership is described as the reciprocal relationship between the leader and follower, which takes place in form of an exchange (Bass 1990). Transactional leaders focus on the day-to-day efficiency of the job, close supervision, and monitoring of the work. Transactional leaders focus on increasing efficiency, following the rules, routines and procedures within the organisation

without challenging change or innovation (Ching 2014). The detailed description of the strengths and limitations of these two types of leadership is included in chapter 2.

Transformational leadership has been found to have a broad range of positive outcomes e.g. (Bass 1990, Bass and Riggio 2006, Konorti 2012) transformational leadership is positively correlated with the employee's demonstration of organisational citizenship behaviour mediated by the deep feeling of trust and positive emotions towards the employee's transformational leader (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 1990). Transformational leadership increases an employee's commitment to the organisation (Koh, Steers et al. 1995). Researchers have also found that transformational leadership is positively related to helping instil values when compared to transactional leadership (Groves and LaRocca 2011). Transformational leadership had a greater effect on follower beliefs when compared to transactional leadership (Groves and LaRocca 2011).

Transactional leadership was found to be negatively related to performance (Howell and Avolio 1993). Employees believe that transactional leaders achieve their goals by giving or refraining from rewards or giving negative feedback to their followers and therefore the employees form a negative association about their leader (Hater and Bass 1988). Other studies have found that transactional leadership was equally as effective as transformational leadership in environments that operate under high stress and uncertainty such as the military (Bass, Avolio et al. 2003).

Some studies have investigated transactional and transformational in different cultures or in different environments and have found different results. However, the overall arguments for transformational leadership remains to be the strongest predictor of brand internalisation when compared to transactional leadership.

Now that we have established the differences among the effects of transactional and transformational leadership, we start investigating the notion of brand internalisation. The Webster definition of 'internalisation' is to make something, such as an idea or an attitude, an important part of the kind of person you are and to incorporate within the self as conscious or subconscious guiding principles as values or patterns of culture. Researchers also defined internalisation as 'involvement resulting from congruence between individual and organizational values' (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). Internalisation happens when employees

feel a psychological attachment to the organisation (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). Internalisation is how the employee experiences the external conversations that take place within the social setting and how the gestures are thus internalised as meaning for the individuals in the group (Mead 1934). Therefore, brand internalisation can be defined as the buy-in, commitment, understanding the appropriate behaviours that are expected from them as employees and being motivated to behave in alignment with the organisational brand.

Drawing on transactional and transformational literature, we now focus on the leaders (transformational or transactional) who aim to align their employees' behaviour with the organisational brand. Morhart et al. (2009) suggested two brand based leadership types: brand based transactional leadership and brand based transformational leadership. Brand based leaders motivate their followers to become brand champions, and to live the brand. Brand based transactional leadership is defined as when the manager specifies the behavioural standards for appropriate implementation of the employee roles as representatives of the organisation brand. This includes offering rewards when role expectations are met, making clear what is considered as ineffective performance for a brand representative, implementing punishments for failing to comply with organisational brand standards, monitoring the employees for any mistakes, and executing corrective action when any errors occur.

Morhart et al. (2009) defined brand based transformational leadership as when a manager acts as a role model and exemplifies the organisation's brand vision in his or her own actions, takes pride in the organisational brand, and ensures that employees think about their roles and responsibilities in terms of the organisational brand. He or she will also teach and coach them to evolve as its effective representatives.

One example of a brand based leader is Richard Branson, who has clear vision of his brand and of the culture that he desires for his companies and their core mission (Dearlove 2007). He describes his companies as fun, adventurous, high quality, great value, and as a people's brand. He gives his employees room to act as leaders, and he shares their workload by acting as a role model. Another example of a brand based leader was Steve Jobs. He inspired his employees to be visionary, innovative, and fully committed to their jobs. He led his employees first to believe in his mission that passionate people can change the world. These changes in the employee beliefs facilitated their ability to change their behaviour and continue to innovate some of the most unique and important technological advances in our world today. Although both these

examples are for brand based leaders in the private sector, they both can be described as brand based transformational leaders rather than brand based transactional leaders.

In their cross-sectional research of 269 customer-contact employees (Morhart et al. 2009), brand based transformational leadership was found to be more effective in enhancing brand internalisation and employee brand based behaviour. Brand based transformational leadership was found to have a significant positive effect on the intrinsic motivation of the followers. Looking at employee behaviour from the perspective of leadership theory, self-determination theory (SDT), and social identity theory, leaders enhance brand internalisation as employees ‘come to accept the brand values as their own and thus perceive value congruence between their own and the corporate brand’s values’ (Morhart et al. 2009, p. 126). Furthermore, this builds the brand based role into employees’ self-concepts. Once they interpret and internalise the brand, they behave based on the organisation’s brand ethos (Morhart et al. 2009). Extending the work of Morhart et al. (2009), this research attempts to investigate the effect of brand based transformational and transactional leadership on the followers’ internalisation and on their behaviour in a public sector organisation.

Morhart et al. relied on the SDT to argue and build their theory for the brand based leadership effect on the followers. Similarly, research done in the public sector often adopts operant conditioning theory and social learning theory, through which public employees’ positive behaviour outcomes are linked to positive reinforcements, empowerment, and participation in goal-making (Rainey 2009). These are akin to the mission of brand based transformational leadership in the private sector. These similarities arise because brand based transformational leaders identify a clear vision for their brand, show their employees how to behave in accordance with this vision, and display confidence in themselves and in their followers’ competency. They also base their actions on a strong set of values that are in alignment with the brand, set an example by being a role model, and empower their followers to participate and act on behalf of the brand (Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright 2009).

Furthermore, researchers argue that public sector organisations behave more and more like private sector organisations as they compete to achieve national milestones and get funding. Researchers argue that similar to the private sector, internal branding efforts can help public sector organisations to align their vision, culture, and image, improve their processes, and support their missions, thus overcoming competition (Mahnert and Torres 2007). However, to

enhance public sector performance by ensuring that employees ‘live the brand,’ leaders must be able to enthuse and empower their employees in order to transform their attitudes and behaviours and build meaning from the ideas of the organisational brand (Ind 2007). Brand based transformational leaders (Burns 1978) can play a crucial role in this process (De Chernatony and Vallaster 2006) because they use intellectual stimulation to motivate their followers to work towards a goal by adding value and meaning (Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright 2009). Therefore, they have an effect on followers’ cognitive and psychological understanding and internalisation of the brand (Miles and Mangold, 2004). These findings suggest that brand based transformational leadership may have similar positive results in the public sector.

When comparing the effects of different styles of leadership within the context of the public sector, it must be noted that while some researchers argued that transactional leadership is better (Chaudhry and Javed 2012), the majority of researchers believe that transformational leadership is more effective (Simola, Barling et al. 2010, Wright and Pandey 2010, Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012, Ljungholm 2014, van der Voet 2014). For further detail, see table 4 in chapter 1. Researchers argue the effectiveness of transformational leadership across different cultures, namely, in China, India, and Kenya where the research was held (Walumbwa and Lawler 2003). Other researchers also argue for using varying degrees of both types of leadership to enhance performance, referring to this type as a full range of leadership. However, limited studies have covered the effectiveness of full range (both transformational and transactional) leadership within the public sector. Morhart et al (2009) argue that brand based transformational leadership has a significant positive effect on private sector employee performance. On the other hand, a transactional leadership style will encourage employees to be more rule compliant and may temporarily increase daily tasks efficiency (Pieterse, Knippenberg et al. 2009).

However, this research argues that transformational leaders have a greater effect on the internalisation of brand values by motivating employees to go beyond what is expected of them and to feel commitment to the goal of the organisation.

The theory of new public management (NPM) also adds support to this premise by associating concepts that were previously applied to the private sector to the public sector. These include the importance of responding to citizens as clients, creating more accountability and transparency, emphasising performance, and re-establishing ideas and feelings that employees

have about organisational goals, norms, and values (Vigoda-Gadot and Meiri 2008). This theory placed an emphasis on achieving a level of compatibility and alignment of the views, goals, strategies, and values of the public organisation with those of the individual. Transformational leaders can achieve this alignment in the public sector by matching the goals of the individual to the goals of the organisation (the brand) and changing the perceptions of public sector employees (internalisation) (reference). Further research from the public sector found that transformational leaders affect employees' need for approval, competence, and relatedness, which leads to greater employee brand commitment and public service motivation in the public sector (Taylor 2008).

Self-determination theory (SDT) similarly suggests that perceptions of competence, relatedness, and autonomy affect employees' need satisfaction and influence their intrinsic motivation (Kuvaas 2008) and internalisation of the brand (Morhart et al. 2009). Morhart et al. (2009) found that employees in the private sector were more likely to internalise a brand based role when their basic needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy were met. Kuvaas (2009) confirmed similar findings in the public sector. Also drawing on self-determination theory, he found that a supervisor's support for employees' needs of job autonomy, competence, and development led to an increase in motivation, specifically intrinsic motivation and the internalisation of extrinsic motivation. Previous research has argued that transformational leaders satisfy these needs, and both Morhart et al. (2009) and Kuvaas (2009) have found through empirical research that the satisfaction of these needs leads to a greater internalisation of motivation. Employees are first aware of the brand, and then they understand the brand and how it can positively affect them, leading to an emotional connection with the brand, or brand internalisation.

Therefore, it is reasonable to predict that brand based transformational leadership will have a more positive effect on brand internalisation when compared to brand based transactional leadership.

Based on the discussion above, the following two hypotheses are proposed:

**H1: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by the employee.**

**H2: A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional**



## **Leadership and Brand Internalisation by the employee.**

### **4.2.2 Brand training**

Mahnert and Torres (2007) argued that staff brand training is one of the fundamental factors that affect the success or failure of internal branding. De Chernatony and Cottam (2006) also stated that staff training is a factor that is under the control of the corporation and must be planned when a brand is codified in order to maximise the effectiveness of internal branding.

Other research studies have also found the effectiveness of involving employees in training to strengthen their brand based behaviours, referring to companies that offer six weeks (Dial-a-Mattress) or four months (Singapore Airlines) of brand training (Berry 2000). Chong (2007) argued that training employees helps to transform them so that they embody the organisational brand values: the brand based training sessions focus on reinforcing the organisation's core values and enhancing alignment between individual beliefs and organisational values. Chong (2007) found that internal communication and training were the two most important elements in the success of the employee brand based behaviour. Brand-related training helps not only to introduce employees to organisational values, but also to correct employee behaviour in alignment with what is acceptable to the organisation. Southwest Airlines, for example, relies on training and development efforts to emphasise the behaviours that are acceptable and encouraged by the organisation. This training 'enables employees to identify with the organization, its culture, and its values, in addition to providing the basic knowledge and skills needed for the job' (Miles and Mangold 2005). Brand-related training is not limited to specific staff or managers: it includes everyone in the organisation, who are all expected to know about their organisation's brand and to promote the organisational brand every day (Rafaeli and Pratt 2013).

Applying this to the public sector, Riccucci (2015), in his book *Public Personnel Management*, recommends that training topics for the public sector need to include: ethics training, diversity training, benchmarking training, training on how to perform tasks on the performance standard, cultural competency training, training as part of appraisal, and internal recruitment. He argues that training reduces public sector turnover (Riccucci 2015) and that training in the public sector also helps to increase identification with organisational values and culture awareness (Schraeder, Tears et al. 2005). But researchers argue that training alone, or without being under the umbrella of an organised strategy [organisational brand values] is not enough (Berman,

Bowman et al. 2015). Another research found that brand-related training had a positive effect on communication satisfaction, which was positively related to brand identification, loyalty, and commitment among employees (Sharma and Kamalanabhan 2012).

Therefore, it is hypothesised that a public sector organisation that provides brand-related training will also benefit from a higher level of brand internalisation of organisational brand values. The following hypothesis has therefore been developed:

**H3: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee.**

#### **4.2.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards**

Reward systems, both intrinsic and extrinsic, can have a positive effect on the internalisation of the brand values and commitment to the brand (Chen and Hsieh 2006). However, reward systems must have both economic and psychological value. Researchers found that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards have an effect on performance, while extrinsic rewards offer a better predictor of the quantity of performance while intrinsic rewards are a better predictor of the quality of performance (Cerasoli, Nicklin et al. 2014). A review by public sector researchers (Festré and Garrouste 2008) indicated that individuals working in the public sector are complex, and have a particular set of motives. Extrinsic or monetary rewards have an effect on public service employees, but this depends on the type of activity in the sector and is not as strong as the effects of intrinsic motivation (Gredeg et al. 2008; Park and Rainey 2008). Research has shown that public service employees are motivated more by intrinsic than extrinsic rewards, which could be due to their motivation to serve citizens (PSM) (Festre and Garrouste 2008; Wright 2007), public ethos (Rayner et al. 2011), and intrinsic motivation (Festre and Garrouste 2008; Park and Rainey 2008).

However, as brand based transformational leaders consciously foster their employees' PSM, ethos, and intrinsic motivation through internal branding, they must be aware of the possibility of over-relying on intrinsic rewards without also using extrinsic rewards as motivators. Performance and brand internalisation can be impeded if employees perceive that rewards are unfair (Festré and Garrouste 2008). Wright (2007) stated that intrinsic rewards are affected by extrinsic rewards, mission valence, job importance, job difficulty, job specificity, and self-efficiency. Employees who are offered both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards feel a greater sense

of ownership in terms of the organisational mission and their involvement in its success (Papasolomou and Vrontis 2006). Wright and Pandey (2010) argued that there is a weaker, albeit still notable, relationship between extrinsic rewards and public sector performance than between intrinsic rewards and performance, although these vary across public sector organisations and depending on the perception that employees are supported by transformational leadership. Rewards, and especially intrinsic rewards, have a positive effect on employee attitudes, but this effect is also moderated by the employee's trust in his or her leaders, and the clarity of the organisational brand and goals (Cho and Perry 2012). This research, therefore, argues that a balanced system with both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards increases public service employees' motivation to serve and also increases the internalisation of their mission to serve based on their brand based role.

This leads to the following hypothesis:

**H4a: A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by the employee.**

**H4b: A significant positive relationship exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by the employee.**

#### **4.2.4 Public sector influences**

Researchers such as Robertson and Seneviratne (1995) have found that organisational development interventions are more difficult to implement in the public sector than in the private sector because of the added constraints. These include the highly political nature of the organisations, a greater range of rules and regulations, inflexible reward systems, specialised and invariant job designs, highly formalised processes and procedures, and bureaucratic hierarchical administration.

##### **4.2.4.1 Human resources red tape (HR red tape)**

Internal brand building is achieved via collaboration between the marketing, human resources, and strategic planning departments (Rainey 2009). Internal branding is a multi-disciplinary, inter-departmental function, and although the marketing department plays a large role in brand definition and implementation, successful internal branding also requires the close involvement of the marketing and human resource departments (Chernatony and Cottam 2006; Manhart and Torres 2007; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007; Simmons 2009). This is particularly important for

organisations that provide a service, such as the public sector (Berry 2000, as cited in Chernatony and Cottam, 2006).

Human resources red tape is defined as ‘rules, regulations, and procedures that remain in force and entail a compliance burden, but do not advance the legitimate purposes the rules were intended to serve’ (Bozeman 2000, p. 12, cited in Moynihan, Wright et al. 2012). A study of 85 middle managers in public sector organisations found that red tape has a negative effect on performance (Pandey and Moynihan 2006). A study conducted in the UK banking sector found that when companies invest their efforts in internal branding, HR red tape can stand in the way of the success of such efforts

Therefore, if the HR department and its practices are not aligned with or do not promote the brand values, this can cause distress to the public sector employees and disturb the internal branding process. The following hypothesis has therefore been developed:

**H5: A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by the employee.**

#### **4.2.4.2 Structural authority constraints**

Some researchers argued that internal branding cannot be successfully implemented in the public sector due to the additional structural authority constraints and barriers that are often present (Colyer 2006). These include hierarchical authority distribution, strict rules and policies, and top-down communication (Howell 1997; Shamir and Howell 1999; Wright and Pandey 2010). Successful brand based transformational leadership requires some degree of flexibility both from the employees and their leaders (Wright and Pandey 2010) in order to affect employees’ competence, relatedness, and autonomy positively, which in turn has a direct effect on employees’ needs satisfaction, intrinsic motivation (Kuvaas 2008) and internalisation of the brand (Morhart et al. 2009). Structural authority constraints may, therefore, hinder this flexibility and have a negative effect on employees’ internalisation of the brand. From this follows the fifth hypothesis of this thesis:

**H6: A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by the employee.**

## **4.2.5 Outcomes of employee brand internalisation in the public sector**

When employees have internalised brand values and established an emotional connection or emotional buy-in, this leads to changes in their attitude and subsequently their behaviour, which falls into alignment with the brand (brand based behaviour) (Morhart et al. 2009). This thesis focuses on the brand based behavioural outcomes for public sector employees, because behaviour is a key factor in improving the performance of public sector organisations. As stated by Robertson and Seneviratne (1995, p. 550), ‘The behaviour of organisational members is a key determinant of organisational outcomes, behaviour change will have an impact on the nature of these outcomes’. Following the research of Morhart et al. (2009), this thesis investigates brand based behaviours while categorising behaviour as in-role or extra-role.

### **4.2.5.1 In-role behaviour**

In the private sector, researchers have found that, as employees interpret the brand and begin to internalise its message, they naturally and unconsciously behave in alignment with its brand values (Gotsi and Wilson 2001; Chernatony and Cottam 2006; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007; 2009) by displaying higher in-role and extra-role brand building behaviour (Morhart et al. 2009).

Examples of in-role brand building behaviour include: adequately completing assigned duties, fulfilling the responsibilities of the job description, performing the tasks that are expected, and engaging in activities that are directly related to performance evaluation (Williams and Anderson 1991).

This thesis argues that the relationships between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour will also be true in the context of the public sector. Although brand internalisation has not yet been investigated in the public sector, there are findings that support this premise. For example, researchers have investigated the effects of psychological empowerment and have found that it has positive effects on both in-role and extra-role behaviours (Cho and Faerman 2010). Psychological empowerment is described as achieving intrinsic motivation by adding and matching the meaning between the organisational mission and the individual’s values (Cho and Faerman 2010). Intrinsic motivation has also been linked with public service motivation (PSM) and a public service ethos: it is argued that PSM inclines employees to put more effort into their work because of their regard for the impact that the social service will have on society (Rayner et al. 2011). Similarly, the effects of internalisation have been linked to the alignment

of the organisational brand with individual values (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007). The following hypothesis has therefore been developed:

**H7: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by the employee.**

#### **4.2.5.2 Extra-role brand behaviour**

Morhart et al. (2009) found that internalisation of the organisational brand values also leads to greater extra-role behaviour in the private sector. Examples of extra-role behaviour include: helping those who have been absent, helping those with heavy workloads, taking time to listen to other workers' problems or worries, passing information onto other colleagues, giving advance notice when one is unable to come to work, and spreading positive word of mouth about the organisation (Williams and Anderson 1991). This thesis argues the argument made by Morhart et al. is also true in the public sector. Extra-role behaviour can also be defined as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), which is a commonly used term in the public sector. In this sense, extra-role behaviour, is the discretionary behaviour that is 'extra' and not part of their day to day duties (Sharma, Bajpai et al. 2011). They may not be formally defined by the organisation, but instead modelled or encouraged by their leaders (Sharma, Bajpai et al. 2011). Organ (1988) defines extra-role behaviour as altruism and helping others, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. Morhart et al. found that brand internalisation is positively related to extra-role behaviour in the private sector. And in order to examine the pertinence of this relationship in the public sector, the researcher investigated the antecedents for organisational citizenship behaviour (extra-role behaviour) in the public sector (Kim 2006), as OCB is a topic well-researched in the public sector. Antecedents of extra-role behaviour include a psychological attachment between the employee and the organisation that goes beyond the tasks that are mandated in job descriptions (Farahani, Taghadosi et al. 2011). It is also associated with feeling a sense of commitment to the organisation; this includes: affective commitment, which is emotional attachment; continuous commitment, which refers to the employee's perception of the cost associated with leaving the organisation; and normative commitment, which refers to the employee feeling a sense of obligation to stay and do their job (Farahani, Taghadosi et al. 2011).

Other antecedents for extra-role behaviour include employee satisfaction, the nature of the work itself, the level of the employee, employee satisfaction, trust in the organisation, trust in

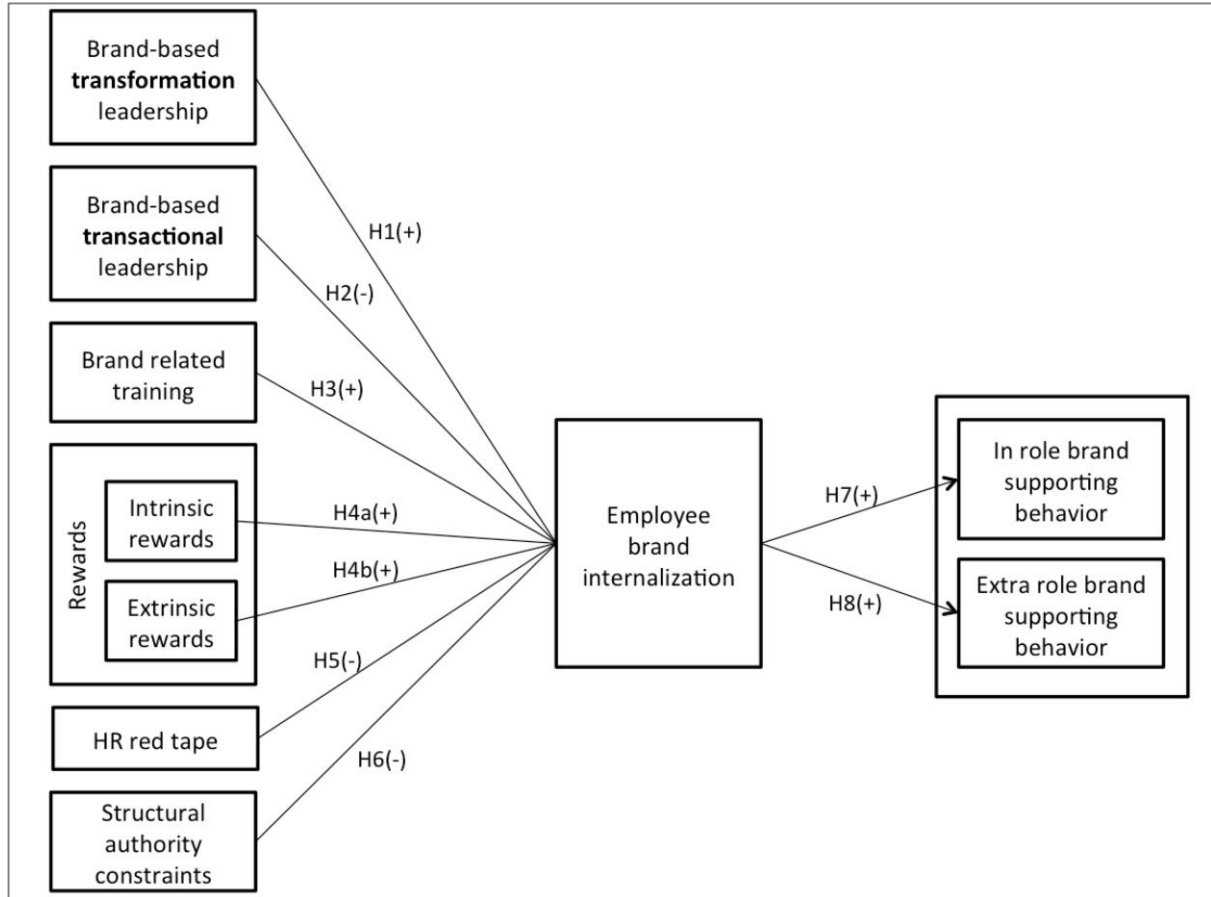
the leader, perceived fairness, organisational commitment, and leader supportiveness (Sharma, Bajpai et al. 2011). Generally, extra-role behaviour antecedents can be clustered into four domains: those that are related to the employee (employee characteristics); factors that are related to the leader; conditions of the organisation; and the task itself (Shim and Rohrbaugh 2014). Most studies involving the public sector involves the first of these domains, which are related to the employee. Moreover, when the employees are committed to the organisation, and they feel a sense of motivation to serve the public (PSM), this is a strong predictor of extra-role behaviour in the public sector (Shim and Rohrbaugh 2014). Another study that focused on the public sector, a study by Wang, Chu, and Ni (2010), argued that leader-member exchange theory showed positive effects on organisational citizenship behaviour. Researchers have argued that internalisation, altruism, and a desire to serve in the public sector lead to greater extra-role pro-social behaviour, including volunteering (e.g. Perry and Hondeghem 2008). Coyle-Shapiro (2002) argued that extra-role behaviour can include different types of behaviour including cooperation with others, protecting and advocating the organisation, volunteering, self-development, and maintaining a positive outlook towards the organisation, which can be increased by upholding the employee's psychological contract. Miles and Mangold (2004) also examined the effects of employees' perceptions on the psychological contract and on organisational brand interpretation and internalisation. They found that employees' perceptions were a strong predictor of desirable employee-customer interactions. Cho and Faerman (2010) investigated the impact of psychological empowerment on organisational citizenship behaviour. Other researchers found that employees' motivation to serve the citizens – or public service motivation (PSM) – and intrinsic motivation were positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour (Kuvaas 2009).

Our argument is that the more the employee internalises the organisational brand values in the public sector, the more this will result in their actions exhibiting signs of extra-role behaviour. If we examine brand internalisation as the alignment and congruence between the organisational values and those of the employee, it can be argued that there are links within the literature that this relationship will be true for the public sector, just as it has been for the private sector. If we consider that the essence of the organisational brand value in the public sector is to serve its citizens, employees who have a strong commitment to serving citizens and have a motivation to serve citizens will exhibit higher rates of extra-role behaviour. Drawing on this literature, the following hypothesis has therefore been developed:



**H8: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee.**

### 4.3 Chapter summary and conceptual model



**Figure 19: Conceptual Model**

Integrating the literature from the previous chapters, the present chapter developed a conceptual model of the key factors affecting brand internalisation of public sector employees and its effect on increasing public sector performance through increasing in-role and extra-role behaviour (figure 19). The model presents the effects of transformational and transactional effects on brand internalisation and suggests the effects of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards, structural authority constraints, HR red tape, and brand training on brand internalisation, and the effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviours. The model also explains the proposed moderating effect of brand based transformational leadership on reducing the negative effect of HR red tape and structural authority constraints. The next chapter presents the methodology, including the research design in terms of the quantitative as well as the



qualitative sections of this research.

-- Chapter Five --  
Methodology

## **5. Chapter 5: Methodology**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the design of this research and the methods that were used in data collection and data analysis. It starts by outlining the overarching research objectives, then describes the methods chosen and the research design.

There were two stages in this research: the preliminary stage, which included in-depth interviews that aimed to gain a deeper understanding of the subject and validate the conceptual model, and the main research, in which the quantitative research and hypothesis were investigated.

This chapter is divided into the following sections:

Section 5.2 reminds us of the research objectives. Section 5.3 discusses the philosophical underpinnings. Section 5.4 discusses the research design strategy and why it was selected for this particular research. Section 5.5 discusses the types of data that was available to this study. Following this, the chapter then parts into two sections, while section 5.6 presents the qualitative research methods, including the qualitative research objectives, sample size, data collection, interview guide, data analysis, trustworthiness of data, and limitations of the current context. The gender participation was also discussed for the qualitative stage. Section 5.7 takes us into the main quantitative stage where we are first reminded by the conceptual model, and discuss what changes were made to the survey questionnaire based on the qualitative research. The research model is discussed, and we briefly summarise the discussion about the country selection, sample design and data collection. The limitations are discussed for this method and information is given about the measurement, content validity and the pilot testing. Next, the data analysis design is discussed and how the conceptual framework was segmented and investigated systematically. Finally, the ethical considerations for the qualitative method are discussed. Section 5.8 provides a summary of the chapter.

## **5.2 Research objectives**

In line with the discussion above that outlined the gaps in the extant knowledge of the effects of leadership on internal branding in the public sector, the research objectives of this thesis are:

1. To investigate the role of leadership in internal branding in the public sector.
  - 1.1 Is there a role for internal branding in the public sector, specifically in a Middle Eastern Arab country such as Saudi Arabia, and how is internal branding evident in these settings?
  - 1.2 What are the key success factors of internal branding in the public sector, and how does leadership affect brand internalisation and employee brand based behaviour?
  - 1.3 Are leaders in the public sector aware of their role in building the organisational brand within by creating ‘brand champions’? And what strategies do they use to achieve this?
2. To investigate the differences in dynamics and the effects of transformational and transactional leadership in a non-western developing country.
  - 2.1 Does transformational leadership have a positive effect on brand internalisation, as it does in western research studies, or does transactional leadership also contribute to internal branding?
  - 2.2 What are the most effective types of leadership strategies used to enhance brand internalisation and brand based behaviour?
3. To identify the constraints that the public sector faces in the practice of internal branding.
  - 3.1 What are the constraints that public sector organisations face when practicing internal branding strategies?
  - 3.2 How does HR red tape affect the ability of the leaders to lead their team and increase organisation brand internalisation?
  - 3.3 How do structural authority constraints affect the ability of employees to internalise the organisational brand and become ‘brand champions’?

## **5.3 Philosophical underpinnings**

Before describing the research methods for data collection, it is important to establish the

underlining paradigm and epistemological stances of this research. Epistemology is one of the five branches of philosophy (the others are metaphysics, ethics, logic, and aesthetics). It is the research of knowledge, and it represents a bridge between thinking and reality (Steup 2008). Epistemology asks how people know what is real, and in epistemology the claim that something is real must be justified in some way.

A research paradigm comprises of a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions about the nature and conduct of research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004), including beliefs about epistemology and ontology. Epistemology is the philosophy of knowledge or how we come to know (Trochim 2000, as quoted in Krauss (2005)). Epistemology seeks to answer the fundamental questions about knowledge: what counts as knowledge and what is the relationship between the knowledge and the knower? Ontology provides ways of constructing reality (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Table 11 presents a brief overview of two research paradigms: positivist (objective) and interpretivist (subjective).

| Comparison between positivist and interpretivist approaches |  |  |
|---|--|--|
|   | Positivist (Objective)   | Interpretivist (Subjective)  |
| <b>Epistemology</b>   | There is no difference between the elements of the natural and social worlds.<br>Knowledge is objective and static.<br>Knowledge can be measured and quantified. | There is a difference between the elements of the natural and social worlds.<br>Knowledge is subjective and meaning is revealed by the actions and interactions of the elements.<br>This meaning relies on the context as well as on the interpretation. |
| <b>Ontology</b>   | Reality is external and does not depend on individuals' perceptions.   | Reality is contextual and subjective.  |
| <b>Key features</b>   | Appropriate for research, the aim of which is to identify and explain causality or test hypothesis.<br>It is scientific, robust and objective.                   | Appropriate for research, the aim of which is to explore and understand the meaning of the action (or inaction) of elements in the social world.<br>It is contextual, relative and subjective.   |
| <b>Methodology</b>  | Quantitative   | Qualitative  |

**Table 11: comparison between positivist and interpretivist approaches**

The hypotheses developed by this research explore the proposed relationships between the different domains highlighted. This could be interpreted as a 'cause and effect' analysis. Overall, a positivist approach was adopted by this research, since it mainly aimed to test relationships derived from other available theories and empirical studies. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in order to validate the conceptual hypotheses and to then test

them in a relevant empirical setting with an emphasis on the quantitative as the main method. The goal was to develop a theory that would explain the facts (McBurney and White 2009) and that could be used to predict the attitudes and behaviours of the employees in the public sector and therefore enhance the experiences of the citizens who interact with them.

#### 5.4 Research design strategy

The research design started with an extensive review of relevant literature, particularly of leadership and marketing theories that were previously used in the private sector and could be applied to the public sector to examine the roles of public sector leaders. The researcher also needed to consider the idiosyncrasies of the public sector context. This literature review aided the translation of the broad research objectives into specific research hypotheses, which were then depicted in a conceptual model.

There are three research approaches: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods. In table 12, a brief overview of the quantitative and qualitative is presented by focusing on the strength and weakness of each type. The quantitative research approach is appropriate for testing theories or hypotheses. With this approach, data is collected using standardised methods and analysed using statistical methods. Its focus is on deduction, explanation, and prediction (Creswell and Clark 2007). In contrast, the focus of the qualitative research approach is on induction and exploration. This approach is appropriate for developing theories and hypotheses (Creswell 2008, p. 55). The data collected is in the form of text or observations of an ongoing process carried out in a naturalistic setting (Creswell 2008, p. 55). Mixed method research is a research method for collecting and analysing both types of data (Creswell 2009, p. 55). It is used to get a better understanding of the research problem. Table 12 below summarises a few of the strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative approaches (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004).

| Strength and weakness of quantitative and qualitative research |                                |                                      |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|  | Quantitative                   | Qualitative                          |
| Strengths  | 1. Data collection methods are | 1. It is useful for studying a small |

|             |  |   |
|-------------|--|---|
|             | <p>easy and data analysis methods are less time-consuming.</p> <p>2. Useful for studying a large number of people.</p> <p>3. Research findings can be generalised.</p> <p>4. The researcher can control some of the variables.</p> | <p>number of cases in depth and for describing complex phenomena.</p> <p>2. Responsive to local contexts and stakeholders' needs.</p> <p>3. It is appropriate for cross-case comparisons.</p> <p>4. Data is collected in naturalistic settings.</p> |
| Limitations | <p>1. Results may be too general for direct application to specific context.</p>   | <p>1. Data collection and analysis is time consuming.</p> <p>2. Results can not be generalised.</p>   |

**Table 12: Strength and weakness of quantitative and qualitative research**

According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), 'the goal of the mixed method approach is to draw from the strengths and minimize the limitations of both'. When using the mixed method approach, it is important to decide how to sequence the stages of qualitative and quantitative analysis and how to decide the weighting given to each of them. As Creswell and Clark (2007) argue, there are four mixed method design methods based on the dimensions of timing and weighting:

- Triangulation design: In this design both types of data are collected in the same time phrase and both types of data have equal weighting.
- Embedded design: Two types of data are collected to seek answers to two different types of questions but one type of data has higher weighting than the other. The latter type of data supports the first type of data. The data may be collected sequentially or at the same time.
- Explanatory design: This is two-stage design in which the first phase is quantitative and the second is qualitative. The quantitative analysis has more weighting than the qualitative analysis.
- Exploratory design: This is also a two-stage design, but in this design the qualitative data is collected first and then the quantitative data is collected. The qualitative analysis has more weighting than the quantitative analysis.

This extensive literature review was followed up by two stages of empirical research. The initial qualitative research phase aimed to develop an understanding of the relationships

depicted in the conceptual model and provide further validation of them, as well as an in-depth understanding of these relationships in the public sector context. The second quantitative phase tested the hypotheses through a quantitative research. Therefore, an exploratory design was applied. Table 13 shows the goals of each of the phases of this research:

| <b>Goals of the quantitative and qualitative research phases</b>   |   |
|--|---|
| <b>Goals of the qualitative phase</b>  | <b>Goal of the quantitative phase</b>   |
| Understanding the relationships in the conceptual model  | To test the conceptual model  |
| Gaining in-depth information about variables under study in the conceptual model                                       | To gain data from the front line employees  |
| Gaining further background information to understand the context to aid in the interpretation of the quantitative data | To validate and cross-reference the information that was found in the qualitative phase |
| Discuss the topic with the middle managers and understand their point of view.   |   |

**Table 13: Goals of the quantitative and qualitative research phases**

| <b>Internal and external secondary data</b>   |   |
|---|---|
| <b>Internal sources of secondary data</b>   | <b>External sources of secondary data</b>   |
| This type of data is collected from the organisation itself and includes records and past figures. With reference to this research, internal secondary data was collected from the Human Resources department regarding employee absenteeism. | This type of secondary data includes statistics from the government, publications, research studies, information from related organisations, the media, libraries, etc. The researcher collected secondary data from a variety of sources, including electronic journals, online databases, journals, and websites. |

**Table 14: Internal and external secondary data**

### 5.5 Types of data

In order to achieve the objectives of this research, both primary and secondary data were collected.



### 5.5.1 Secondary data

This research utilised two types of secondary data, internal and external. Table 14 illustrates the types of data in each category:

Researchers have acknowledged the advantages of secondary data, including that it is an efficient use of time and resources and that it effectively builds on past findings and results (Glass 1976). However, there are also disadvantages to using secondary data, such as the unavailability of data specific to the research domain (Glass 1976). Secondary data can also be questionable in terms of its reliability or validity, be out of date, or be inappropriate to generalise in other contexts. In this research, the secondary data was collected to establish a firm background understanding of the subject and in order to inform the formation of the research objectives/hypotheses and the measures later adopted in the topic guide and questionnaire.

### 5.5.2 Primary data

The primary data was initially collected via an exploratory qualitative research, which intended to take a deeper look at leadership, internal branding, and the factors that affect it in the public sector. In the second phase, primary data was collected through quantitative research, specifically a questionnaire. Thus, primary data was collected using both qualitative and quantitative methods via a sequential mixed design. In such a design the research is conducted in two phases, with the first phase contributing to the next. In this case, the data collected from the qualitative research was then used for the quantitative research (Kent and Kent 2007). The following figures (20 and 21) illustrate the sequential mixed design of this research.

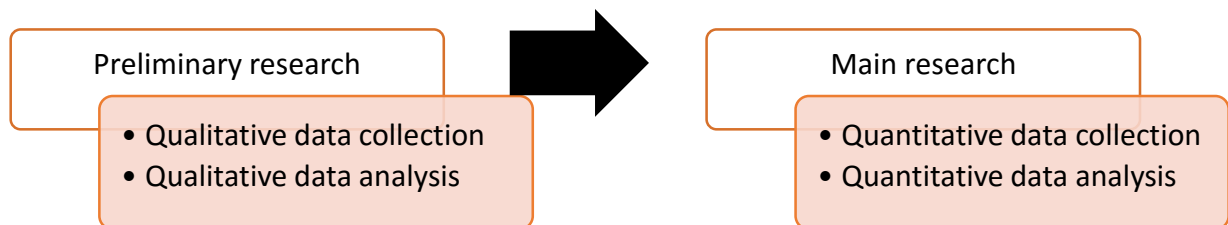


Figure 20: Sequential Mixed Design (a)

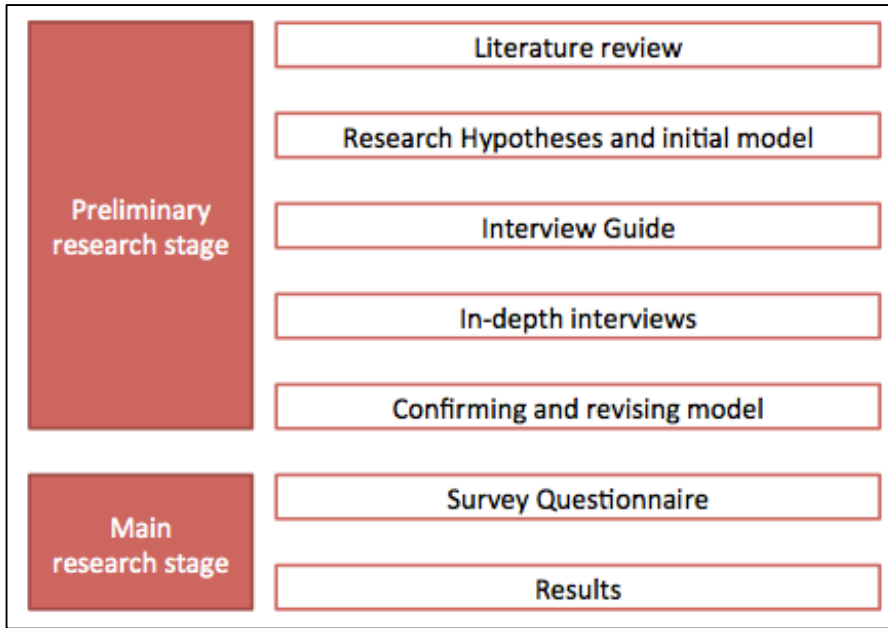


Figure 21: Sequential Mixed Design (b)

### 5.6 Preliminary qualitative stage

There has been a considerable amount of research in the area of internal branding in the private sector (Doyle 1990, de Chernatony and Harris 2001, Miles and Mangold 2004, Finney and Scherrebeck-Hansen 2010), as well as some empirical research on internal branding in non-government public sectors, specifically universities (Judson, Aurand et al. 2009) and place branding (Wong and Merrilees 2008). However, there is no empirical research that investigates internal branding in the public sector, although some have argued that internal branding is not an applicable concept in this sector (Colyer 2006). There is therefore a need to understand and verify the factors that affect the internal branding process in the public sector as depicted in the conceptual model generated from the literature review. Therefore, this research will begin by investigating the issues of brand internalisation depicted in the conceptual model by interviewing middle managers in the Riyadh Municipality.

In-depth, semi-structured interviews are conducted with open-ended questions that guide the interview and allow the interviewee to discuss and expand upon the ideas of internal branding in the public sector and the importance of leadership in the internal branding process. This method has been used by other branding studies such as those of Chapleo (2010) and Hankinson (2004). In order to help to analyse the qualitative data, the interviews were recorded

and transcribed as recommended by Goodman (1999) and later applied by Chapleo (2010). The results were content analysed (Miles and Huberman 1994) and later reviewed by an independent research assistant to confirm the results (Chapleo 2010).

### **5.6.1 Qualitative research objectives**

Although there have been many studies that investigate the role of leadership on public sector performance, there have not been any empirical studies that measure the moderating effect of internalisation on the public sector brand. Therefore, it was necessary to expand on this subject by conducting in-depth interviews that explored the following questions:

1. (RQ1) To clarify the public sector brand.
2. (RQ2) To identify if there are potential benefits to internal branding in the public sector.
3. (RQ3) To identify the consequences and potential outputs for brand internalisation in the public sector.
4. (RQ4) To find the key factors that affect brand internalisation in the public sector.
5. (RQ5) To investigate the role of brand based transformational leadership and brand based transactional leadership in the public sector.
6. (RQ6) To highlight other factors that affect public sector performance.

### **5.6.2 Research method**

A qualitative research method was adopted for this part of the research in order to achieve an in-depth understanding of the research concepts in this new context. The purpose of conducting this preliminary qualitative research was twofold. First, there is little available research on brand internalisation in the public sector, which could affect the validity and applicability of the conceptual framework. Secondly, the interviewees have a better understanding of the day-to-day issues in this context, and they are better able to point out other factors that may affect the relationships and have significant importance. The interviews with middle managers in government organisations aimed to search for a profound understanding of the factors involved and to ‘gain insights, ideas, clarification, etc.’ (Wren et al. 2006, p. 67). ‘Intense research with small samples’ is recommended in such cases (Christy and Wood 1999, p.190). Other researchers have also recommended using an exploratory research to understand relationships in a novel context. Chapleo (2010), who explored higher education branding, argued that the results of these exploratory studies offer representations to the particular questions rather than conclusions. As suggested by McGivern (2003) and applied by Chapleo (2010), a sample size

of 20 to 30 interviewees is ideal for understanding this topic.

### 5.6.3 Sample size and collection

The context selected for this research was the Municipality of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, specifically involving middle managers in this government organisation. These managers held supervisory roles under the top management and executive staff and supervised at least one employee below them. Andersen (2004) and Rainey (1979) investigated middle managers in the public sector and found that actions, procedures and styles are more evident in middle management (Guyot 1962, as cited in Anderson (2004) and therefore are more important when comparing public and private organisations.

In-depth interviews with middle managers in the Riyadh Municipality constituted the main data source. A letter was written to the deputy mayor of the Municipality to help the researcher to meet with middle managers in a variety of departments in the municipality. The deputy mayor approved and forwarded the letter to the appropriate departments.

A random selection was used, and middle managers and branch managers were selected from HR departments, administration, the main headquarters, and licensing departments. One vital criterion that was considered when choosing middle managers for this research was their involvement with citizens.

The survey department of licensing was one of the departments with the highest service demand. In order for citizens to practice a commercial business, build a house, or renovate buildings and homes, they must come to this licensing department, which deals with personal and commercial property. The volume of work in this department is high and it caters to people from all areas of society. The profile of interviewees who informed this preliminary qualitative research is outlined in table 15.

| <b>Profile of interviewees in the preliminary qualitative research</b> |  |   |  |                           |  |
|--|--|---|--|---------------------------|--|
| <b>Interviewee</b>   | <b>Interviewee's role in the Riyadh Municipality</b> | <b>Years of experience in public sector organisations</b> | <b>Number of employees they manage</b> | <b>Background</b>         | <b>Frequency of dealing with citizens / load of service transactions</b> |
| Interviewee 1  | Licensing department                                 | 12 years  | 60                                     | Engineering, architecture | High   |
| Interviewee 2  | Licensing department                                 | 9 years   | 15                                     | Engineering, architecture | High   |
| Interviewee 3  | Licensing  | 10 years  | 11                                     | Engineering,              | High   |

|                |                                    |          |    |                           |        |
|----------------|------------------------------------|----------|----|---------------------------|--------|
|                | department                         |          |    | architecture              |        |
| Interviewee 4  | HR                                 | 26 years | 50 | High school               | None   |
| Interviewee 5  | Planning and design department     | 16 years | 28 | Planning                  | High   |
| Interviewee 6  | Licensing department               | 12 years | 60 | Engineering, architecture | High   |
| Interviewee 7  | Public relations                   | 10 years | 30 | Business administration   | Medium |
| Interviewee 8  | Planning and design department     | 11 years | 6  | Business administration   | High   |
| Interviewee 9  | Media                              | 12 years | 18 | Business administration   | Medium |
| Interviewee 10 | Media                              | 5 years  | 18 | Business administration   | Medium |
| Interviewee 11 | Finance                            | 11 years |    | Accounting                | Low    |
| Interviewee 12 | Licensing department               | 6 years  | 9  | Engineering, architecture | Low    |
| Interviewee 13 | Licensing department               | 10 years |    | Engineering, architecture | Medium |
| Interviewee 14 | Consultants group: the mayor group | 20+      | 25 | Planning                  | Medium |
| Interviewee 15 | Media                              | 12 years | 18 | Business administration   | Medium |
| Interviewee 16 | Finance                            | 8 years  |    | Accounting                | Low    |

**Table 15: Profile of interviewees in the preliminary qualitative research**

#### 5.6.4 Data collection

The researcher conducted semi-structured, open-ended interviews with the 16 interviewees outlined in table 15. Since the interview population consisted of middle managers in the Riyadh Municipality, the procedures followed were those required by this government organisation. A request letter was handed to the deputy mayor's office for approval, along with a summary of the research and the interview guide questions. The mayor's office then issued a letter of consent signed and approved by the mayor of Riyadh. Next, departmental secretaries were contacted in person or by telephone to arrange for a convenient date and time to meet with departmental managers. At the start of the interview, a copy of the authorisation letter was given to the interviewees, a short introduction to the research was made, and the interview guide questions were shared. The researcher also requested permission to record the interview. The majority of the managers granted permission to record the interview, while some only permitted note-taking during the interview. Confidentiality was assured to all participants before the interviews began. A total of 16 interviews were conducted. They lasted between 24 and 111 minutes, and the average length was 57 minutes. Interviews were tape recorded and verbatim transcribed.

Due to the exploratory nature of this preliminary research stage, the informants were given the freedom to talk about related issues or to drift outside the scope of the specific questions. During the interview, the participants were reminded of the confidentiality of their answers in order to encourage them to provide further information. Middle managers were asked to think about internal branding in their government organisation (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007), how internal branding affects delivery of service, and what challenges they might face in implementing internal branding.

After conducting a total of 16 interviews, theoretical saturation was achieved (Guest, Bunce et al. 2006). The researcher noticed that no extra information was present and that there was a clear repetition of data and findings that supported the validation or revision of the conceptual framework of the research.

#### **5.6.5 Interview guide**

An interview guide was informed by the literature review as well as by consulting with two marketing professors. The interview guide is included in appendix (B) and consists of topics such as the definition of a public sector organisation brand, brand internalisation, identifying in-role and extra-role behaviour, exploring the effects of brand internalisation, different styles of leadership, and structural authority, and finally the use of reward systems within their department and public sector organisation.

#### **5.6.6 Gender**

The interviews were only conducted with male managers, because at the time they were conducted there were no female employees in the Municipality. After the interviews were completed, and as part Saudi Arabia's reforms, the Municipality opened a separate section for females. The female employees are located in a separate building and male visitors are not allowed to enter this section. Most of these female employees were front line employees with very few managerial positions. These female employees were included in the quantitative survey questionnaire. There have been changes in the structure of the regional municipal offices very recently. In December 2015, 20 women won positions as managers in municipal offices across Saudi Arabia, out of 900 women who applied (Batrawy 2015). See the section on limitations and future research for more information about possible future research studies that consider female middle managers as brand-based leaders.

### **5.6.7 Data analysis**

The data analysis for this preliminary qualitative stage focused on identifying the factors related to internal branding in the public sector and exploring the relationship and moderating effects of the variables in question. A content analysis approach was therefore adopted (Hsieh and Shannon 2005). The author focused on finding the links between the concepts derived from the interviews, which were then grouped together in relevant themes and categories. These were put into an Excel spreadsheet and measured for frequency. An inductive process was then used to allow the relationships and themes to emerge from the data. The findings were juxtaposed against the research hypotheses to identify which hypotheses were strongly supported, moderately supported, or unsupported by the interview findings, and therefore which should or should not have been tested in the second quantitative stage of the research.

### **5.6.8 Trustworthiness of the data**

In order to ensure the trustworthiness and integrity of the data, a second coder, with an extensive background in qualitative research, was involved. The second coder was in agreement with the qualitative research results.

### **5.6.9 Limitations in the current context**

Some difficulties encountered when collecting the data during the preliminary qualitative stage. It was not easy to find participants for the qualitative phase, and interviewing the middle managers required the approval of the mayor of Riyadh. In order to resolve this problem a letter of request was sent to the mayor that explained the objectives of the research, and the methods that it would use. Initially, the researcher also requested access to the attendance records of the front line employees to investigate the effects of brand internalisation on employee absenteeism rates. The mayor of Riyadh and head of Riyadh Municipality, Prince Dr Abdulaziz bin Mohammed bin Ayyaf, completed his PhD in Urban Planning at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, USA, so had a good understanding of the requirements and rigour of a graduate-level degree. He listened carefully to the researcher's arguments and granted permission to conduct all three elements of the research: interviewing the middle managers for preliminary qualitative research, distributing the quantitative survey questionnaire, and gathering the evidence data records on employee absenteeism. However, despite his written approval, the department heads refused to share the employee absenteeism records and this caused a delay in this research and necessitated a major modification of the desired conceptual

framework and literature review. Despite the approval of higher management, the heads of department considered this information sensitive and confidential.

When conducting the interviews, the researcher was allowed to make recordings, and take notes. The interviewees were informed of the recording device, and shown a copy of the research abstract and of the letter giving the mayor’s approval before the start of the interview.

## 5.7 Main quantitative stage

### 5.7.1 Conceptual model

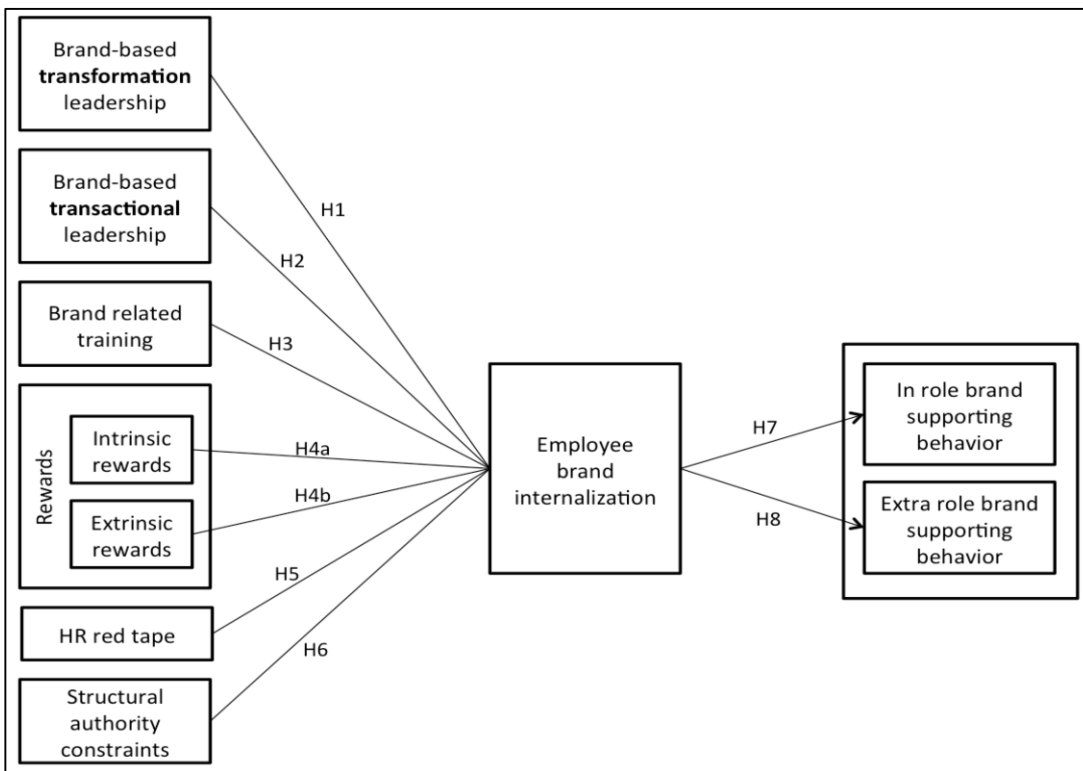


Figure 22: Conceptual model

### 5.7.2 Changes to the survey questionnaire:

The qualitative insights were used to make minor adjustments to the survey questionnaire.

The changes are shown in table 16 below:

| Changes to survey questionnaire based on qualitative insights |  |   |
|---|--|---|
| Change  | Before the qualitative research                                | After taking into account the qualitative insights  |
| 1   | No description or definition of brand was given to respondents | Interviewees seemed to lack an ample understanding of what is meant by an organisational brand. Therefore a definition was added within the survey questionnaire. |
| 2   | Laissez-faire was included                                     | Interviewees (middle managers) described their style  |



|   |  |   |
|---|--|---|
|   | as a leadership type.  | as either transactional or transformational. No reference was made to laissez-faire leadership (exhibiting frequent absence and a lack of involvement during critical junctures). |
| 3 | The question about role identity salience was changed:<br>'For me, working for this organisation means more than just earning my living.'                | Because of the low public sector salaries, this question was changed to 'For me, working for this organisation means more than just receiving a salary'                           |
| 4 | More description was added to the following question:<br>'Please indicate the level of overlap between you and your [organisation name]'s value system'. | It was evident in the interviews that knowledge about brands and brand values was low. This is why a definition and a description were added to this section.                     |
| 5 | The following question was removed from the questionnaire:<br>'Communicate the same organisational brand values in the long term'.                       |   |
| 6 | The following question was added to the questionnaire as an open ended question.   | 'what is your understanding of the organisation brand in the public sector?'  |

**Table 16: Changes to survey questionnaire based on qualitative insights**

### 5.7.3 Research method

In alignment with published studies investigating the role of brand based leadership and brand internalisation (e.g. Morhart et al. 2009), the second quantitative phase of this research focused on using a quantitative method to test the research hypotheses. A structured questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data (see appendix C). Open-ended questions were included at the end of the questionnaire to explore the participants' understanding of the brand of the Riyadh Municipality, their feelings towards their managers, and what they believed were the biggest challenges facing the municipality with regard to performance.

### 5.7.4 Country selection

Saudi Arabia was chosen as the context for this research. There were several reasons for this choice. Most of the studies for transformational leadership have focused on western countries, whereas Saudi Arabia, a developing country in the Middle East, has undergone more dramatic change in the last few years than in any period since the early 1960s (Herb 2014), making it an

interesting environment in which to investigate the effects of transformational leadership. Leadership has been an area of focus in the Middle East (Lian and Tui 2012), with a growing interest in the transformational leadership style (Bealer and Bhanugopan 2013). The stresses placed on Saudi Arabia from neighbouring countries, the security challenges outside of the country, growing rates of unemployment, and disputes over succession all add to the challenge and heighten the importance of leadership in Saudi Arabia (Herb 2014).

The Riyadh Municipality was first established in 1941. It has an elected mayor, who was at first responsible for different departments, including the department of administration, the department of hygiene, and also some security service and the police. Today, the municipality is also responsible for organising and the coordinating the town, authorising the construction of the buildings, preserving the appearance and cleanliness of the entire city, protecting the environment, controlling food and consumer goods, maintaining the safety and comfort of the city, and other vital activities in Riyadh (Unknown 2013).

#### **5.7.5 Sample design**

The target population was defined as government employees working in the Riyadh Municipality. The municipality consists of the finance and administration, planning and coordination, investment development, agency and reconstruction projects, computer and information technology, and services agency departments, as well as 15 sub-municipalities of different regions in the capital. In the city of Riyadh, there are approximately 932,000 government employees, of which 86.5% are Saudi citizens. There are 4,045 architects working in the public sector, of which 85.5% are Saudi citizens. It is estimated that there are only 200 architects in the municipality.

The overarching aim of this quantitative research was to investigate the effect of brand internalisation and leadership on public sector performance. It was hoped that through the results the municipality would be able to enhance its performance and improve its services for the citizens of Riyadh. Therefore, the population for this quantitative research was those employees working for the municipality who:

- have direct contact with the citizens;
- work within a group or a team and report to a manager or supervisor who is not considered to be top management; and

- are at least 21 years of age.

This accounted for a population of 1,000 employees. All these employees received a copy of this questionnaire; 337 questionnaires were returned, meaning that there was a response rate of 33.7%.

### **5.7.6 Data collection**

A survey questionnaire was chosen as the most suitable instrument with which to conduct this quantitative phase and test the research hypotheses. The survey questionnaires were paper-based and distributed in 16 locations. There were collection boxes placed in each of these locations. Data collection took place on weekdays during the working hours of the municipality. On occasion more than one visit to the department took place in order to collect the survey collection boxes. These visits also acted as a reminder to the participants to take part in the questionnaire, because they may have forgotten to do so prior to collection. The survey research was collected for a period of three weeks starting on 1 June 2012.

### **5.7.7 Limitations**

The survey questionnaire was distributed in 16 locations at sub-branches of the municipality, including the main branch, across the capital city of Riyadh. There were challenges to the distribution of the questionnaire as a result of the different locations of the municipal branches. The researcher had to complete the following tasks:

- Design a survey collection box with the municipality logo, a transparent glass design, and a lock. This box would encourage participants to share their feedback and show that their information would remain confidential. It also confirmed the approval of this research by showing the organisational logo. Sixteen box stands were designed (pictures are available on request).
- Visit the branch managers, share the mayor's approval, request letters, and discuss the objectives of the research.
- Observe the different locations of the branch and select the best place to place the survey questionnaire collection box.
- Place the boxes in appropriate places, distribute the survey questionnaire to the departments, and explain to groups of individuals the importance of this research and remind them to complete the survey before the given deadline.
- Make special arrangements to place the survey questionnaires in the newly formed

female sections of the Riyadh Municipality.

- Return to each branch to collect boxes.

Based on the above tasks, the researcher suggests the following amendments to mitigate the challenges that were faced (table 17).

| <b>Limitations and future suggestions for survey questionnaire distribution in public sector offices</b> |   |   |
|--|---|---|
| <b>Number</b>  | <b>Challenge description</b>  | <b>Future amendment recommended</b>   |
| #1   | Several fields were left empty  | Consider using an electronic survey questionnaire to reduce the number of empty fields and marking all fields as 'required'.  |
| #2   | Many employees did not fill out the questionnaire despite several reminders | Consider holding an orientation session, 45 minutes long, in each branch, inviting all the employees to attend so that they can learn about the importance of this research and the vital role that they play in sharing their thoughts and ideas to help to create change and innovation in the Riyadh Municipality. |

**Table 17: Limitations and future suggestions for survey questionnaire distribution in public sector offices**

### 5.7.8 Measurement

The measures for the constructs in the questionnaire were drawn from the literature review, as shown in table 18 below.

| <b>Research hypotheses and corresponding survey questions</b>   |   |
|---|---|
| <b>RESEARCH HYPOTHESES</b>  | <b>CORRESPONDING SURVEY QUESTIONS</b>   |
| H1: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee. | Brand Based Transformational Leadership (questions 1 to 20)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34) |
| H2: A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee.    | Brand Based Transactional Leadership (questions 21 to 28)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)   |
| H3: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee.                          | Brand Training (questions 49 to 54)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)                         |

|  |  |
|--|--|
| H4a: A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.               | Intrinsic Rewards (questions 55, 56, 57, 62, 63, 64, 65, 67, 68)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34) |
| H4b: A significant positive relationships exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.              | Extrinsic Rewards (questions 58 to 61)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)                           |
| H5: A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by employee.                      | Human Resources Red Tape (questions 45 to 48)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)                    |
| H6: A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by employee. | Structural Constraints (question 44)<br>Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)                             |
| H7: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by employee.               | Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)<br>In-Role Behaviour (questions 35 to 37)                           |
| H8: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee.            | Brand Internalisation (questions 29 to 34)<br>Extra-Role Behaviour (questions 38 to 43)                        |

**Table 18: Research hypotheses and corresponding survey questions**

| <b>Constructs, subscales and survey questions</b>                |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| <b>Construct measured</b>  | <b>Subscale</b>  | <b>Questions</b>  |
| <b>Transformational leadership (Morhart et al. 2009)</b>         | <b>Transformational leadership:</b> intellectual stimulation   | 1- My supervisor re-examines critical assumptions of our brand promise to question whether they are appropriate                                   |
|  |  | 2- My supervisor seeks differing perspectives when interpreting our brand values  |
|  |  | 3- My supervisor gets me to look at my job as a branding task   |
|  |  | 4- My supervisor suggests a perspective that promotes the brand when looking at how to complete assignments                                       |
|  | <b>Transformational leadership:</b> inspirational motivation   | (inverted) 5- My supervisor does not talk optimistically about the future of our brand  |
|  |  | 6- My supervisor talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished to strengthen our brand   |
|  |  | 7- My supervisor articulates a compelling vision of our brand   |
|  |  | 8- My supervisor expresses confidence that brand-related goals will be achieved   |
|  | <b>Transformational leadership:</b> idealised influence (attribute)  | 9- My supervisor instils pride in me for being associated with our brand  |
|  |  | 10- My supervisor goes beyond self-interest for the good of the brand   |
|  |  | 11- My supervisor lives our brand in ways that build my respect   |
|  |  | 12- My supervisor displays a sense of power and confidence when talking about our brand   |
|  | <b>Transformational leadership:</b> idealised (influence behaviour)  | 13- My supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of our brand  |
|  |  | 14- My supervisor talks about our most important brand values and his/her belief in them  |
|  |  | 15- My supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of our brand promise   |
|  |  | (inverted) 16- My supervisor does not emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of our brand mission                                  |
| <b>Transformational leadership:</b> individualised consideration | 17- My supervisor spends time teaching and coaching me in brand-related issues   |   |
|  | 18- My supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just one of the many members of the Riyadh Municipality                               |   |
|  | 19- My supervisor considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from other members of the Riyadh Municipality             |   |
|  | (inverted) 20- My supervisor does not help me to develop my strengths with regard to becoming a good representative of the Riyadh Municipality |   |
| <b>Construct measured</b>  | <b>Subscale</b>  | <b>Questions</b>  |
| <b>Transactional leadership (Morhart et al. 2009)</b>            | <b>Transactional leadership:</b> management by exception   | 21- My supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me as a brand representative |
|  |  | 22- My supervisor keeps a careful track of mistakes regarding brand consistency   |
|  |  | 23- My supervisor monitors my performance as a brand representative   |
|  |  | 24- My supervisor is alerted of failure to meet standards for brand-consistent behaviour  |

|  | <i>Transactional leadership:</i> contingent reward   | 25- My supervisor points out what I will receive if I do what is required of a brand representative   |
|--|--|---|
|  |  | 26- My supervisor tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts for brand-consistent behaviour  |
|  |  | 27- My supervisor works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I behave in line with our standards for brand-consistent behaviour |
|  |  | 28- My supervisor talks about special rewards for exemplary behaviour as a brand representative   |
| Construct measured   | Subscale   | Questions   |
| Brand internalisation (Morhart et al. 2009)  | <i>Brand internalisation: role identity salience</i> | 29- For me, working for the Riyadh Municipality means more than just earning a living   |
|  |  | 30- Working for the Riyadh Municipality is an important part of who I am  |
|  |  | 31- I often describe myself to others by saying 'I work for the Riyadh Municipality' or 'I am from the Riyadh Municipality'                 |
|  | <i>Brand internalisation:</i>                        | (inverted) 32- Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of the Riyadh Municipality's image |
|  | <i>Brand internalisation:</i>                        | (inverted) 33- How much I champion the Riyadh Municipality brand is directly linked to how much I am rewarded                               |
|  | <i>Brand internalisation: value congruence</i>       | 34- Please describe which case best describes the degree of overlap between your value system and the value of the Riyadh Municipality      |
| Construct measured   | Subscale   | Questions   |
| In-role behaviour (Morhart et al. 2009; Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010)  | <i>In-role behaviour</i>                             | 35- In citizen contact situations, I ensure that my personal appearance is in line with the Riyadh Municipality appearance                  |
|  |  | 36- I see that my actions in citizen contact are not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behaviour                                |
|  |  | 37- I adhere to our standards for brand-congruent behaviour   |
| Extra-role behaviour (Morhart et al. 2009, adapted from Zeplin 2006, as cited in Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010) | <i>Extra-role behaviour: word of mouth</i>           | 38- I 'talk up' the Riyadh Municipality to people I know  |
|  |  | 39- I bring up the Riyadh Municipality in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances                             |
|  |  | 40- In social situations, I do not often speak favourably about the Riyadh Municipality   |
|  | <i>Extra-role behaviour: participation</i>           | 41- I let my supervisor know of ways that we can strengthen our brand image   |
|  |  | 42- I make constructive suggestions on how to improve citizens' brand experience  |
|  |  | 43- If I have a useful idea on how to improve our brand's performance, I share it with my supervisor  |
| Construct measured   | Subscale   | Questions   |
| Structural authority   |  | 44- Please assess the extent of hierarchical authority constraints in your organisation   |

| Construct measured  | Subscale   | Questions   |
|---|--|---|
| Human resources red tape  | <i>Human resources red tape</i>  | 45- Personnel rules make it hard to remove poor performers from the organisation  |
|   |  | 46- Personnel rules on promotion make it harder for a good employee to move up faster than a poor one   |
|   |  | 47- Pay structures and personnel rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay   |
|   |  | 48- Personnel rules make it hard to hire new employees  |
| Construct measured  | Subscale   | Questions   |
| Brand training  | <i>Training: orientation training new staff</i>                            | 49- The Municipality of Riyadh provides training orientation for newly hired employees  |
|   | <i>Training: formal training that helps reinforce organisational brand</i> | 50- The municipality regularly holds training for employees that helps to clarify the behaviours and values promised by the municipality                          |
|   | <i>Training: effectiveness of training and retention of learning</i>       | 51- The training available through the municipality enables employees to identify with the municipality, its culture, its vision, and what is required in the job |
|   |  | 52- Employees who attend training are given an opportunity to model the knowledge and skills learned in the training  |
|   | <i>Training: informal training that reinforces organisational brand</i>    | (inverted) 53- Employees who attend training are not rewarded when they use the knowledge and skills that they learned while performing their jobs                |
| 54- My supervisor clearly explains the municipality brand values through informal training such as conversations, suggestions, and advice |  |   |
| Construct measured  | Subscale   | Questions   |
| Rewards (Taylor and Westover 2011)  | <i>Rewards: intrinsic rewards</i>  | 55- Working hard is recognised by upper management  |
|   |  | (inverted) 56- Fulfilling all my job responsibilities does little to improve my chances for a promotion   |
|   |  | 57- I have seen good job performance rewarded in my work unit   |
|   | <i>Rewards: extrinsic rewards</i>  | 58- I feel that employees are promoted not because of their years of work but because of competencies and performance   |
|   |  | 59- Individual or team based performance is measured with fairness  |
|   |  | 60- This organisation provides me with fair opportunities for advancement and rewards based on  |



|  |                                       |  |
|--|---------------------------------------|--|
|  |                                       | <b>performance</b>   |
|  |                                       | <b>61- I am satisfied with the amount of pay and rewards I receive based on my job performance</b> |
|  | <b>Rewards:<br/>intrinsic rewards</b> | <b>62- I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job</b>   |
|  |                                       | <b>63- I accomplish something worthwhile with my job</b>   |
|  |                                       | <b>64- I find my job enjoyable</b>   |
|  |                                       | <b>65- I find my job challenging</b>   |
|  |                                       | <b>66- I find that my job requires intelligence</b>  |
|  |                                       | <b>67- I find that my job requires responsibility</b>  |
|  |                                       | <b>68- I find that my job requires personal judgment</b>   |

Table 19: Constructs, subscales and survey questions

The survey was designed with the research hypotheses in mind, and the questions presented a clear, logical progression for the respondents, as well as giving them an open-ended section at the end of the questionnaire so that they could give their comments and thoughts.

Table 20 provides background information about the measurement tools used in this research, focusing on the key variables used in the conceptual model. Each construct is linked to prior studies and indication is given of from where the items were borrowed. Examples of other studies using the same studies are also given. Alpha scores are indicated from previous studies for each construct.

| Background information about measurement tools  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|
| Reference   | Scale items  | Background information about the scale   | Examples of studies that used this scale   |
| <b>Transformational leadership (Morhart et al. 2009)</b><br><b>CR<sup>b</sup> .92 (.91/.91)</b> | <b><i>Brand based transformational leadership</i></b>                        | <b>The scale was adapted from the multifactor leadership questionnaire MLQ (Avolio and Bass 2001).</b><br>Homogeneous item parceling was used to select the items and to create a single construct of the different items for each leadership type.    | <b>(Shaari, Salleh et al. 2015) used Morhart et al.'s (2009) scales.</b><br>This brand leadership survey questionnaire was distributed to Malaysian hotel front line employees (private sector).<br><br><b>(Uen, Wu et al. 2012)</b> used a similar scale to investigate brand based leaders and the effect on employee behaviour in the Taiwanese hotel industry.                                     |
| <b>Transactional leadership (Morhart et al. 2009)</b><br><b>CR<sup>b</sup> .70 (.69/.68)</b>    | <b><i>Brand based transactional leadership</i></b>                           |  |  |
| <b>Brand internalisation (Morhart et al. 2009)</b><br><b>CR<sup>b</sup> .69</b>                 | <b><i>Brand internalisation: role identity salience value congruence</i></b> | This research created the scales for brand internalisation based on the following two studies: role identity scales were from Callero (1985), and organisational identification and value congruence from Cheney (1983, cited in Morhart et al. 2009). | <b>(Morokane, Chiba et al. 2016)</b> investigated employee brand internalisation in the African banking sector (private sector).<br><br><b>(Gammoh, Mallin et al. 2014)</b> used these scales to investigate brand internalisation and the value congruence of marketing and sales representatives in a western country (private sector).<br><br><b>(Preez and Bendixen 2015)</b> used these scales to |

|  |   |  |  |
|--|---|--|--|
|  |   |  | investigate the effect of brand internalisation on satisfaction and commitment to stay in an organisation, in a western country (private sector).  |
| <b><i>In-role behaviour</i></b> (Morhart et al. 2009; Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010)<br>CR <sup>b</sup> .83                                     | <b><i>In-role behaviour</i></b>   | This scale was created by Morhart et al. (2009) because no previous scales were available for this particular construct.                                     | <b>(Vlachos, Panagopoulos et al. 2014)</b> conducted a study in a European country in order to investigate how employees' judgement of an organisation affects their in-role and extra-role behaviour.   |
| <b>Extra-role behaviour</b> (Morhart et al. 2009, adapted from Zeplin, 2006, as cited in Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010)<br>CR <sup>b</sup> .89 | <b><i>Extra-role behaviour: positive word of mouth participation</i></b>  | Word of mouth with a three-item scale from Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003)<br><br>For participation, we adapted three items from Bettencourt's (1997) study. | <b>(Fu, Li et al. 2014)</b> investigated the employee organisation relationship and its effect on employee citizenship behaviour (OCB) (considering OCB as an extra role behaviour). This research was carried out in a Chinese hotel context. |
| <b>Structural authority constraints</b> (Bozaman 2000; Wright and Pandey 2010)<br>CR <sup>b</sup> was between 0.78 and 0.92).                | <b><i>Perception of employees towards the structural authority constraints</i></b>  | The scale was originally designed by Bozeman (2000) and used by Write and Pandey (2010).   | <b>(Ljungholm 2014)</b> produced a theoretical study that investigated some of the constructs that were included from these scales and aimed to gain a deeper understanding of factors involved in public sector red tape.                     |
| <b>Human resources red tape</b> (Wright and Pandey 2010)<br>CR <sup>b</sup> was between 0.78 and 0.92).                                      | <b><i>Perception of employee towards HR red tape within the public sector</i></b>   | This scale was adapted by Wright and Pandey (2010) from Pandey and Scott (2002) and Rainey (1983).   | <b>(Mason and Meehan 2012)</b> investigated the UK public sector and barriers to collaboration using an adaptation of this scale.  |
| <b>Training</b> (Punjaisri and Wilson 2007)<br>CR <sup>b</sup> .8  | <b><i>Training: orientation training new staff</i></b><br><b><i>Training: formal training that helps reinforce the organisational brand</i></b><br><b><i>Training: effectiveness of</i></b> | Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) designed this scale to investigate the role of training on employee brand internalisation.                                       |  |

|   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|--|
|   | <b>training and retention of learning</b><br><i>Training:</i><br>informal training that reinforces organisational brand |   |  |
| <b>Rewards (Taylor and Westover 2011)</b><br>Extrinsic rewards<br>CR <sup>b</sup> .60<br>Intrinsic rewards<br>CR <sup>b</sup> .66 | <i>Rewards:</i><br>intrinsic rewards<br><i>Rewards:</i><br>extrinsic rewards<br><i>Rewards:</i><br>Intrinsic Rewards    | An international study was conducted to investigate what motivates public sector employees. | A similar scale was used by <b>(Westover 2012)</b> to investigate the differences between the intrinsic and extrinsic effects on job satisfaction from an international perspective. |

**Table 20: Background information about measurement tools**

It is evident from table 20 above that the scales used for this research come from a collection of different sources from previous research studies. Some of these research studies were conducted in the private sector, others in the public sector. Every effort was made to find scales that were previously used in settings similar to that of this research. However, when such precedents were unavailable, the author examined the usability of this scale in a non-western country. Samples from the table above show that the scales were used in developing countries such as China and several African countries. Furthermore, every effort was made to find research studies in which the scale was administered in a public sector setting. When this was not available, the author ensured that there were examples of using the scale in service sector settings.

### 5.7.9 Content validity

Two professors and one doctoral student were asked for their input regarding the content validity and clarity of the survey questionnaire. They were asked four main questions:

1. Do the measures solicit information that is relevant to the construct being measured? Are the questions clearly stated?
2. Do you think there are any other items that should be included to measure the desired construct?
3. Can you make any other suggestions to improve the quality of the survey questionnaire?

The required changes were made and incorporated into the final questionnaire, which is

shown in appendix C.

#### **5.7.10 Pilot Testing**

Thirty pilot tests were conducted with public sector employees who did not take part in the final survey. Based on these pilots, the questionnaire design was updated, and the presentation of the questions was changed. Some of the questions were also rephrased.

The survey questionnaire was printed and shared with employees from the Riyadh Municipality, specifically those from the licensing department. The licensing department was chosen because of its active involvement with citizens: it is one of the busiest departments in the municipality. It also has a variety of educational backgrounds, from high school level to graduate degrees, which would give a good understanding of how employees of different educational levels interpret the survey questionnaire. The survey questionnaire was printed and shared with these employees by hand, and the researcher noted any verbal comments that were shared by the participants. All the participants were male. The objectives of the pilot were:

- To check the wording of the questionnaire: there is difficulty translating complex English terms into Arabic, and it was important to make sure that the wording in Arabic conveyed the desired message.
- To check the level of the academic language. Because this survey questionnaire was distributed to front line employees in the Riyadh Municipality, it was vital that the language was clear to those with high school diplomas as well as those with graduate level degrees, so complex terms like ‘brand internationalisation’, ‘brand based behaviour’, ‘transactional leadership’, etc. needed to be avoided or explained.
- To highlight any possible limitations: the survey questionnaire attempts to gather complex information from the participants, and it was important to ascertain whether the options available for the questions were clear and valid. For this objective, the researcher noted whether the participants had any difficulty responding to any particular area of the survey questionnaire.
- Minimising blank questions: the researcher also looked out for any sections that were left blank, indicating that these sections may be unreliable or in need of revision.

Table 21 shows the demographics of those who took part in the pilot survey.

| <b>Demographics of people participating in the pilot testing of the survey questionnaire.</b> |        |             |                                      |
|---|--------|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| Subject   | Gender | Nationality | Current position in the municipality |
| 1   | Male   | Saudi       | Manager                              |
| 2   | Male   | Saudi       | Chief of department                  |
| 3   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 4   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 5   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 6   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 7   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 8   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 9   | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 10  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 11  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 12  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 13  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 14  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 15  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 16  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 17  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 18  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 19  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 20  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 21  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 22  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 23  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 24  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 25  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 26  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 27  | Male   | Saudi       | Engineer                             |
| 28  | Male   | Saudi       | Receptionist                         |
| 29  | Male   | Saudi       | Receptionist                         |
| 30  | Male   | Saudi       | Receptionist                         |

**Table 21: Demographics of people participating in the pilot testing of the survey questionnaire.**

After the pilot was completed, the following improvements were made to the survey questionnaire.

1. The Likert scale from 1 to 5, 1 being the lowest score and 5 being the highest, was not clear to some participants. Therefore, a clear description was included at the beginning of each section to clarify the Likert scale, and the alternative wording ‘not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, frequently if not always’ was also included to help the survey participants.
2. Participants had difficulty understanding the word ‘brand’ (question 34), so the researcher included a brief definition of this term to help them to answer the question accurately.
3. It was difficult for the participants in the pilot to reflect on value congruence and how closely they were aligned with the organisational brand (question 34). Therefore, a visual element was added to help the participants to answer this question.

The above changes were made and incorporated into the final questionnaire, which is shown in appendix C.

#### **5.7.11 Data analysis design**

In this study, the research hypothesis established in chapter 4 was grouped according to themes. The investigative analyses for each of these groups are explained below.

The first segment investigates the direct effects of brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, and structural authority constraints on brand internalisation.

This effect was tested using regression technique.

- The second segment investigates the effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour. This effect was tested using multiple regression technique.
- The third segment investigates the effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour. This effect was tested using multiple regression technique.

Next, the conceptual model assumes that brand internalisation mediates the relationship between brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, and structural authority constraints and in-role and extra-role behaviour. This will be tested with mediation testing. Finally, differences between the various subcategories of the demographic characteristics: gender, age, educational level, years of experience, grade in organisation, or department, in regards to transformational leadership, transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and structural authority constraints. The analysis was conducted using multi-group analysis.

#### **5.7.11.1 Exploratory factor analysis**

The general aim of conducting factor analysis is in order to condense the information that originates from the variable into a new, small collection of dimensions and factors that best define the original variable under investigation without loss of valuable information (Fabrigar, Wegener et al. 1999). In this research, factor analysis was conducted in relation to the scales of the following variables: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, in-role behaviour, and extra-role behaviour. This was done in order to support the reliability and the validity of the survey questionnaire. Following this, the results to the scales were used to conduct the correlation and regression analysis.

#### **5.7.11.2 Correlation**

Correlation analysis is conducted in order to investigate the strength and the direction of the relationships between two variables (Pallant 2005). In this research, a correlation study was conducted before conducting the regressions.

#### **5.7.11.3 Regression analysis**

Linear regression analysis is used to investigate if the two variables are related and also to determine the strength of their relationship (Menard 2002). In multiple regression analysis, more than one variable can be the predictor of another variable and our investigation becomes about finding out how much a variable explain or predict the other variable.



Multiple regression analysis is conducted to investigate the amount to which one variable predicts a set of other variables (Hair, Anderson et al. 1998). Multiple regressions make the distinction between the dependent and independent variables.

A stepwise regression is a method of regressing more than one variable and simultaneously removing the variables that have the least effect. Stepwise regression performs multiple regressions several times, each time removing the variable with the weakest correlation. Stepwise regression is useful for researchers who are investigating several exploratory variables and it assists in finding the best possible model by testing all regressions (Jamal and Naser 2002).

#### **5.7.11.4 Mediation**

Mediation analysis means to investigate if the relationship between the exposure variable and the outcome variable are affected by a mediator. It tests if there is a direct relationship between these variables and if the mediator variable causes the outcome variable. In other words, does the mediator variable clarify the relationship between the exposure and the outcome? In this research, mediation analysis is conducted using the classical regression approach by Baron and Kenny (1986) to test if brand internalisation mediates the relationship between brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, structural authority constraints and in-role and extra-role behaviour.

#### **5.7.11.5 Post-hoc analysis**

A thorough post-hoc analysis was conducted on the data to investigate the varying effects of the demographic variables such as gender, age, educational level, years of experience, grade in organisation, or department, in regards to transformational leadership, transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and structural authority constraints. For demographic data that had more than two groups, data was split into high and low scores, and then a multi-group analysis was conducted using regression analysis.

### **5.7.12 Ethical considerations**

The following guidelines were followed to ensure that ethical considerations were met during both preliminary and main research stages:

- Interviewees were allowed to wander freely within their responses to the questions.
- They were asked to give illustrations of their claims to ensure that there was no interview-related bias in the responses (Boyd Jr and Westfall 1970).
- The researcher ensured the interviewees' confidentiality.
- The survey questionnaire passed the university's ethics committee.
- A request was submitted to the mayor's office in the Riyadh Municipality and the author was granted permission to interview employees and distribute the survey questionnaires.
- All the data was collected anonymously and kept confidential.
- The questionnaire was pilot tested in order to identify possible areas that required improvement or clarification.
- Leading or biased questions were avoided in both stages of this research.
- The constraints and challenges faced during each research stage were clearly stated.
- The limitations and future possible research avenues were also clearly stated.

## **5.8 Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed the research methods that were used to conduct this research. First, it was stated that the adopted research paradigm of this research was the positivist approach. Next, the research design was presented as being a mixed method, exploratory design; the qualitative phase focused on semi-structured interviews with middle managers, and the quantitative phase was a survey questionnaire delivered within the public sector employees of the Riyadh Municipality in Saudi Arabia. Next in the qualitative research methods, the objectives were clarified and a discussion was presented about the appropriateness of using interviews for this research study. Mainly, this was because of the lack of available research on brand internalisation in the public sector. Next, the profiles of the interviewee participants was presented, which were mainly middle managers with experience ranging from five to 26 years in the Riyadh Municipality. Only

male participants took part in this research because at the time of the interviews there were no female employees at the municipality, but as we see later on, this dramatically changed by the time the author conducted the quantitative survey questionnaire. The limitations of conducting interviews in the Riyadh public sector were discussed. Following this, the main methods for the quantitative section were presented and the changes to the survey questionnaire were discussed. The sample design and limitations to data collection were mentioned in order to get a better understanding of the context. Details were given about the scale background, sharing examples of where the scales were previously used and how they were adapted. Next, the pilot testing procedures were presented. Finally, the section ended with a presentation of the data analysis design for the quantitative section of the research. This explained how the conceptual framework was segmented, the techniques used to test each segment, as well as the post-hoc analysis. In the next chapter, the findings from the qualitative research are presented.

-- Chapter Six --  
Qualitative Findings

## **6 Chapter 6: Qualitative findings**

### **6.1 Introduction**

Based on the literature review, a conceptual framework was developed by the author with the research hypothesis. In order to investigate these research hypotheses, a survey questionnaire was designed. However, before conducting the main quantitative section of this study, the preliminary qualitative stage was conducted in order to explore the constructs and gain a deeper understanding of the research questions. Section 6.2 reminds us of the qualitative research questions. Section 6.3 reviews the modes of analysis that were used and how the data was coded and reduced in order to provide an interpretation of the data. Section 6.4 begins by presenting the interview findings by grouping them into the research questions. There are six subsections dedicated to the six qualitative research questions. Finally, section 6.5 presents a summary of the chapter.

### **6.2 Qualitative research questions**

Before we present the interview findings, let us review the qualitative research questions.

(RQ1) To clarify public sector brands.

(RQ2) To identify whether there is a potential benefit to brand internalisation in the public sector.

(RQ3) To identify the consequences and potential outputs of brand internalisation in the public sector.

(RQ4) To find the key factors that affect brand internalisation in the public sector.

(RQ5) To investigate the roles of brand based transformational leadership and brand based transactional leadership in the public sector.

(RQ6) To highlight other factors that affect public sector performance.

### 6.3 Modes of interview analysis

The interview findings will be presented using the method suggested by Brinkmann and Kvale (2009) as shown in table 22 below.

| <b>Modes of interview analysis for research, adapted from Brinkmann and Kvale (2009)</b> |  |
|--|--|
| <b>Modes of interview analysis</b>   | <b>Description</b>   |
| Meaning coding   | The process of reading the transcripts of the interviews and coding certain statements for later retrieval so that codes can be combined, text analysed, insights gained, and the information interpreted. Coding can be concept-driven or data-driven. Because the researcher did not create codes prior to the interview, the coding for this research was data-driven and developed through the reading of the transcripts. |
| Meaning condensation   | Builds on meaning of the coding and condenses the information gathered to present it in a structured format that gives a simple overview of the occurrences. First, the researcher reads the entire transcript as a whole, then creates 'natural meaning units'. Meaning is then interpreted in terms of the purposes of the research, and the themes of the entire interview are tied together into descriptive statements.   |
| Meaning interpretation   | The researcher goes beyond what is actually said and expands on the text in more words than the original.  |

**Table 22: Modes of interview analysis for research, adapted from Brinkmann and Kvale (2009)**

After reading through the transcripts, and organising the findings, a coding system was created for this research, which is shown in figure 23. These codes were presented in a condensed form in order to gather the related constructs and the umbrella constructs.

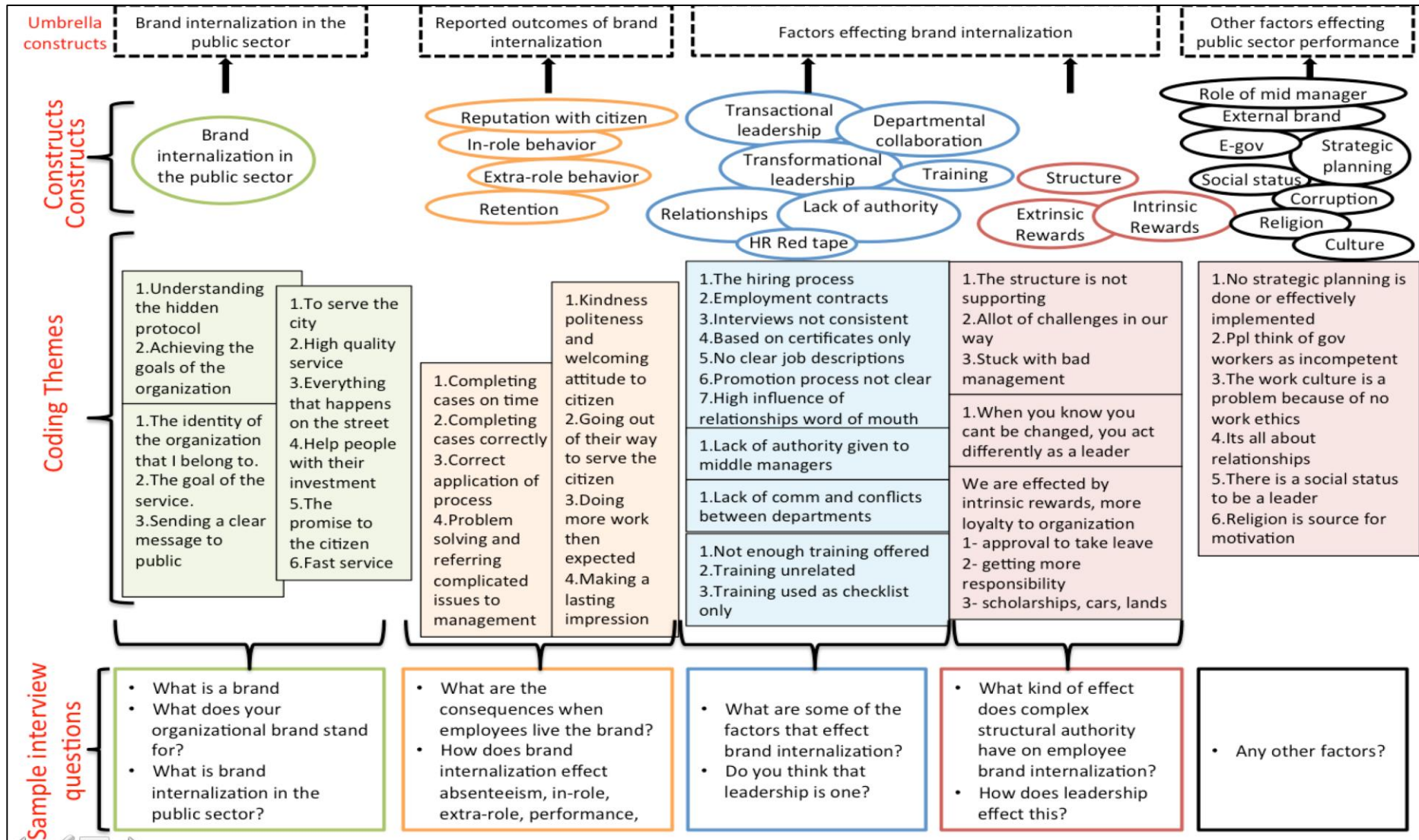


Figure 23: Model of the data reduction process

The following section builds on the coding system developed above and presents the qualitative findings in a format that shows the number of times these codes occurred in the interview transcripts. Figure 24 shows a categorisation of the interview: the blue shows confirmations of the statement, while the orange shows disconfirmations. The figure was made possible by coding the interview transcripts. The graph demonstrates how the interviewees felt about the main topics that were relevant to this research. Each of the sections represented in the graph are considered as a natural meaning unit.

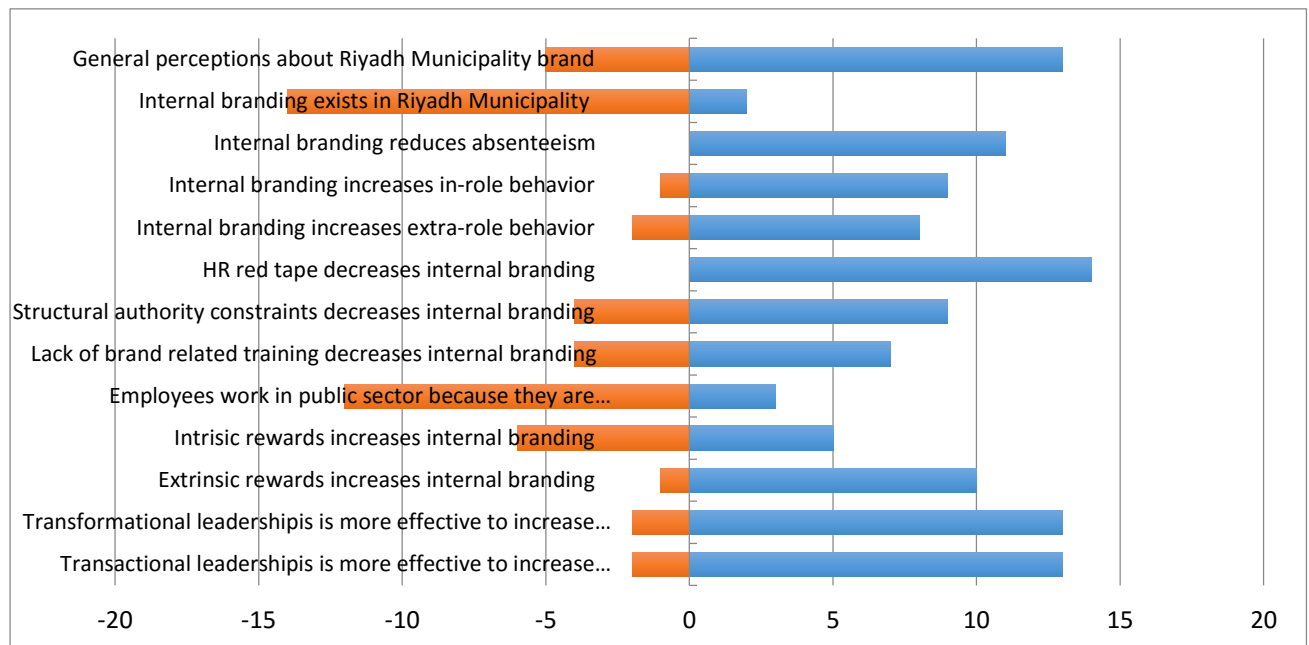


Figure 24: Categorisation of interview findings

## 6.4 Interview findings

### 6.4.1 (RQ1) To clarify the public sector brand

The findings from this research shed light on general perceptions of the public sector brand. The majority of the interviewees seemed to have a positive general understanding of what the concept of the brand meant in the public sector, mirroring existing studies of branding in the public sector (Wæraas 2008, Serrat 2010, Whelan, Davies et al. 2010). They described the organisational brand as the organisation's promise, institutional identity, and goals, and the mental perception that it leaves with the stakeholders. They added that the organisation's brand includes both tangible and intangible elements such as its logo and slogan and the events that are conducted by the public sector organisation. The public sector organisational brand is the



promise that you make to the citizens who you are serving. Even indirect events affect the organisation brand. In the Riyadh Municipality, the events that take place in the city, how citizens experience the city's streets, and even the pavements, have an indirect but definite effect on citizens' perceptions of the organisation.

*'Everything that happens in the street, affects the citizens' psychology, such as the pavements done by the [organisation], the events provided by the organisation; it is very close to the people, changing the mentality of the people' (interviewee 7).*

Most employees identified the Riyadh Municipality's brand identity, as a promise to its citizens to service them with 'transparency', 'consistency' and 'innovativeness' (figure 25).

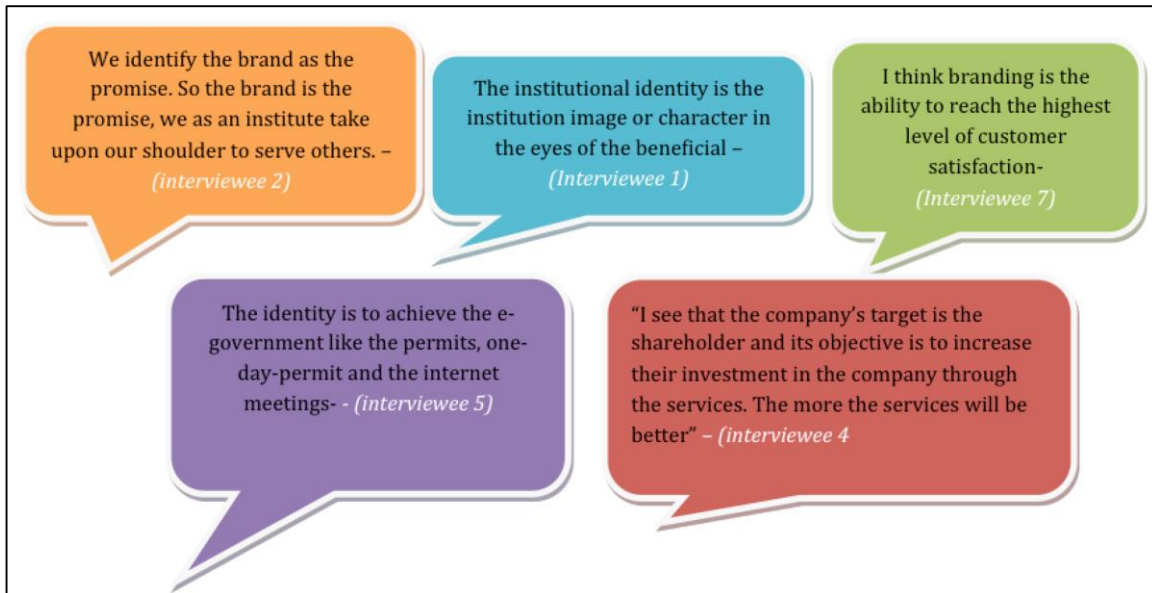


Figure 25: Example quotations about the Riyadh Municipality's brand identity

But what is the brand of the Riyadh Municipality? Figure 26 shows some of the perceptions that were found to be associated with the Riyadh Municipality public sector brand.

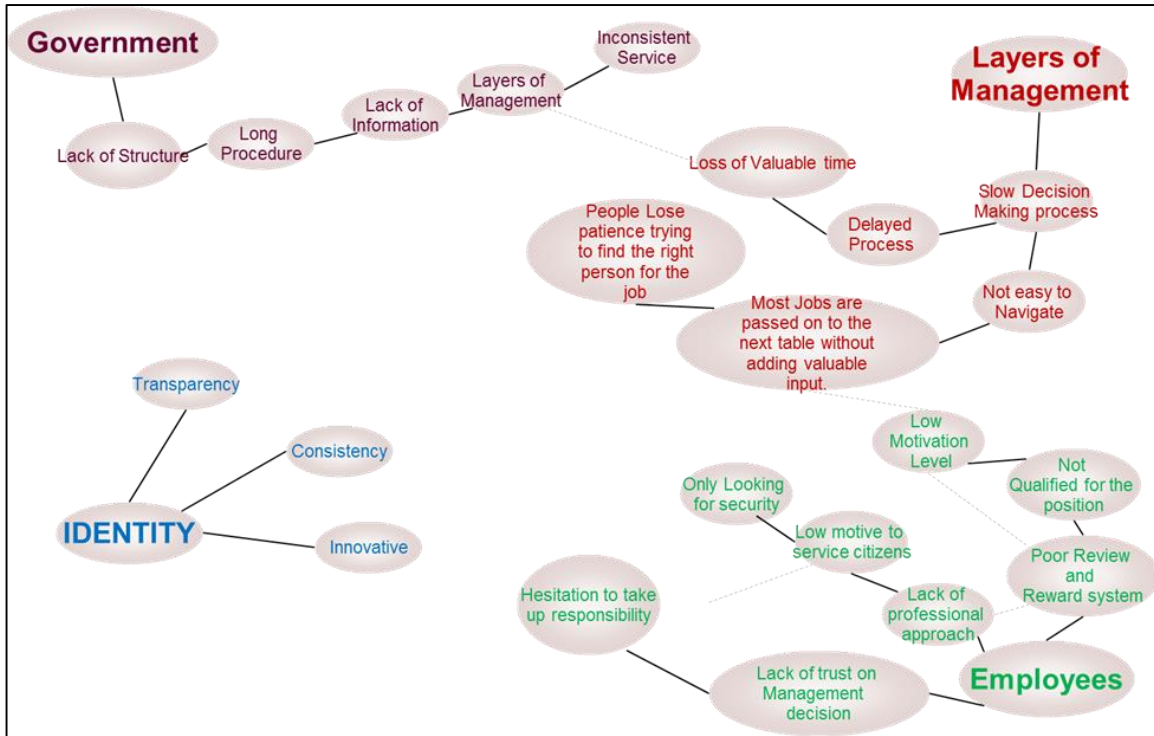


Figure 26: Perceptions of the Riyadh Municipality public sector brand

Some interviewees referred to the public organisation’s brand in relation to the speed of service.. This included finishing cases on time, as well as in terms of helping to make the city a friend of the citizen, helping and encouraging citizens to stay in the capital, providing the regulations and controls to support investment projects and real estate development., and being ‘easy’ with the citizen, without breaking the law.

*‘To serve the city in all areas’ (interviewee 4).’*

*‘To finish the cases of the citizens as quickly as possible.’ (Interviewee 5‘)*

*‘The goal is to help people develop their investments and establish real estates and provide services for real estate development in the city’ (interviewee 1).*

However, there seems to be a disconnect between the desired goal of the organisational brand and the actual perceptions of the Riyadh Municipality. The public sector was described as the place where it takes a long time to finish citizen’s case and the brand was described as being inconsistent in the eyes of citizens, because they are confused about the role of the municipality. The general public describes the Riyadh Municipality as an institute that ‘lacks structure’, has ‘long procedures’, a ‘lack of appropriate information’, and ‘multiple layers of management’,

and provides ‘inconsistent services’. Some interviewees feel that the general public is confused by the government because of its multiple levels of management, so they associate the government and its departments with ‘slow decision processes’, ‘delayed processes’, and the ‘loss of valuable time’. It is also believed that ‘people lose patience trying to find the right person for the job’, find the system ‘not easy to navigate’, and believe that ‘most jobs are passed on to the next table without adding value.’ For this very reason, citizens may refrain from dealing directly with the government and prefer to hire middlemen whose role is to visit the organisation daily to follow up on their case.

The results suggest that there is a public sector brand, but that there is a disconnect between the objectives of the organisation and how the brand is perceived in the minds of the stakeholders. This adds to the importance of branding in the public sector. The Riyadh Municipality is concerned not only about the services it provides but also about the impression it leaves on its citizens. The most common pattern we get to see here is that the Riyadh Municipality’s overall brand identity is broadly defined as being ‘transparent’, ‘consistent’, and ‘innovative’; however, this is not necessarily the case for all the departments and employees working in the Riyadh Municipality. Each department has a separate brand identity defined by specific goals and tasks, and these tasks and goals are defined by individual supervisors managing small teams and by department managers. Procedures and workflow are designed by mid-level managers to bring structure to their teams. This would in turn help them to achieve department-specific goals. Therefore, if a department has a workflow for taking care of customers’ needs, it enjoys a positive customer opinion. Other departments whose approach is old-fashioned (i.e. they do not care for the customer) tend to attract negative customer opinions; this dilutes the positive efforts and initiatives of a few supervisors and department managers.

Hence, we can conclude that without an overall framework that governs all the departments under one brand identity umbrella, the Riyadh Municipality will always face negative opinions internally and externally.

Table 23 presents an overview of the perceptions of the Riyadh Municipality public sector brand.

## Perception of the Riyadh Municipality brand by middle managers in the public sector organisation

## PUBLIC SECTOR BRAND IN THE SAUDI GOVERNMENT SECTOR

|  |   |                 |
|--|---|-----------------|
| Positive connotations of the public sector brand | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The municipality makes a promise to the citizens</li> <li>Provides a high quality service</li> <li>Provides a fast service and rapid completion of cases</li> <li>Helps people to develop their investments</li> <li>Has responsibility for attending to all the issues of the capital city</li> </ul> | 13 interviewees |
| Negative connotations of the public sector brand | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Lengthy service time</li> <li>Unclear and contradictory procedures</li> <li>Reliance on relationships and personal favours</li> <li>Difficult for the average citizen to use</li> </ul>  | 5 interviewees  |

**Table 23: Perception of the Riyadh Municipality brand by middle managers in the public sector organisation**

In the above section, we displayed the perceptions of different interviewees regarding how they define the organisational brand in the public sector, and we found that the definition of the organisational brand was different from one interviewee to another. There were both positive and negative connotations of the public sector brand. After reviewing the general understanding of the public sector brand, we will look at the perceptions of internal branding in the Riyadh Municipality public sector.

#### **6.4.2 (RQ2) To identify whether there is a potential benefit to internal branding in the public sector**

In this section, we will review the potential benefits of internal branding in the public sector, and the potential positive outcomes of employees 'living the brand' in the Riyadh Municipality public sector organisation.

Public sector employees are thought to be the heart of an organisation. If they are not on board and are not ready to implement what is being asked of them, then the organisation is taking a huge risk and this may hinder its ability to reach its desired goal of serving the citizen.

Employees argue that there is a mismatch between the organisational goal and values (brand) and that of their behaviour (brand based behaviour) and therefore, there are low levels of brand internalisation. Employees do not consistently act in alignment with the brand. They argue that although the organisational brand is communicated to them via posters, booklets, and policies, there are two kinds of internal branding messages, one that is declared, and another that is

hidden, and they need to understand and be able to balance between both levels of brand values.

*'The policy is not holy, it is there as a suggestion, this is what the citizen believes. And if he comes to the municipality with his case, and the employee simply follows the procedure, then the citizen will feel that the employee is against him, his opponent, his enemy. But if the employee shows the citizen that there are so many limitations, and rules but that the employee will help the citizen, then he feels good, like he did his job. This should not be the case; it should not be like this' (interviewee 14).*

Overall, most of the interviewees believed that brand internalisation was high in the organisation as a whole. Others believed that changes are happening.

*'In the past there was no internal branding, but I feel that top management is investing in giving their employees scholarships, cars, training courses, and this is increasing their loyalty' (interviewee 4).*

Interviewees argued that this variation within the organisation in terms of the brand internalisation had affected the motivation of some employees, who felt judged by someone else's work. Citizens will come with ideas based on what they have experienced in other departments every time they approach a different department. Employees therefore feel judged by other departments' standards, and this has an effect their brand internalisation. The organisational brand in the public sector cannot be dependent on one person or department. It needs to be consistent within all the areas of the organisation.

Interviewees also argued that citizens spread word of mouth quickly about the organisational brand, using social media and direct word of mouth, which is another reason why employees and the organisation need to be more diligent in providing a consistent message throughout the organisation.

*'The organisational brand should not be dependent on the individuals; it should be consistent within the organisation, but this is not what happens... The world is changing, and criticising methods are enormous... I can go to more effective ones like Facebook, Twitter, etc.... You have to do your job properly, give the image to the client that we say what we do and do what we say'.*

Brand internalisation is also affected by other factors. Some respondents felt that the main

reasons why employees are not able to affiliate themselves with the identity of the Riyadh Municipality are that they are either unqualified for the position or they come into the department with the wrong set of attitudes. They lack professionalism, a desire to serve citizens, a clarity of personal goals, and a personal drive to achieve high standard of service. New recruits join government departments for job security with less responsibility and more monetary gain. When the personal goals of an individual employee are short-sighted, they will never be equipped to take on the work pressure of government departments and service customers, no matter how much training they receive, bearing in mind that they represent the Riyadh Municipality as an identity.

Others described a different segment of managers that is more old-fashioned. They do not follow a framework; they tend to overstep their authority and power to overturn the decisions taken by mid-level managers. They are obsessed with control and are unwilling to delegate the decision making process. This makes it very difficult for mid-level managers to carry out swift transactions, making the process obsolete and lengthy.

Table 24 below summarises the findings of this section.

| Perceptions of internal branding in the Riyadh public sector |   |
|--|---|
| Internal branding in the Saudi public sector                 |   |
| Negative perceptions of internal branding                    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Brand message is available (in booklets, posters, website, etc.) but not communicated and transmitted to employees by leaders.</li> <li>• Interviewees argued for the potential benefit of internal branding; most managers want to increase internal branding.</li> </ul> |
| Challenges to internal branding                              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inconsistency of objectives and contradictory aims of different departments.</li> <li>• Lack of brand based leadership.</li> </ul>   |

**Table 24: Perceptions of internal branding in the Riyadh public sector**

### **6.4.3 (RQ3) To identify the consequences and potential outputs of brand internalisation in the public sector**

#### **Behavioural effects of internal branding**

##### **In-role behaviour**

Although interviewees did not argue that employees ‘lived the brand’ – in other words, brand internalisation was low – there was evidence that in-role behaviour in the organisation was high. In-role behaviour in this context can be thought of as attending to a citizen’s case and

dealing with it effectively and in record time. The interviewees discussed that the time that the employee took to complete the citizen’s case was an achievement: ‘this equation is the measurement of time, the number of treated violations, and the time taken to finish the case’ (interviewee 6). Interviewees also added that completing the case correctly was a necessary criteria along with the time measurement. Interviewee 14, for instance, noted that ‘rapid achievement is not the only measurement, what is the benefit from completing a wrong transaction... applying the system in a good way is considered a measurement in performance’. Overall, although brand internalisation was not evident, there was evidence that in-role behaviour was common in the organisation, with a focus on completing tasks, following the ‘book of rules’, and completing citizens’ cases promptly.

| Perceptions of in-role brand-building behaviour in the Riyadh public sector |   |
|---|---|
| In-role behaviour in the Saudi Arabia public sector                         |   |
| Examples of in-role behaviour   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Completing citizens’ cases on time; rapid achievement</li> <li>• Completing cases correctly</li> <li>• Correct application of process</li> <li>• Problem solving and referring complicated issues to management</li> </ul> |

**Table 25: Perceptions of in-role brand-building behaviour in the Riyadh public sector**

### Extra-role behaviour

In the public sector, extra-role behaviour has several definitions. Interviewees argued that it involved building a strong positive perception with citizens, pleasing the citizens, attending to their work, being polite, and smiling. Interviewee 2 offered a description of an employee going ‘out of his way’ in his role:

*‘An example of going out of your way and doing more is that one of the employees that contributed a mobile device so that they can text the client. To show you an example of this improvement: the telephone line and machine were brought by one of the staff. I only charge it. I tried to give him money but he refused and said he brought it from his house, he didn’t buy it’ (interviewee 2).*

The interviewees also believed that it is not enough to provide a service to citizens but it must be done with an appropriate attitude: ‘with a good manner, to meet him with a smile, [otherwise] the citizen feels that you are against him’ (interviewee 14). There was also some support for the idea that employees who were motivated and inspired by their leaders to do more than what they are expected to do: ‘they do more than their work’ (interviewee 5).



Interviewee 3 described this extra-role behaviour as follows: ‘my aim goal is public satisfaction and giving a good impression and serving the public by fulfil their expectations politely’ (interviewee 3).

Interestingly, one interviewee stated that the motive for going beyond the required everyday tasks might not always be to benefit the public sector organisation, but rather to seek personal benefits. He gave the following example:

*‘Public sector employees must create a good name for themselves with the community and the citizens if they are planning to open their own consultancy in the future; they have to go beyond their daily work and create their relationships with other departments as well’ (interviewee 3).*

| Perceptions of extra-role brand building behaviour in the Riyadh public sector |  |
|--|--|
| Extra-role brand building behaviour in the Saudi public sector                 |  |
| <b>Examples of extra-role branding building behaviour</b>                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Kindness, politeness, and a welcoming attitude to the citizens.</li> <li>• Going out of their way to solve challenging issues for citizens</li> <li>• Taking personal responsibility for serving citizens</li> <li>• Doing more work than expected</li> <li>• Making lasting impressions on citizens</li> </ul> |

**Table 26: Perceptions of extra-role brand building behaviour in the Riyadh public sector**

#### **6.4.4 (RQ4) To find the key factors that affect brand internalisation in the public sector**

Several key factors were found to affect brand internalisation in the public sector, including:

1. Structural constraints
2. HR red tape
3. A lack of authority
4. Relationships and corruption
5. A lack of brand relation training
6. Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards
7. Departmental collaboration

#### **Structural constraints**

Structural constraints are high in the Riyadh Municipality public sector. The structural authority constraints do not protect citizens or employees. They lack clarity and as a result cause employees to try to protect themselves so that they are not held responsible for a certain judgment in a particular case. In addition, the number of hierarchies and departments with



which the citizen must communicate also affects the perception of the citizen and the organisational brand. Employees negatively view these structural authority constraints and it was evident from the findings that this was negatively affecting their internalisation with the public sector organisational brand.

*'One department has a thousand departments, too many hierarchies. So many departments, so many managers, exhausting for the citizen. This weakens the department. 20 here and 20 there I have to follow'.*

*'He [referring to higher management] is not achieving my goal, rather he is an obstacle to the goal of the department. If we are 60 people trying to produce the work in two days, I expect the same from higher management, but if it goes there and stays there for 60 days then what's the use? We are judged in the end by their achievement as well, then I would rather do nothing and follow the old system. The employees, they are demotivated. Because if I pressure my staff to process the case very fast and accomplish in very short time, then when I process and pass it to higher management then they take time, next time, my employees will not accept my pressure, they do not see it as necessary. Because what is the point, when it will be delayed by someone else?'*

The interviews highlighted that the brand of the public sector organisation is inextricably linked with complex structural authority constraints. The majority of the interviewees believed that more delegation should be given to the lower level managers in order to break away from this image. Interviewees felt hindered by the complex structural authority constraints and this affected their attitudes and behaviours with citizens, and thus their brand internalisation as well as their performance (in-role and extra role):

*'Reality stops us from implementing the brand, and there are a lot of challenges that stand in your way,. One of the things is the amount of paperwork for any improvement that you want to do' (interviewee 15)*

Overall, structural authority constraints seem to have a negative influence on public sector employees' motivation and subsequently their brand internalisation.

### Examples of structural authority constraints

- Many hierarchies, bureaucracies, and committees, which act as barriers to improvement.
- Nepotism hinders other pending cases.
- Citizens filing for unnecessary cases or projects that are not confirmed because of the time of process.
- External constraints from outside the municipality.
- Constraints from other departments within the municipality.

**Table 27: Perceptions of structural authority constraints in the Riyadh public sector**

### HR red tape

Public sector employees raised serious concerns about HR restrictions, red tape and how they affected their alignment with the organisational brand values which hinders their ability to behave consistently within the requirements and vision of the organisational brand. Promotions, recruitment procedures, and employee appraisals are all HR mechanisms that do not follow a clear procedure. All the interviewees noted that the current system of promotion had a negative effect on brand internalisation. In their public service organisation, promotion was related to years of service or the relationship that an employee had with top management. Public sector employees were promoted regardless of their achievements based only on their years of service.

*'If the employee in the private sector works hard, he'll take a bonus. But the government employee doesn't take a higher salary no matter how hard he works. His effort doesn't make any difference. Whether I give it 50% or 100% or even 0%, in the end I will get paid. It is a very difficult procedure to be fired' (interviewee 5)*

Overall, the qualitative findings provided strong support for the idea that human resources red tape decreases employees' brand internalisation:

*'If some of your employees are working hard and you want to give them overtime, by the time you process the overtime, you will find that there is no fund for the overtime along with a million other HR restrictions. This will demotivate them and then for next time will not motivate them to perform and they will not believe in the organisation as supporting them and encouraging them to perform.'*

### Perceptions of HR Red Tape constraints in the Saudi public sector

Examples of HR red tape – a negative influence on brand internalisation.

- Hiring process not aligned with the organisational brand.
- Employment contracts do not contain specific job descriptions.
- Interviews are not consistent, and most supervisors do not conduct interviews.
- Based on certificate only.
- Staff appraisals are not linked to performance, leading to demotivation.
- No clear performance indicators.
- No clear job descriptions.
- Promotion process not clear.
- High influence of relationships and word of mouth.

**Table 28: Perceptions of HR red tape in the Riyadh public sector**

### Relationships and corruption

Public sector employees need to handle their relationships with their direct supervisors very sensitively:

*‘As an employee working in the public sector, you will be promoted and given a raise regardless of your productivity or performance. Production is not the issue; so if his manager likes him, he will be promoted’ (interviewee 3)*

### Brand-related training

Interviewees also argued that brand-related training is needed to boost congruence with the organisational brand identity and to teach employees about brand based behaviours. The interviewees suggested that training in the Riyadh Municipality is not currently related to the organisational message. It does not matter if the employee attends the training or not: they are not there to learn, they are there to check a checkbox and achieve the requirements for potential promotion. Others are pessimistic and say that even attending training will not help with promotions without a positive relationship with the manager or connections with top management:

*‘Training, whether I attend or do not attend, it doesn’t matter. How will this affect any reward or promotion? It doesn’t’ (interviewee 15)*

Yet, the interview data suggested that public sector employees who maintained good

relationships with management received approval for attending local and international training programmes and that this in turn increased their motivation. This relationship-driven process was illustrated by interviewee 3:

*‘If you are on good terms with your direct manager, you will get all the available benefits. If you are on good terms with the general manager, he will recommend you to all external training courses, even before your direct manager gets to know about it.’*

Most interviewees believe that their brand internalisation was affected by training, not because they learnt new skills or behaviours that were in alignment with the organisation, but because they were motivated to work in other ways by gaining other benefits. Employees attended training for different reasons, many of which have nothing to do with organisational brand internalisation. They attended training in order to take days off work, to travel, or to achieve a checklist for potential promotion.

| Perceptions of effectiveness of training courses in the Riyadh public sector |   |
|--|---|
| Perceptions of training courses in the Saudi public sector                   |   |
| Positive connotations of training in the public sector                       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training increases employees’ intrinsic motivation and internalisation of the brand.</li> </ul>  |
| Negative connotations of training in the public sector                       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training is not related to the brand.</li> <li>• Training does not lead to promotion.</li> <li>• Not learning anything from training.</li> </ul> |

**Table 29: Perceptions of effectiveness of training courses in Riyadh public sector**

### **Intrinsic reward and extrinsic reward**

Next, interviewees were asked to discuss the effect of rewards on brand internalisation and on brand based behaviour. Rewards were found to have an effect on motivation. In particular, it was evident that intrinsic rewards have some positive effects on motivation. The interviewees argued that intrinsic rewards have a lasting effect, while extrinsic rewards have more short-term effects. However, it was noted that there are benefits to both types of rewards.

Overall, there was some evidence that a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards fostered motivation that in turn aided brand internalisation. Yet, there was greater focus on the positive effects of intrinsic rewards. These findings are summarised in table 30.

| Examples of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards in the Riyadh public sector |  |
|---|--|
| Perceptions of rewards in the Saudi public sector                               |  |
| Examples of intrinsic rewards   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Approval to take leave.</li> <li>• Lenience in check-in and check-out time.</li> <li>• Obtaining more responsibility (challenging work).</li> <li>• Gaining a 'title' promotion (without financial grade promotion).</li> </ul> |
| Examples of extrinsic rewards   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Scholarships.</li> <li>• Cars.</li> <li>• Training courses.</li> <li>• Land.</li> </ul>   |

**Table 30: Examples of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards in the Riyadh public sector**

### Departmental collaboration

The work of an employee in one department can be affected negatively if the citizen has a bad experience in a different department. If there is no consistency in the way in which citizens are served within the organisation, then employees feel demotivated: what is the use of their working hard when the citizen has already made up their mind about the organisation and about the service that they are about to receive? Citizens develop their expectations based on prior experiences, and employee brand internalisation is affected negatively as a result:

*'Regardless of what we do in our department, other departments could destroy it, so the citizen is already coming with a bad experience from another department' (interviewee 1)*

This finding was outside of the scope of this research, and therefore it was not pursued in the quantitative part of this research.

### 6.4.5 (RQ5) To investigate the role of transformational and transactional leadership in the public sector

#### Leadership in the public sector

Leaders believe that they are more transformational, or at least that they are more in favour of a transformational leadership style. Interviewees argued that they challenged their employees to solve difficult cases for citizens, and that employees shared decision making responsibility.

*'I am more of a transformational leader, because when the case is there I let my employees think how they will solve the case. I let them think with me. Because all the*

*paperwork here doesn't have a clear determined mechanism, so it depends on the cases.'*

They further argued that they do not have the authority to implement a transactional leadership style. The interviewees, as middle managers, are also followers because they are below top management in the organisational hierarchy, and top management restricts their ability to act as transactional leaders.

*'When as a leader I ordered another person to work on the basis of a specific mechanism, another manager who is above me by two or three levels in administration came and they called employees that are under my supervision and asked them to do it a different way' (interviewee 1)*

The relationships between middle managers and top management were, therefore, complex and often conflicting, and lacked trust and transparency. In addition, some interviewees argued that middle managers were not appropriately briefed in order to encourage employees to 'live the brand' (table 31).

| Qualitative findings about leadership |   |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| Leadership style                      | Findings from qualitative research  |
| Transformational leadership           | <p>Managers believe that they are role models and that they need to be 'hands on' involved in their job. These are characteristics of transformational leaders. Most managers in the public sector take their word seriously, and honour promises they make. They encourage weekly meetings with their employees and encourage brainstorming sessions so that their team feel some ownership of the organisation.</p> <p><i>'During the regular work meeting I gave my staff the chance to think about solutions to these problems' (interviewee 2).</i></p> <p>However, intellectual stimulation can be difficult when employees are not used to being involved in the thinking process. Middle managers find it difficult to involve those employees in shared decision making if they are only used to doing, and not to thinking.</p> <p>Intellectual stimulation and shared decision-making help to build a sense of urgency within the organisation: even the extra-role behaviour of the front line staff is affected: they are not just doing the task at hand; they feel the urgency and the benefit of achieving their tasks.</p> <p>Some interviewees argued that the type of leadership depends on the type of follower. If they do not have the skills and abilities to think, be challenged, develop, or be motivated, then transformational leadership will not be useful in their case.</p> <p><i>'The transformational works more with the internal branding (I need to convince you deeply within your values and personal objectives, if I can change that, then I can inspire you to move and take initiative, This kind of change I cannot achieve with transactional leadership. But it depends on the kind of the worker, if they are with limited skills and capabilities, there is a difference in their cognitive thinking type' (interviewee 2).</i></p> |

|                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| Transactional leadership | This is evident in the public sector. Public sector employees do not have a vision of what they are supposed to achieve. There is no written plan for them to follow; they just do what they are told. If employees finish the task quickly then they will be favoured in comparison with other employees.<br><i>'There is no written plan, we just do what we are told' (interviewee 15).</i> |
|--------------------------|--|

**Table 31: Qualitative findings about leadership**

### **Leadership affects absenteeism**

There was evidence that both transactional and transformational leadership styles can have a positive effect on absenteeism. Interviewees argued that in their context transactional leadership had an important effect on absenteeism. Interviewees described the ideal leader as having firmness as well as an inspirational and motivational personality.

*'Absenteeism is affected by motivation and leadership. Motivate and give the employees the self-esteem they need, otherwise they will feel boring, and normally will be absent from work and, yes, I have witnessed some improvement by doing that. The attendance is much better; it is not great, but it is better than before (interviewee 2).'*

Following this finding, the researcher asked the municipality for absenteeism data, but the request was denied. Therefore, although this finding emerged in the qualitative stage, it was not further researched in the quantitative stage.

## **6.4.6 (RQ6) To highlight other factors that affect public sector performance**

### **Other factors affecting performance in the public sector**

#### **Religion and service to the public**

Some interviewees believe that their commitment to serving the citizen was a religious responsibility that exceeded their loyalty to the organisation. Religion affected both in-role and extra-role behaviour. These employees argued that religion motivates them to serve citizens.

*'I am motivated to serve the citizen and not to delay him, if I have a million cases in front of me' (interviewee 5).*

*'My motivation to serve the citizen is stronger than my loyalty to the organisation' (interviewee 1).*

*'This is a religious motivation that I feel. I do not want to be a liar in front of the citizen. When I tell him to come tomorrow for his case, tomorrow means tomorrow'*

(interviewee 5).

*'For me, I think that the Muslims are led by their religion in this matter' (interviewee 1).*

This component was outside the scope of this research and therefore was not addressed in the quantitative section of this research.

### **Culture and status within the community**

It was evident across the interviews that public sector employees' brand internalisation was also affected by what citizens and 'society at large' thought of them as professionals. Employees were more motivated and their behaviour was in better alignment with the organisational brand when they felt that their reputation in the eyes of citizens was at stake.

*'They don't want the citizen or anybody to talk about them badly, so they care about their reputation, it's not about the salary (interviewee 5).'*

*'The problem is that the department reviews a lot of segments and classes of the society with different cultural, social, intellectual and financial backgrounds. So dealing with them is different and this is the primary stake for us, suffering in giving each person something based on the educational level he came from'.*

In addition, it was noted that work ethic also had an effect on brand internalisation. Work ethic in the public sector was described as being low and it was seen to prevent employees from 'living the brand' in the eyes of the citizens.

*'I have a problem with the culture, the staff behaviour; we need to build the professionalism of the staff and the work ethics' (interviewee 2).*

### **6.5 Chapter summary**

The preliminary qualitative stage was needed to gain a deeper understanding of the internal brand in the Riyadh public sector. The method of data analysis followed the work of Brinkmann and Kvale (2009). A coding system was created, classifying the constructs, coding the themes and supporting the themes with sample interview questions (figure 23). Different methods and charts were used to present the data and categorise the findings, which were then presented according to the six qualitative research questions. By examining the results, it was



clear that the participants had an appreciation of the importance of a public sector brand (over 70% had positive perceptions about the brand – see table 23). However, there appeared to be a disconnect between the organisational goals and the actual perceptions of the Riyadh Municipality, hence the potential benefit of internal branding.

Based on the findings of preliminary research, table 32 was created to present the overarching findings and how they link back to the research hypothesis.

| Research hypothesis and supporting evidence from qualitative research stage.  |  |
|---|--|
| Research questions  | In-depth interviews  |
| H1: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee. | Somewhat supported.<br>Some support for the idea that brand based transformational leadership enhances employees' ability to internalise their organisational brand based role.<br>There is little evidence of brand based transformational leadership in the organisation.  |
| H2: A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee.    | Supported – reverse direction.<br>High degrees of transactional leadership were evident in the interviews, and they were positively associated with employees' ability to internalise their organisational brand based role.   |
| H3: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee.                          | Supported.<br>Interviewees also argued that brand-related training is needed to boost congruence with the organisational brand identity  |
| H4a: A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.                      | Supported.<br>There is evidence from the interview findings that there is a greater importance of intrinsic rewards, and they have a lasting effect on employees.  |
| H4b: A significant positive relationships exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.                     | Somewhat supported.<br>There is evidence that middle managers in the Riyadh Municipality believe that extrinsic rewards have a short-term positive effect on their employees.  |
| H5: A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by employee.                             | Supported<br>Salary is not related to performance, but rather to attendance. There are no recruitment procedures to verify person-organisation fit. Therefore, the HR policies do not support the organisational brand and thus hinder brand internalisation.<br>Additionally, the HR policies are created and developed by a different ministry altogether. |
| H6: A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by employee.        | Not supported<br>Although there are many structural authority constraints in the public sector, employees do not feel that they are an obstacle to executing what they believe in. Experience has taught them how to find 'loop holes in the public organisation rule book'.   |
| H7: A significant positive  | Not supported  |

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by employee.</p>                               | <p>Public sector in-role brand-based behaviour was found to be unaffected by brand internalisation. Rather, high degrees of transactional leadership were found to have a direct influence on in-role brand based behaviour.</p>   |
| <p>H8: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee.</p> | <p>Somewhat supported.</p> <p>Firstly, there is no clear brand established by the organisation. Each interviewee has his or her own understanding of the organisational brand message. However, there is an implicit understanding of the brand that aims 'to finish the citizen fast, without mistakes, and keep the citizen happy', which, for the purposes of this research, can be thought of as the organisational brand message. Analysis of the effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour shows that that there is extra-role brand based behaviour: to have a good reputation, to earn citizens' trust, to do favours, and to help citizens. However, word of mouth was negative, the internalisation of the brand was low, and organisational citizenship behaviour was uncommon. Public sector employees are ready to do the extra work, but not because they believe in the organisational brand. On the contrary, they disagree with, and are dissatisfied by, the organisation's approach and confused about its brand.</p> <p>In summary, brand internalisation was found to have a low effect on extra-role behaviour.</p> <p>Extra-role behaviour was evident in most interviews, but it was defined differently than has been previously assumed. Extra-role behaviour in the findings could be defined as: taking on larger workloads and participating in creative problem solving for the benefit of the citizen. Extra-role behaviour was found not to include word of mouth.</p> |

**Table 32: Research hypothesis and supporting evidence from qualitative research stage.**

-- Chapter Seven --  
Quantitative Findings

## **7 Chapter 7: Quantitative findings**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter reports the findings from the quantitative phase of this research. The chapter is divided into the following sections.

Section 7.2 presents a background of the survey questionnaire and the response rate. Section 7.3 presents a description of the demographic profile. Section 7.4 presents the descriptive analysis of each measurement scale. Constructs were investigated for their normality. In section 7.5, the results of the exploratory factor analysis are presented for each construct. In section 7.6, the goodness of fit of the data is presented.

In the next section, the findings of the statistical analysis are presented. The statistical analysis design is divided into six steps. In step 1, the findings from the Pearson Correlation (section 7.7.2) are presented. In step 2, the results of the stepwise regression are presented, highlighting the factors effecting brand internalisation (section 7.7.3). In step 3, the results from the linear regression are presented showing the effects of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour (section 7.7.4). In step 4, the results from the linear regression are presented, highlighting the effects of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour (7.7.5). In step 5, the results of the mediation testing (section 7.7.6) are presented. In step 6, the findings from the post hoc analysis; including the influence of gender, age, educational level, years of experience, role in organisation, and grade (section 7.7.7) are presented. In section 7.8, the results from the open-ended questions on the survey questionnaire are presented. In section 7.9, the summary of the chapter is presented.

### **7.2 Response rate**

Having conducted the pilot test of the questionnaire and after the revision of the questionnaire, which led to some changes in regard to the questionnaire's content and layout, the final data collection process was conducted. This process was carried out for a period of three weeks starting on 1 June 2012. As stated in the previous chapter, data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire that was distributed to approximately 1,000 employees. (Section 5.1 in chapter 5 described to whom, where and how the questionnaires were distributed). The questionnaire was distributed in 16 locations (branches) and a total of 337 questionnaires were returned, meaning that there was a response rate of 33.7%.

### 7.3 Overall sample demographic profile

The demographic profile of the survey respondents is shown in table 33. Moreover, 51% of the respondents were male while 48% were female. The largest age group consisted of those between the ages of 26 and 30 (38%). 12% of the respondents were under the age of 25, 20% of them were between 31 and 35, and 11% were above 35 years of age. As for the educational level, the majority of them had bachelor's degrees (61%), 18% had a diploma<sup>1</sup>, 14% had only completed high school and fewer than 3% had no high school certificate. 59% of the respondents had under four years of experience. Therefore, it is evident that the majority of the respondents were recent university graduates. The majority of respondents did not work in managerial positions (59%), and had a grade of 5 or less. As for the department that took part in the survey, the majority of the respondents were at the headquarters from the different departments of the municipality.

| Demographic profile  |                       |                         |     |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-----|
| Demographic variable | Category              | Research sample (N=352) |     |
|                      |                       | Frequency               | %   |
| Gender               | Male                  | 174                     | 51% |
|                      | Female                | 165                     | 48% |
|                      | Not reported          | 13                      | 1%  |
| Age                  | <20                   | 3                       | <1% |
|                      | 21-25                 | 39                      | 11% |
|                      | 26-30                 | 131                     | 38% |
|                      | 31-35                 | 68                      | 20% |
|                      | 36-40                 | 21                      | 6%  |
|                      | 41-45                 | 12                      | 3%  |
|                      | 46-50                 | 5                       | 1%  |
|                      | 51-55                 | 2                       | <1% |
|                      | 56-60                 | 0                       | 0   |
|                      | 61-65                 | 0                       | 0   |
|                      | 66+                   | 0                       | 0   |
|                      | not reported          | 71                      | 20% |
| Education Level      | Less than high school | 2                       | <1% |
|                      | Intermediate school   | 7                       | 2%  |
|                      | High school           | 49                      | 14% |
|                      | Diploma               | 63                      | 18% |
|                      | Bachelor's degree     | 208                     | 61% |
|                      | Master's degree       | 13                      | 3%  |
|                      | Doctoral degree       | 3                       | <1% |
|                      | Not reported          | 7                       | 2%  |
| Years of experience  | Less than 1 year      | 22                      | 6%  |
|                      | 1-4 years             | 183                     | 53% |
|                      | 5-8 years             | 72                      | 21% |

<sup>1</sup> A diploma in this context is considered to be less than a bachelor's degree; it could be a vocational diploma and is usually one to two years of university level education.

|                              |                                       |     |     |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----|-----|
|                              | 9 to 12 years                         | 40  | 11% |
|                              | 13 to 16 years                        | 9   | 2%  |
|                              | more than 17 years                    | 21  | 6%  |
|                              | not reported                          | 5   | 1%  |
| Role in organisation         | Deputy manager                        | 2   | <1% |
|                              | Deputy assistant                      | 7   | 2%  |
|                              | General manager                       | 3   | <1% |
|                              | District manager                      | 15  | 4%  |
|                              | Department manager                    | 51  | 15% |
|                              | Supervisor                            | 50  | 14% |
|                              | Non-manager                           | 203 | 59% |
|                              | Not reported                          | 21  | 6%  |
| Grade in organisation        | Contract                              | 87  | 25% |
|                              | 4                                     | 104 | 30% |
|                              | 5                                     | 65  | 19% |
|                              | 6                                     | 34  | 10% |
|                              | 7                                     | 10  | 3%  |
|                              | 8                                     | 4   | 1%  |
|                              | 9                                     | 3   | <1% |
|                              | 10                                    | 2   | <1% |
|                              | 12                                    | 3   | <1% |
|                              | not reported                          | 27  | 7%  |
| Department in which you work | Shmaisy district – male               | 13  | 3%  |
|                              | Department of licensing               | 17  | 4%  |
|                              | Department of planning                | 9   | 2%  |
|                              | Department of administration          | 8   | 2%  |
|                              | Media and Public Relations            | 8   | 2%  |
|                              | Studies and design                    | 4   | 1%  |
|                              | Department of Land                    | 6   | 2%  |
|                              | Al Mamzar district – male             | 17  | 5%  |
|                              | Technical committee                   | 9   | 3%  |
|                              | Al Mamzar district – female           | 20  | 5%  |
|                              | Headquarters – female section         | 36  | 10% |
|                              | Shmaisy district – female             | 42  | 13% |
|                              | Al sulaimaniya district – female      | 21  | 6%  |
|                              | Al sulaimaniya district – male        | 3   | <1% |
|                              | Department of environmental health    | 5   | 1%  |
|                              | Department of land and properties     | 6   | 2%  |
|                              | Department of IT                      | 8   | 2%  |
|                              | District of alShamal – male           | 7   | 2%  |
|                              | Department of supervision & execution | 3   | <1% |
|                              | Department of labour                  | 5   | 1%  |
|                              | Al batha district                     | 7   | 2%  |
|                              | Al arimaa district                    | 11  | 3%  |
|                              | Department of sanitation management   | 12  | 3%  |
|                              | District of alShamal – female         | 14  | 4%  |
|                              | District of al rawda – female         | 21  | 6%  |
|                              | Not reported                          | 40  | 11% |

Table 33: Demographic profile

#### 7.4 Descriptive analysis of measurement scales and normality test:

The aim of this section is to present the descriptive results for the measurement scales for each of the constructs of the research model and to provide evidence for the normal distribution of the data. The proposed model of this study contained the following nine constructs: brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, brand internalisation, in-role behaviour, extra-role behaviour, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards.

| <b>Summary of descriptive statistics</b> |             |           |                 |                 |
|--|-------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|
| <b>Variables</b>                         | <b>Mean</b> | <b>SD</b> | <b>Skewness</b> | <b>Kurtosis</b> |
| Brand based transformational leadership  | 66.09       | 17.54     | -0.643          | -0.362          |
| Brand based transactional leadership     | 24.66       | 8.11      | -0.105          | -0.642          |
| HR red tape                              | 13.99       | 3.93      | -0.338          | -0.503          |
| Brand training                           | 15.54       | 5.55      | -0.073          | -0.861          |
| Intrinsic rewards                        | 41.80       | 11.04     | -0.795          | 0.421           |
| Extrinsic rewards                        | 14.42       | 6.40      | 0.087           | -0.847          |
| Structural authority constraints         | 5.08        | 2.83      | 0.022           | -0.680          |
| Brand internalisation                    | 10.59       | 3.22      | -0.511          | -0.595          |
| In-role behaviour                        | 12.40       | 2.47      | -1.2            | 1.728           |
| Extra-role behaviour                     | 16.64       | 4.89      | -0.284          | -0.430          |

**Table 34: Summary of descriptive statistics**

According to Hair et al. (1998), skewness values within the range of -1 to +1 indicate a normal distribution. As we can see from the summary table 34, and the results for the individual variables in the tables below, the skewness and kurtosis values for most of the variables fall within this range, indicating a normal distribution. However, the skewness value for in-role behaviour is higher than the benchmark. Although it is high, this study is the first of its kind, and exploratory in nature, therefore we will proceed.

Details about each of the items or questions, percentage data for each scale, means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis are reported in table form in the next sections.

##### 7.4.1 Results of brand based transformational leadership

The brand based transformational leadership levels were measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from '1' (not at all) to '5' (frequently if not always). The results of the descriptive analysis for brand based transformational leadership items are shown in table 35. The results show that the respondents believed their leaders re-examined critical assumptions of the organisational brand to question whether they were appropriate ( $M=3.69$ ,  $SD=1.2$ ), and that their leader seeks different perspectives when taking decisions ( $M=3.44$ ,  $SD=1.25$ ). They believe that their leader frequently gets them to look at their task as a branding task ( $M=3.73$ ,

SD=1.3), while completing assignments and promoting the organisational brand (M=3.55, SD=1.32). The leader talks optimistically about the brand (M=3.87, SD=1.27). The leader expresses confidence that organisational brand-related goals will be achieved (M=3.58, SD=1.3) and looks for the good of the organisational brand more than his or her self-interest (M=3.5, SD=1.4). More than half of the respondents see their leaders as a role model for living and acting in alignment with the organisational brand (M=3.62, SD=1.3). The respondents feel respect towards their leader and how they are living the organisational brand (M=3.62, SD=1.368).

Respondents express that their leader regularly talks about the organisational brand promise (M=3.56, SD=1.319), specifies why it is important to have a clear organisational brand message (M=3.68, SD=1.343) and talks about the brand in confidence and a sense of power (M=3.86, SD=1.291). Respondents believe that their leaders give high regard for the ethical and moral boundaries of their daily work and the promise that the organisational brand makes to the citizens (M=3.91, SD=1.236). They feel treated and valued as an individual (M=4.15, SD=1.212).

| Descriptive statistics for brand based transformational leadership (N=352) |                |      |                    |     |       |      |       |          |          |
|--|----------------|------|--------------------|-----|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items  | Response scale |      |                    |     |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|  | Not at all     |      | Frequently /always |     |       |      |       |          |          |
|  | (1)            | (2)  | (3)                | (4) | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 1  | 7.4%           | 8.5% | 24.4%              | 27% | 32.7% | 3.69 | 1.2   | -0.66    | -0.44    |
| 2  | 9.7%           | 11%  | 30%                | 23% | 25%   | 3.44 | 1.25  | -0.387   | -0.751   |
| 3  | 9%             | 8%   | 22%                | 22% | 39%   | 3.73 | 1.3   | -0.717   | -0.575   |
| 4  | 10%            | 10%  | 22%                | 22% | 33%   | 3.55 | 1.33  | -0.508   | -0.896   |
| 5  | 42%            | 20%  | 20%                | 11% | 9%    | 2.25 | 1.32  | 0.711    | -0.689   |
| 6  | 7%             | 10%  | 17%                | 22% | 44%   | 3.87 | 1.271 | -0.845   | -0.428   |
| 7  | 10%            | 17%  | 23%                | 19% | 32%   | 3.45 | 1.345 | -0.333   | -1.104   |
| 8  | 10%            | 13%  | 19%                | 26% | 32%   | 3.58 | 1.32  | -0.572   | -0.827   |
| 9  | 16%            | 13%  | 17%                | 18% | 35%   | 3.43 | 1.481 | -0.405   | -1.256   |
| 10   | 14%            | 13%  | 18%                | 21% | 35%   | 3.5  | 1.426 | -0.483   | -1.107   |
| 11   | 11%            | 12%  | 20%                | 20% | 38%   | 3.62 | 1.368 | -0.578   | -0.913   |
| 12   | 8%             | 10%  | 15%                | 23% | 44%   | 3.86 | 1.291 | -0.876   | -0.405   |
| 13   | 10%            | 11%  | 20%                | 21% | 39%   | 3.68 | 1.343 | -0.642   | -0.801   |
| 14   | 8%             | 10%  | 15%                | 23% | 44%   | 3.56 | 1.319 | -0.572   | -0.786   |
| 15   | 10%            | 11%  | 20%                | 21% | 39%   | 3.91 | 1.236 | -0.888   | -0.319   |
| 16   | 11%            | 11%  | 21%                | 26% | 31%   | 2.19 | 1.302 | 0.736    | -0.701   |
| 17   | 6%             | 10%  | 16%                | 23% | 45%   | 3.22 | 1.385 | -0.192   | -1.179   |
| 18   | 44%            | 20%  | 17%                | 13% | 7%    | 4.15 | 1.212 | -1.32    | 0.64     |
| 19   | 16%            | 16%  | 24%                | 20% | 24%   | 3.42 | 1.385 | -0.5     | -0.95    |

Table 35: Descriptive statistics for brand based transformational leadership

#### 7.4.2 Results of brand based transactional leadership

The brand based transactional leadership levels were measured with a 5-point Likert scale



ranging from ‘1’ (not at all) to ‘5’ (frequently if not always). The results of the descriptive analysis for brand based transactional leadership items are shown in table 36. The results show 62.2% of the respondents did not believe that their supervisor frequently focuses on regulations, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected ( $M=2.96, SD=1.4$ ). In addition, 63.1% believed that their leader did not frequently keep careful track of their mistakes regarding brand consistent behaviour ( $M=2.8, SD=1.4$ ).

Approximately half of the respondents believed that their leaders monitored performance for errors that needed correction ( $M=3.24, SD=1.3$ ) and were alert to any failures to meeting standards of expected organisational behaviour ( $M=3.2, SD=1.34$ ). More than half of the respondents stated that their leader fairly often or frequently points out what they will receive when they do what is required for their organisation ( $M=3.46, SD=1.33$ ).

The majority of the respondents did not believe that their leaders talk about any special rewards that they would get for exemplary behaviour ( $M=2.61, SD=1.474$ ). Instead, they work out agreements with them on what they will receive if they behave in line with the organisational standards for brand-consistent behaviour ( $M=3.06, SD=1.456$ ) and also what to do in order to be rewarded ( $M=3.31, SD=1.417$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for brand based transactional leadership ( $N=352$ ) |                |       |                    |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|---|----------------|-------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items   | Response scale |       |                    |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|   | Not at all     |       | Frequently /always |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|   | (1)            | (2)   | (3)                | (4)   | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 21  | 23.3%          | 17.3% | 21.6%              | 15.9% | 21.9% | 2.96 | 1.464 | 0.047    | -1.347   |
| 22  | 29.3%          | 14.5% | 19.3%              | 20.7% | 16.2% | 2.8  | 1.462 | 0.096    | -1.383   |
| 23  | 14.5%          | 13.1% | 29%                | 21.3% | 22.2% | 3.24 | 1.326 | -0.241   | -1       |
| 24  | 14.8%          | 13.9% | 27%                | 21.6% | 22.7% | 3.24 | 1.343 | -0.238   | -1.055   |
| 25  | 12.5%          | 9.9%  | 25.9%              | 22.4% | 29.3% | 3.46 | 1.337 | -0.461   | -0.885   |
| 26  | 15.1%          | 15.9% | 20.7%              | 19.9% | 28.4% | 3.31 | 1.417 | -0.271   | -1.227   |
| 27  | 20.7%          | 17%   | 21.3%              | 17.3% | 23.6% | 3.06 | 1.456 | -0.048   | -1.339   |
| 28  | 34.4%          | 17%   | 17.9%              | 15.1% | 15.6% | 2.61 | 1.474 | 0.349    | -1.291   |

**Table 36: Descriptive statistics for brand based transactional leadership**

### 7.4.3 Results of brand internalisation

Brand internalisation levels were measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ (does not apply) to ‘5’ (completely applies). The results of the descriptive analysis for brand internalisation items are shown in table 37. The results show that 77% of the respondents believe that working at the Riyadh Municipality is more than a living ( $M=3.5$ ,  $SD=1.333$ ). In addition, 71% believe that working there is an important part of their identity ( $M=3.33$ ,  $SD=1.387$ ), and 82% sometimes or often refer to themselves as “I work for the Riyadh Municipality” or “I am from the Riyadh Municipality” ( $M=3.77$ ,  $SD=1.275$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for brand internalisation ( $N=352$ ) |                |       |                    |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|--|----------------|-------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items  | Response scale |       |                    |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|  | Does not apply |       | completely applies |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|  | (1)            | (2)   | (3)                | (4)   | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 29   | 13.1%          | 9.1%  | 20.2%              | 29.8% | 27.8% | 3.5  | 1.333 | -0.601   | -0.759   |
| 30   | 15.9%          | 12.5% | 19.3%              | 27.6% | 24.7% | 3.33 | 1.387 | -0.401   | -1.085   |
| 31   | 8%             | 9.7%  | 18.8%              | 25%   | 38.6% | 3.77 | 1.275 | -0.766   | -0.495   |

**Table 37: Descriptive statistics for brand internalisation**

### 7.4.4 Results of in-role behaviour

In-role behaviour was measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ (does not apply) to ‘5’ (completely applies). The results of the descriptive analysis for in-role behaviour items are shown in table 38. The results show that over 70% of the respondents pay attention to their personal appearance and make sure that it is in alignment with the organisational appearance of the Riyadh Municipality ( $M=3.99$ ,  $SD=1.2$ ). Over 80% of the employees believe that they are doing what is expected of them in the organisation and that their actions are in alignment with what the organisation would describe as adequate behaviour ( $M=4.2$ ,  $SD=0.9$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for in-role behaviour ( $N=352$ ) |                |      |                    |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|--|----------------|------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items  | Response scale |      |                    |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|  | Does not apply |      | completely applies |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|  | (1)            | (2)  | (3)                | (4)   | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 35   | 7.1%           | 6%   | 12.5%              | 29.3% | 45.2% | 3.99 | 1.208 | -1.17    | 0.444    |
| 36   | 2.6%           | 3.1% | 12.2%              | 34.7% | 47.4% | 4.21 | 0.953 | -1.37    | 1.817    |
| 37   | 1.7%           | 4.3% | 11.4%              | 38.1% | 44.6% | 4.2  | 0.921 | -1.258   | 1.503    |

**Table 38: Descriptive statistics for in-role behaviour**

### 7.4.5 Results of extra-role behaviour

Extra-role behaviour was measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ (does not apply) to ‘5’ (completely applies). The results of the descriptive analysis for extra-role behaviour items are shown in table 39. The results show that 59% talk up the Riyadh

Municipality to people they know ( $M=3.65$ ,  $SD=-0.61$ ). In addition, 42% talk about the organisation in a positive way in social settings ( $M=3.25$ ,  $SD=-0.16$ ). 41% share ideas with their leaders about how to improve the organisational brand image ( $M=3.18$ ,  $SD=-0.18$ ) and how to improve the experience of the citizens visiting the municipality ( $M=3.05$ ,  $SD=-0.06$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for extra-role behaviour ( $N=352$ ) |                |       |                |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|---|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items   | Response scale |       |                |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|   | Does not apply |       | does not apply |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|   | (1)            | (2)   | (3)            | (4)   | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 38  | 9.1%           | 11.4% | 20.5%          | 23.6% | 35.5% | 3.65 | -0.61 | -0.755   | 3.65     |
| 39  | 12.8%          | 16.2% | 29%            | 17.3% | 24.7% | 3.25 | -0.16 | -1.074   | 3.25     |
| 41  | 14.2%          | 15.1% | 29.3%          | 21.9% | 19.6% | 3.18 | -0.18 | -0.987   | 3.18     |
| 42  | 15.9%          | 15.9% | 32.1%          | 19%   | 17%   | 3.05 | -0.06 | -0.967   | 3.05     |
| 43  | 11.9%          | 8.8%  | 24.1%          | 26.4% | 28.7% | 3.51 | -0.55 | -0.736   | 3.51     |

**Table 39: Descriptive statistics for extra-role behaviour**

#### 7.4.6 Results of structural authority constraints

Structural authority constraints were measured with a 10-point Likert scale ranging from '1' (few layers) to '5' (many layers of authority) using one single item. The results of the descriptive analysis for structural authority constraints items are shown in table 40. The results show that 46.6% of respondents believed that there were moderate layers of structural authority constraints, rating it by 3,4, or 5 ( $M=5$ ,  $SD=2.8$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for structural authority constraints ( $N=352$ ) |                |          |          |          |     |                          |          |          |          |          |      |     |          |          |
|---|----------------|----------|----------|----------|-----|--------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|------|-----|----------|----------|
| Items   | Response scale |          |          |          |     |                          |          |          |          |          | Mean | SD  | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|   | Few layers     |          |          |          |     | many layers of authority |          |          |          |          |      |     |          |          |
|   | (1)            | (2)      | (3)      | (4)      | (5) | (6)                      | (7)      | (8)      | (9)      | (10)     |      |     |          |          |
| 44  | 6.5<br>%       | 5.1<br>% | 9.1<br>% | 6.5<br>% | 31% | 4%                       | 8.8<br>% | 6.8<br>% | 5.1<br>% | 9.7<br>% | 5    | 2.8 | .022     | -.68     |

**Table 40: Descriptive statistics for Structural Authority Constraints**

#### 7.4.7 Results of HR red tape

HR red tape was measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from '1' (not at all) to '5' (frequently / always). The results of the descriptive analysis for HR red tape items are shown in table 41. The results show that almost half of the respondents believe that personnel rules make it hard to remove poor performers from the organisation ( $M=3.46$ ,  $SD=1.27$ ). More than half believe that personnel rules on promotion make it hard for a good employee to move up faster ( $M=3.64$ ,  $SD=1.31$ ). In addition, 62% believe that pay structures and personnel rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay ( $M=3.73$ ,  $SD=1.35$ ) and 39.7% believe that personnel rules make it hard to hire new employees ( $M=3.15$ ,  $SD=1.35$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for HR red tape (N=352) |                |       |                    |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|--|----------------|-------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items  | Response scale |       |                    |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|  | Not at all     |       | Frequently /always |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|  | (1)            | (2)   | (3)                | (4)   | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 45   | 8.5%           | 13.4% | 31%                | 18.2% | 29%   | 3.46 | 1.269 | -0.303   | -0.91    |
| 46   | 10.2%          | 8.5%  | 23.3%              | 23%   | 34.9% | 3.64 | 1.311 | -0.638   | -0.67    |
| 47   | 10.5%          | 8.5%  | 18.5%              | 22.2% | 40.3% | 3.73 | 1.345 | -0.762   | -0.617   |
| 48   | 15.1%          | 17%   | 28.1%              | 17.3% | 22.4% | 3.15 | 1.351 | -0.095   | -1.119   |

**Table 41: Descriptive statistics for HR red tape**

#### 7.4.8 Results of brand training

Brand training was measured with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ (not at all) to ‘5’ (frequently / always). The results of the descriptive analysis for brand training are shown in table 42. The results show that 48% of the respondents believe that the Municipality of Riyadh provides a training orientation for newly hired employees ( $M=3.29, SD=-0.28$ ) and 57% believe that the municipality does not or rarely holds training for employees that helps clarify the behaviours and values that it promises ( $M=3.13, SD=-0.19$ ). Only 17% stated that training available through the municipality frequently or always enables employees to identify with the municipality, its culture, its vision and what is required in the job ( $M=2.99, SD=-0.05$ ). In addition, 69% of employees that attend training said that they are never or rarely given an opportunity to model the knowledge and skills ( $M=2.87, SD=0.10$ ). 54% state that their supervisors never or rarely explain the municipality brand values through informal training ( $M=3.26, SD=-0.22$ )

| Descriptive statistics for brand training (N=352) |                |       |                    |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|---|----------------|-------|--------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items   | Response scale |       |                    |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|   | Not at all     |       | Frequently /always |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|   | (1)            | (2)   | (3)                | (4)   | (5)   |      |       |          |          |
| 49  | 15.9%          | 14.5% | 21.6%              | 20.5% | 27.6% | 3.29 | -0.28 | -1.206   | 3.29     |
| 50  | 19%            | 12.2% | 26.4%              | 21.3% | 21%   | 3.13 | -0.19 | -1.152   | 3.13     |
| 51  | 19.9%          | 15.6% | 27%                | 20.5% | 17%   | 2.99 | -0.05 | -1.145   | 2.99     |
| 52  | 19.3%          | 19.3% | 30.7%              | 16.5% | 14.2% | 2.87 | 0.10  | -0.994   | 2.87     |
| 54  | 14.8%          | 15.6% | 24.1%              | 19.9% | 25.6% | 3.26 | -0.22 | -1.161   | 3.26     |

**Table 42: Descriptive statistics for brand training**

#### 7.4.9 Results of intrinsic rewards

Intrinsic rewards were measured with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from ‘1’ (strongly disagree) to ‘5’ (strongly agree). The results of the descriptive analysis for intrinsic rewards levels are shown in table 43. The results show that 32% agree or strongly agree that working hard is recognised by upper management ( $M=3.64, SD=-0.2$ ). 64% state that they have almost never or have rarely seen good job performance rewarded in their work unit ( $M=1.8, SD=0.19$ ).

54% get a feeling of accomplishment from their job ( $M=5.18, SD=-1$ ). 55% feel that they have accomplished something worthwhile with their job ( $M=5.27, SD=-1.1$ ). Approximately half of the respondents find their job enjoyable ( $M=4.86, SD=-0.8$ ), challenging ( $M=4.8, SD=-0.7$ ) and that it requires intelligence ( $M=4.86, SD=-0.8$ ). The majority (88%) agree that their job requires responsibility ( $M=5.88, SD=-1.7$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for intrinsic rewards ( $N=352$ ) |                   |       |       |                |       |       |      |      |          |          |
|--|-------------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|-------|------|------|----------|----------|
| Items  | Response scale    |       |       |                |       |       | Mean | SD   | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|  | Strongly disagree |       |       | strongly agree |       |       |      |      |          |          |
|  | (1)               | (2)   | (3)   | (4)            | (5)   | (6)   |      |      |          |          |
| 55   | 19.9%             | 9.1%  | 10.5% | 27.8%          | 13.1% | 19.6% | 3.64 | -0.2 | -1.179   | 3.64     |
| 57   | 22.4%             | 16.5% | 34.4% | 13.1%          | 13.1% | 0.6%  | 1.8  | 0.19 | -0.858   | 1.8      |
| 62   | 7.4%              | 4.8%  | 7.4%  | 5.1%           | 20.7% | 27.3% | 5.18 | -1.0 | -0.003   | 5.18     |
| 63   | 6.3%              | 3.4%  | 6%    | 7.4%           | 21.6% | 29%   | 5.27 | -1.1 | 0.488    | 5.27     |
| 64   | 10.5%             | 4.8%  | 9.1%  | 5.7%           | 24.1% | 25.3% | 4.86 | -0.8 | -0.476   | 4.86     |
| 65   | 9.1%              | 6.3%  | 7.7%  | 12.5%          | 23.6% | 18.8% | 4.8  | -0.7 | -0.58    | 4.8      |
| 66   | 10.5%             | 4.5%  | 9.1%  | 6.8%           | 23.6% | 24.1% | 4.86 | -0.8 | -0.486   | 4.86     |
| 67   | 3.4%              | 1.7%  | 3.7%  | 3.7%           | 16.5% | 23.9% | 5.88 | -1.7 | 2.516    | 5.88     |
| 68   | 4.3%              | 3.4%  | 6.3%  | 3.7%           | 22.2% | 25.3% | 5.52 | -1.3 | 0.903    | 5.52     |

**Table 43: Descriptive statistics for intrinsic rewards**

#### 7.4.10 Results of extrinsic rewards

The Extrinsic Rewards levels were measured with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from '1' (strongly disagree) to '5' (strongly agree). The results of the descriptive analysis for extrinsic rewards levels are shown in table 44. The results show that 63% do not agree that employees are promoted to higher positions not for years of work but for competencies and performance ( $M=3.65, SD=0.17$ ). 54% do not agree that individual or team-based performance is measured with fairness ( $M=3.91, SD=-0.1$ ). Only 18% believe that the organisation provides them with fair opportunities for advancement and rewards based on performance ( $M=3.41, SD=0.28$ ) and 21% agree or strongly agree that they are satisfied with the amount of pay and rewards they receive based on their job performance ( $M=3.46, SD=0.24$ ).

| Descriptive statistics for extrinsic rewards ( $N=352$ ) |                   |       |       |                |       |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|--|-------------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|----------|----------|
| Items  | Response scale    |       |       |                |       |       |       | Mean | SD    | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|  | Strongly disagree |       |       | strongly agree |       |       |       |      |       |          |          |
|  | (1)               | (2)   | (3)   | (4)            | (5)   | (6)   | (7)   |      |       |          |          |
| 58   | 23.6%             | 13.6% | 9.7%  | 16.5%          | 14.2% | 8.5%  | 13.9% | 3.65 | 0.17  | -1.268   | 3.65     |
| 59   | 20.7%             | 10.8% | 8.8%  | 13.9%          | 19.6% | 14.5% | 11.6% | 3.91 | -0.10 | -1.301   | 3.91     |
| 60   | 25%               | 14.8% | 13%   | 14.5%          | 13.9% | 10.8% | 7.7%  | 3.41 | 0.28  | -1.172   | 3.41     |
| 61   | 27%               | 15.1% | 13.4% | 5.1%           | 17.6% | 13.1% | 8.8%  | 3.46 | 0.24  | -1.38    | 3.46     |

**Table 44: Descriptive statistics for extrinsic rewards**

## 7.5 Exploratory factor analysis

### 7.5.1 Assessment of suitability of the data for factor analysis

In order to perform a factor analysis on the data, Fidell (2001) recommends using at least 300 for the sample size, and this was achieved in this research by providing 352 responses. Researchers have also argued that rather than using the sample size, it is important to measure the ratio of cases to the number of variables that are measured in the research (Hair, Anderson et al. 1998). In this research, there are 10 variables, giving 35.2 to 1 of cases per variables which is acceptable according to Hair et al.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for measuring the adequacy of the sample size and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were performed as pre-requisites to the exploratory factor analysis. The KMO usually ranges from 0 to 1 and in this research, as shown in table 45, KMO values for all constructs used in this study are above the recommended minimum value of 0.6. These two results indicate that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis and that the items are correlated with each other (see table 45).

The Kaiser-Guttman rule is often referred to as 'eigenvalues greater than one' criterion, (Guttman, 1954; Kaiser, 1960, 1970) which is the method of knowing which components to retain that have the eigenvalues greater than 1.

| The Bartlett's test and KMO measure of sampling adequacy results |                                  |                               |                   |      |
|--|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|------|
| Variables  | KMO measure of sampling adequacy | Bartlett's test of sphericity |                   |      |
|  |                                  | Approximate chi square        | Degree of freedom | Sig. |
| Brand based transformational leadership                          | 0.959                            | 5240.642                      | 171               | .000 |
| Brand based transactional leadership                             | 0.857                            | 1548.858212                   | 28                | .000 |
| Brand internalisation  | 0.652                            | 440.919583                    | 15                | .000 |
| In-role behaviour  | 0.671                            | 215.740205                    | 3                 | .000 |
| Extra-role behaviour   | 0.698                            | 876.809836                    | 15                | .000 |
| Structural authority constraints                                 | NA                               | NA                            | NA                | NA   |
| HR red tape  | 0.668                            | 350.366711                    | 6                 | .000 |
| Brand training   | 0.856                            | 890.520725                    | 10                | .000 |
| Intrinsic rewards  | 0.879                            | 1526.545356                   | 45                | .000 |
| Extrinsic rewards  | 0.757                            | 413.639742                    | 6                 | .000 |

**Table 45: This research (significant at  $p < 0.05$  level)**

## 7.5.2 Exploratory factor analysis results

### 7.5.2.1 Brand based transformational leadership

The 19 items of the brand based transformational leadership scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 46. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract.

Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of two components. Varimax rotation was applied to assist the interpretation of these components, with a minimum of two items in each component. Item 20 loaded in both components and therefore it was removed. For the sake of current analysis and in line with current theoretical perspectives on brand based transformational leadership (Avolio and Bass 2001, Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009), both the components were merged together to compute a single variable called brand based transformational leadership.

| Factor analysis results of the brand based transformational leadership construct                            |           |   |            |
|---|-----------|---|------------|
| Construct   | Component |   | % variance |
|   | 1         | 2 |            |
| 13. My supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of our brand                            | 0.871     |   |            |
| 11. My supervisor lives our brand in ways that build my respect   | 0.846     |   |            |
| 14. My supervisor talks about our most important brand values and his/her belief in them                    | 0.835     |   |            |
| 9. My supervisor instils pride in me for being associated with our brand                                    | 0.827     |   |            |
| 15. My supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of our brand promise                         | 0.823     |   |            |
| 8. My supervisor expresses confidence that brand-related goals will be achieved                             | 0.822     |   |            |
| 3. My supervisor gets me to look at my job as a branding task   | 0.809     |   |            |
| 12. My supervisor displays a sense of power and confidence when talking about our brand                     | 0.805     |   |            |
| 4. My supervisor suggests a perspective that promotes the brand when looking at how to complete assignments | 0.799     |   |            |
| 6. My supervisor talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished to strengthen our brand         | 0.797     |   |            |
| 7. My supervisor articulates a compelling vision of our brand   | 0.79      |   |            |
| 2. My supervisor seeks differing perspectives when interpreting our brand values                            | 0.783     |   |            |
| 10. My supervisor goes beyond self-interest   | 0.778     |   |            |

|  |       |       |      |
|--|-------|-------|------|
| for the good of the brand  |       |       |      |
| 17. My supervisor spends time teaching and coaching me in brand-related issues   | 0.764 |       |      |
| 1. My supervisor re-examines critical assumptions of our brand promise to question whether they are appropriate                    | 0.728 |       |      |
| 18. My supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just one of many members of the Riyadh Municipality                       | 0.665 |       |      |
| 19. My supervisor considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from other members of the Riyadh Municipality | 0.665 |       | 57.1 |
| 16. My supervisor does not emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of our brand mission                              |       | 0.818 |      |
| 5. My supervisor does not talk optimistically about the future of our brand  |       | 0.8   | 7.1  |

**Table 46: Factor analysis results of the brand based transformational leadership construct**

### 7.5.2.2 Brand based transactional leadership

The eight items of the brand based transactional leadership scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 47. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract.

Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of two components. Varimax rotation was applied to assist the interpretation of these components, with a minimum of two items in each component. For the sake of current analysis and in line with current theoretical perspectives on brand based transactional leadership (Avolio and Bass 2001, Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009), both the components were merged together to compute a single variable called brand based transactional leadership.

| Factor analysis results of the brand based transactional leadership construct                         |           |   |            |
|---|-----------|---|------------|
| Construct   | Component |   | % variance |
|   | 1         | 2 |            |
| 25. My supervisor points out what I will receive if I do what is required from a brand representative | 0.889     |   |            |
| 23. My supervisor monitors my performance as a brand representative for errors needing correction     | 0.864     |   |            |
| 24. My supervisor is alert of failure to meet standards for brand-consistent behaviour                | 0.794     |   |            |
| 26. My supervisor tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts for brand-consistent              | 0.772     |   | 53.127%    |



|  |  |       |         |
|--|--|-------|---------|
| behaviour  |  |       |         |
| 27. My supervisor works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I behave in line with our standards for brand-consistent behaviour      |  | 0.863 |         |
| 28. My supervisor talks about special rewards for exemplary behaviour as a brand representative  |  | 0.847 |         |
| 22. My supervisor keeps careful track of mistakes regarding brand consistency of my behaviour  |  | 0.694 |         |
| 21. My supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of me as a brand representative |  | 0.687 | 19.426% |

**Table 47: Factor analysis results of the brand based transactional leadership construct**

### 7.5.2.3 Brand Training

The five items of the brand training scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 48. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of one component.

| Factor analysis results of brand training  |           |            |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Construct  | Component | % variance |
| 50. The municipality regularly holds training for employees that helps clarify the behaviours and values that the municipality promises                          | 0.895     |            |
| 51. The training available through the municipality enables employees to identify with the municipality, its culture, its vision and what is required in the job | 0.871     |            |
| 52. Employees that attend training are given an opportunity to model the knowledge and skills learned in the training  | 0.82      |            |
| 49. The Municipality of Riyadh provides a training orientation for newly hired employees   | 0.786     |            |
| 54. My supervisor clearly explains the municipality brand values through informal training such as conversations, suggestions and advice                         | 0.686     | 66.439%    |

**Table 48: Factor analysis results of brand training**

### 7.5.2.4 Intrinsic rewards

The nine items of the intrinsic rewards scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using

SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 49. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of three components. Varimax rotation was applied to assist the interpretation of these components, with a minimum of two items in each of the first two components. The third component had only one item, and therefore this item was deleted (see item 56 in table 49 below). For the sake of current analysis and inline with current theoretical perspectives on intrinsic rewards (Davies, Taylor et al. 2001, Westover 2012), the components were merged together to compute a single variable called intrinsic rewards.

| Factor analysis results of the intrinsic rewards construct                                   |           |       |       |                |
|--|-----------|-------|-------|----------------|
| Construct  | Component |       |       | % variance     |
|  | 1         | 2     | 3     |                |
| 64. I find my job enjoyable  | 0.816     |       |       |                |
| 63. I accomplish something worthwhile with my job  | 0.813     |       |       |                |
| 65. I find my job challenging  | 0.797     |       |       |                |
| 66. I find that my job requires intelligence   | 0.772     |       |       |                |
| 62. I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job  | 0.755     |       |       |                |
| 67. I find my job requires responsibility  | 0.754     |       |       |                |
| 68. I find my job requires personal judgment   | 0.751     |       |       | <b>46.871%</b> |
| 57. I have seen good job performance rewarded in my work unit                                |           | 0.699 |       |                |
| 55. Working hard is recognised by upper management   |           | 0.688 |       | <b>12.320%</b> |
| 56. Fulfilling all my job responsibilities does little to improve my chances for a promotion |           |       | 0.924 | <b>10.059%</b> |

**Table 49: Factor analysis results of the intrinsic rewards construct**

### 7.5.2.5 Extrinsic rewards

The four items of the extrinsic rewards scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 50. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of one component.

Factor analysis results of the extrinsic rewards construct

| Construct   | Component | % variance     |
|---|-----------|----------------|
| 59. Individual or team-based performance is measured with fairness  | 0.847     |                |
| 60. This organisation provides me with fair opportunities for advancement and rewards based on performance            | 0.83      |                |
| 61. I am satisfied with the amount of pay and rewards I receive based on my job performance                           | 0.723     |                |
| 58. I feel that employees are promoted to higher positions not for years of work but for competencies and performance | 0.72      | <b>61.131%</b> |

**Table 50: Factor analysis results of the extrinsic rewards construct**

### 7.5.2.6 HR red tape

The four items of the HR red tape scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 51. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of one component.

| Factor analysis results of the HR red tape construct  |           |                |
|---|-----------|----------------|
| Construct   | Component | % variance     |
| 46. Personnel rules on promotion make it hard for a good employee to move up faster than a poor one | 0.864     |                |
| 47. Pay structures and personnel rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay       | 0.828     |                |
| 45. Personnel rules make it hard to remove poor performers from the organisation                    | 0.65      |                |
| 48. Personnel rules make it hard to hire new employees  | 0.605     | <b>55.497%</b> |

**Table 51: Factor analysis results of the HR red tape construct**

### 7.5.2.7 Structural authority constraints

The structural authority constraints was a single item construct.

### 7.5.2.8 Brand internalisation

The six items of the brand internalisation scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 52. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of two components. Varimax rotation was applied to assist the interpretation of these components, with a minimum of two items in each component. For the sake of current analysis and in line with current theoretical perspectives on brand internalisation (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009), both the components were merged together

to compute a single variable called brand Internalisation.

| Factor analysis results of the brand internalisation construct  |           |       |                |
|---|-----------|-------|----------------|
| Construct   | Component |       | % variance     |
|   | 1         | 2     |                |
| 30. Working for thr Riyadh Municipality is an important part of who I am  | 0.827     |       |                |
| 29. For me, working for the Riyadh Municipality means more than just earning my living  | 0.728     |       |                |
| 31. I often describe myself to others by saying that I work for the Riyadh Municipality or that I am from the Riyadh Municipality   | 0.676     |       |                |
| 34. Often we identify strongly with a corporate brand. That is the case when there is a great deal of overlap between our values and those of the brand. Imagine that the circle on the left represents your value system and the one on the right. | 0.609     |       | <b>37.808%</b> |
| 32. Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of the Riyadh Municipality's image  |           | 0.82  |                |
| 33. How much I champion the Riyadh Municipality brand is directly linked to how much I am rewarded  |           | 0.809 | <b>24.949%</b> |

**Table 52: Factor analysis results of the brand internalisation construct**

### 7.5.2.9 In-role behaviour

The three items of the in-role behaviour scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 53. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of one component.

| Factor analysis results of the in-role behaviour construct  |           |                |
|---|-----------|----------------|
| Construct   | Component | % variance     |
| 36. I see that my actions in citizen contact are not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behaviour                            | 0.837     |                |
| 35. In citizen contact situations, I pay attention to my personal appearance so that it is in line with the Riyadh Municipality's image | 0.797     |                |
| 37. I adhere to our standards for brand-congruent behaviour   | 0.775     | <b>64.559%</b> |

**Table 53: Factor analysis results of the in-Role behaviour construct**

### 7.5.2.10 Extra-role behaviour

The six items of the extra-role behaviour scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 22. The results are presented in table 54. Firstly, the initial unrotated factor matrix was computed to obtain a preliminary indication of the number of factors to extract. Exploratory factor analysis showed the presence of two components. Varimax rotation was applied to assist the interpretation of these components, with a minimum of two items in each component. For the sake of current analysis and in line with current theoretical perspectives on extra-role behaviour (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009), both the components were merged together to compute a single variable called brand based extra-role behaviour.

| Factor analysis results of the extra-role behaviour construct   |           |        |                |
|---|-----------|--------|----------------|
| Construct   | Component |        | % variance     |
|   | 1         | 2      |                |
| 42. I make constructive suggestions on how to improve our citizens' brand experience                            | 0.888     |        |                |
| 41. I let my supervisor know of ways that we can strengthen our brand image                                     | 0.879     |        |                |
| 43. If I have a useful idea on how to improve our brand's performance, I share it with my supervisor            | 0.771     |        | <b>47.305%</b> |
| 38. I talk up the Riyadh Municipality to people I know  |           | 0.854  |                |
| 39. I bring up the Riyadh Municipality in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances |           | 0.819  |                |
| 40. In social situations, I do not often speak favourably about the Riyadh Municipality                         |           | -.704- | <b>72.205%</b> |

**Table 54: Factor analysis results of the extra-role behaviour construct**

## 7.6 Goodness of fit of the data

The goodness of fit reflects the quality of the data and what kinds of inferences can be argued from the data (Hair et al, 1998). The goodness of fit for the data describes how well the observed data correspond to the presumed conceptual model (Pallant 2005); comparing the observed values to the expected or predicted values. Namely, the validity (does the instrument test what it was set out to test?) and the reliability (does the instrument measure consistently over time?) of the data.

### 7.6.1 Reliability

Reliability is related to the degree of consistency, and ensures that if the technique is repeated, it will give the same results. For an instrument to be reliable, it must measure only one variable (Hair et al, 1998). Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess the consistency of the responses to the

total scale, in order to measure the internal consistency (Pallant 2005). Item-to-total correlation was used to assess the consistency within the scale, which correlates each item with the total score and averages those correlation coefficients. If the item is not correlated with other items in the scale, it should be omitted. Therefore, the -if-item-deleted correlation coefficient was also computed.

#### **7.6.1.1 Cronbach's Alpha**

Table 55 shows that the Cronbach's Alpha correctional coefficients for the main survey are between 0.72 and 0.94. The generally agreed limit for Cronbach's Alpha is 0.70. Given the exploratory nature of this study, the range is acceptable for this study and demonstrates the internal consistency of the measurements.

#### **7.6.1.2 Item-to-total correlation coefficient and if-item-deleted coefficient**

Table 55 shows that for brand based transformational leadership; the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.94 and its final number of items are 19. As for brand based transactional leadership, the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.87 and its total number of items are eight. For the brand internalisation construct, three items were deleted; items 33, 32 and 43, in order to reach an acceptable Alpha score of 0.73. According to Pallant (2005), if a low Alpha score cannot be well validated or explained, then it is best to remove it in order to increase the overall Cronbach's Alpha. For the in-role behaviour construct; the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.72 and its total number of items are three. For the extra-role behaviour construct, one item was deleted, item 40, in order to reach an acceptable Alpha score of 0.8. For the HR red tape construct; the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.72 and its total number of items are four. For the brand training construct, one item was deleted, item 53, in order to reach an acceptable Alpha score of 0.87. The brand training construct contained a total of five items. For the intrinsic rewards construct; the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.88 and its total number of items are nine. For the extrinsic rewards construct; the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.78 and its total number of items are 4.

| Results of multi-item reliability  |   |                                     |                         |                   |
|--|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| <i>Items</i>   | <i>Corrected item-total correlation</i> | <i>Cronbach's h if item deleted</i> | <i>Cronbach's Alpha</i> | <i>N of items</i> |
| <b>Brand based transformational leadership scale</b>   |   |                                     | <b>0.94</b>             | <b>19</b>         |
| 1. My supervisor re-examines critical assumptions of our brand promise to question whether they are appropriate  | 0.69                                    | 0.938                               |                         |                   |
| 2. My supervisor seeks differing perspectives when interpreting our brand values   | 0.745                                   | 0.937                               |                         |                   |
| 3. My supervisor gets me to look at my job as a branding task  | 0.778                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 4. My supervisor suggests a perspective that promotes the brand when looking at how to complete assignments  | 0.767                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 5. My supervisor does not talk optimistically about the future of our brand  | -.141-                                  | 0.952                               |                         |                   |
| 6. My supervisor talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished to strengthen our brand  | 0.771                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 7. My supervisor articulates a compelling vision of our brand  | 0.764                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 8. My supervisor expresses confidence that brand-related goals will be achieved  | 0.798                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 9. My supervisor instils pride in me for being associated with our brand   | 0.801                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 10. My supervisor goes beyond self-interest for the good of the brand  | 0.745                                   | 0.937                               |                         |                   |
| 11. My supervisor lives our brand in ways that build my respect  | 0.819                                   | 0.935                               |                         |                   |
| 12. My supervisor displays a sense of power and confidence when talking about our brand  | 0.776                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 13. My supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of our brand   | 0.851                                   | 0.935                               |                         |                   |
| 14. My supervisor talks about our most important brand values and his/her belief in them   | 0.811                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 15. My supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of our brand promise  | 0.793                                   | 0.936                               |                         |                   |
| 16. My supervisor does not emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of our brand mission  | -.146-                                  | 0.952                               |                         |                   |
| 17. My supervisor spends time teaching and coaching me in brand-related issues   | 0.729                                   | 0.937                               |                         |                   |
| 18. My supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just one of many members of the Riyadh Municipality   | 0.615                                   | 0.939                               |                         |                   |
| 19. My supervisor considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from other members of the Riyadh Municipality   | 0.612                                   | 0.939                               |                         |                   |
| <b>Brand based transactional leadership scale</b>  |   |                                     | <b>0.87</b>             | <b>8</b>          |
| 21. My supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of me as a brand representative for errors needing correction | 0.387                                   | 0.876                               |                         |                   |
| 22. My supervisor keeps careful track of mistakes regarding brand consistency of my behaviour  | 0.563                                   | 0.856                               |                         |                   |
| 23. My supervisor monitors my performance as a brand representative for errors needing correction  | 0.729                                   | 0.838                               |                         |                   |

|   |                             |                             |                        |          |
|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|----------|
| 24. My supervisor is alert of failure to meet standards for brand-consistent behaviour  | 0.715                       | 0.839                       |                        |          |
| 25. My supervisor points out what I will receive if I do what is required from a brand representative   | 0.721                       | 0.839                       |                        |          |
| 26. My supervisor tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts for brand-consistent behaviour  | 0.685                       | 0.842                       |                        |          |
| 27. My supervisor works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I behave in line with our standards for brand-consistent behaviour   | 0.643                       | 0.847                       |                        |          |
| 28. My supervisor talks about special rewards for exemplary behaviour as a brand representative   | 0.536                       | 0.859                       |                        |          |
| <b>Brand internalisation</b>  |                             |                             | <b>0.48<br/>(0.73)</b> | <b>3</b> |
| 29. For me, working for the Riyadh Municipality means more than just earning a living   | 0.488<br>(0.432)<br>(0.35)  | 0.619<br>(0.411)<br>(0.386) |                        |          |
| 30. Working for the Riyadh Municipality is an important part of who I am  | 0.641<br>(0.574)<br>(0.468) | 0.523<br>(0.318)<br>(0.32)  |                        |          |
| 31. I often describe myself to others by saying that I work for the Riyadh Municipality or that I am from the Riyadh Municipality   | 0.467<br>(0.443)<br>(0.383) | 0.632<br>(0.41)<br>(0.374)  |                        |          |
| 32. Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of the Riyadh Municipality's image ( <del>deleted</del> )   | (-.104)<br>(0.097)          | (0.688)<br>(0.508)          |                        |          |
| 33. How much I champion the Riyadh Municipality brand is directly linked to how much I am rewarded ( <del>deleted</del> )   | (0.05)                      | (0.536)                     |                        |          |
| 34. Often we identify strongly with a corporate brand. That is the case when there is a great deal of overlap between our values and those of the brand. Imagine that the circle on the left represents your value system and the one on the right ( <del>deleted</del> ) | 0.382<br>(0.321)<br>(0.22)  | 0.73<br>(0.483)<br>(0.463)  |                        |          |
| <b>In-role behaviour</b>  |                             |                             | <b>0.72</b>            | <b>3</b> |
| 35. In citizen contact situations, I pay attention to my personal appearance so that it is in line with the Riyadh Municipality's image   | 0.536                       | 0.65                        |                        |          |
| 36. I see that my actions in citizen contact are not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behaviour  | 0.595                       | 0.563                       |                        |          |
| 37. I adhere to our standards for brand-congruent behaviour   | 0.503                       | 0.668                       |                        |          |
| <b>Extra-role behaviour</b>   |                             |                             | <b>0.62<br/>(0.8)</b>  | <b>5</b> |
| 38. I talk up the Riyadh Municipality to people I know  | 0.464                       | 0.623                       |                        |          |
| 39. I bring up the Riyadh Municipality in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances   | 0.443                       | 0.63                        |                        |          |
| 40. In social situations, I do not often speak favourably about the Riyadh Municipality   | -.177-                      | 0.802                       |                        |          |
| 41. I let my supervisor know of ways that we can strengthen our brand image   | 0.637                       | 0.56                        |                        |          |
| 42. I make constructive suggestions on how to improve our citizens' brand experience  | 0.623                       | 0.566                       |                        |          |
| 43. If I have a useful idea on how to improve our brand's performance, I share it with my supervisor  | 0.585                       | 0.579                       |                        |          |



|   |       |              |                        |          |
|---|-------|--------------|------------------------|----------|
| <b>Structural authority constraints</b>   |       |              |                        |          |
| 44. Please assess the extent of hierarchical authority constraints in your organisation. Please select a number between 0-10, with 0 signifying few layers of authority and 10 signifying many layers of authority. |       |              |                        |          |
| <b>HR red tape</b>  |       |              | <b>0.72</b>            | <b>4</b> |
| 45. Personnel rules make it hard to remove poor performers from the organisation  | 0.414 | 0.716        |                        |          |
| 46. Personnel rules on promotion make it hard for a good employee to move up faster than a poor one   | 0.665 | 0.567        |                        |          |
| 47. Pay structures and personnel rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay   | 0.608 | 0.602        |                        |          |
| 48. Personnel rules make it hard to hire new employees  | 0.382 | 0.738        |                        |          |
| <b>Brand training</b>   |       |              | <b>0.79<br/>(0.87)</b> | <b>5</b> |
| 49. The Municipality of Riyadh provides a training orientation for newly hired employees  | 0.634 | 0.734        |                        |          |
| 50. The municipality regularly holds training for employees that helps clarify the behaviours and values that it promises   | 0.756 | 0.703        |                        |          |
| 51. The training available through the municipality enables employees to identify with the municipality, its culture, its vision and what is required in the job  | 0.727 | 0.712        |                        |          |
| 52. Employees that attend training are given an opportunity to model the knowledge and skills learned in the training   | 0.663 | 0.729        |                        |          |
| 53. Employees that attend training are not rewarded when they use the knowledge and skills learned while performing their jobs ( <del>deleted</del> )   | 0.034 | <b>0.871</b> |                        |          |
| 54. My supervisor clearly explains the municipality brand values through informal training such as conversations, suggestions and advice  | 0.551 | 0.755        |                        |          |
| <b>Intrinsic rewards</b>  |       |              | <b>0.88</b>            | <b>9</b> |
| 55. Working hard is recognised by upper management  | 0.389 | 0.887        |                        |          |
| 57. I have seen good job performance rewarded in my work unit   | 0.393 | 0.883        |                        |          |
| 62. I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job   | 0.666 | 0.863        |                        |          |
| 63. I accomplish something worthwhile with my job   | 0.733 | 0.857        |                        |          |
| 64. I find my job enjoyable   | 0.739 | 0.856        |                        |          |
| 65. I find my job challenging   | 0.712 | 0.859        |                        |          |
| 66. I find that my job requires intelligence  | 0.678 | 0.862        |                        |          |
| 67. I find that my job requires responsibility  | 0.658 | 0.865        |                        |          |
| 68. I find that my job requires personal judgment   | 0.654 | 0.865        |                        |          |
| <b>Extrinsic rewards</b>  |       |              | <b>0.78</b>            | <b>4</b> |
| 58. I feel that employees are promoted to higher positions not for years of work but for competencies and performance   | 0.515 | 0.77         |                        |          |
| 59. Individual or team-based performance is measured with fairness  | 0.683 | 0.682        |                        |          |
| 60. This organisation provides me with fair opportunities for advancement and rewards based on performance  | 0.657 | 0.698        |                        |          |
| 61. I am satisfied with the amount of pay and rewards I receive based on my job performance   | 0.517 | 0.769        |                        |          |

Table 55: Results of multi-itemr

### **7.6.2 Validity**

Validity addresses the degree to which a scale or group of items measure the concept that is under investigation (Hair, Anderson et al. 1998). Validity can be examined from different perspectives, content, criterion, or construct.

#### **Content validity**

Content validity focuses on how well the characteristic of the construct is captured via the items. In this study, the research questionnaire was piloted by 30 employees; including engineers, receptionists and managers. Moreover, the scales used in this study were adopted from previous well-established research. Both of these processes add to the good face validity.

### **7.7 Statistical analysis**

This section examines, assesses and tests the relationships hypothesised in the conceptual model, presented in figure 27, in order to determine the factors influencing brand internalisation, and the effects of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. In this section, hypotheses are tested using stepwise regression analysis, linear regression, mediation analysis, and post-hoc tests performed through an SPSS software package.

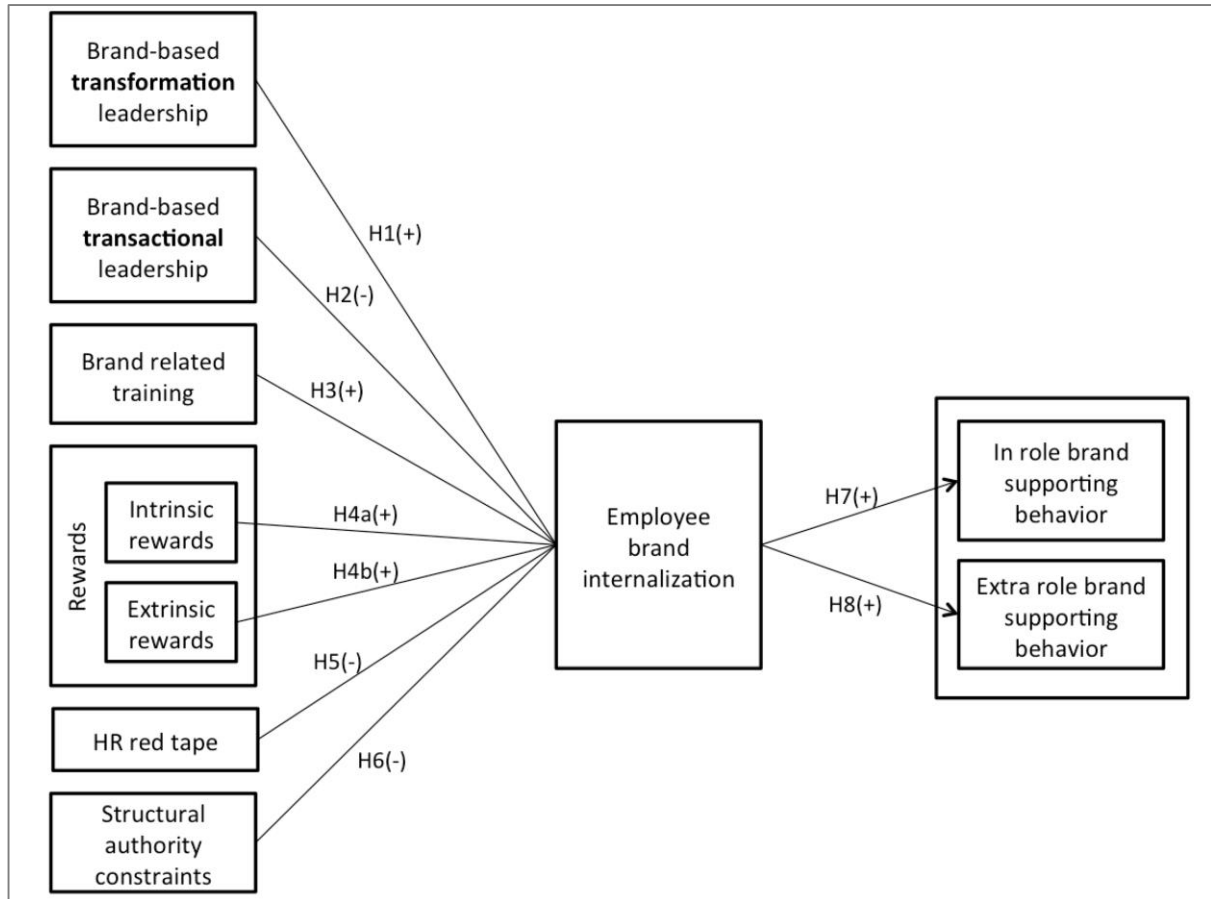


Figure 27: Conceptual Model

### 7.7.1 Description of the statistical analysis steps

The statistical analysis is divided into six steps, as presented below.

**In step 1**, the relationships among the brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and structural authority constraints were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The study employs stepwise regression analysis in evaluating the relationships among the independent and dependent variables to test the hypotheses of the research. The study follows the recommendations of Jamal and Naser (2002) who argue that stepwise regression is useful for researchers who are investigating several exploratory variables and it assists in finding the best possible model by testing all regressions. **In step 2**, we will examine the effect of brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, and extrinsic rewards on brand internalisation using stepwise regression.

**In step 3**, we will examine the effect of brand internalisation on in-role brand building behaviour using linear regression analysis. In step 4, we will examine the effect of brand internalisation on extra-role brand building behaviour using linear regression analysis. **In step 5**, mediation analysis is conducted to examine if the factors influencing brand internalisation have a direct effect on in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. **In step 6**, a post-hoc analysis is conducted to examine the demographic characteristics of the groups and investigate how they differ based on their gender, age, educational level, years of experience, role in organisation, and grade. This is relation to brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and structural authority constraints.

**7.7.2 Step 1: Pearson correlation**

The relationships among the brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and structural authority constraints were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Results are presented in table 56.

| <b>Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient among measures of factors affecting brand internalisation</b> |  |         |         |         |         |         |         |        |         |        |        |
|---|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|---------|--------|--------|
| <b>Measures</b>   |  | 1       | 2       | 3       | 4       | 5       | 6       | 7      | 8       | 9      | 10     |
| 1   | <b>Brand based transformational leadership</b> | 1       | .727**  | .603**  | .507**  | .503**  | -.185** | 0.1    | .366**  | .434** | .443** |
| 2   | <b>Brand based transactional leadership</b>    | .727**  | 1       | .509**  | .411**  | .421**  | -.227** | .161** | .366**  | .362** | .446** |
| 3   | <b>Brand training</b>                          | .603**  | .509**  | 1       | .600**  | .555**  | -.308** | .136*  | .409**  | .344** | .449** |
| 4   | <b>Intrinsic rewards</b>                       | .507**  | .411**  | .600**  | 1       | .571**  | -.150** | .143** | .474**  | .376** | .551** |
| 5   | <b>Extrinsic rewards</b>                       | .503**  | .421**  | .555**  | .571**  | 1       | .230**  | 0.104  | .327**  | .338** | .406** |
| 6   | <b>HR red tape</b>                             | -.185** | -.227** | -.308** | -.150** | -.230** | 1       | 0.005  | -.171** | 0.102  | 0.039  |
| 7   | <b>Structural authority constraints</b>        | 0.1     | .161**  | .136*   | .143**  | 0.104   | 0.005   | 1      | 0.095   | .176** | 0.072  |
| 8   | <b>Brand internalisation</b>                   | .366**  | .366**  | .409**  | .474**  | .327**  | .171**  | 0.095  | 1       | .404** | .525** |
| 9   | <b>In-role behaviour</b>                       | .434**  | .362**  | .344**  | .376**  | .338**  | 0.102   | .176** | .404**  | 1      | .467** |
| 10  | <b>Extra-role behaviour</b>                    | .443**  | .446**  | .449**  | .551**  | .406**  | 0.039   | 0.072  | .525**  | .467** | 1      |

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Table 56: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient among measures of factors affecting brand internalisation**

It can be seen from table 56 that most of the correlations are relatively small, ranging from 0.07 to 0.45, which means that the constructs are not highly correlated with each other and measure something that is entirely different from the other. However, brand based transactional leadership and brand based transformational leadership have a higher correlation ( $r=.727$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ); this may be expected as they both measure leadership style.

As shown in table 56, brand based transformational leadership is positively correlated with brand internalisation ( $r=0.366$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Brand based transactional leadership is positively correlated with brand internalisation ( $r=0.366$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Brand training is positively correlated with brand internalisation ( $r=0.409$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Intrinsic rewards are positively correlated with brand internalisation ( $r=0.474$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Extrinsic rewards are positively correlated with brand internalisation ( $r=0.327$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). HR red tape is negatively correlated with brand internalisation ( $r=-.171$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). There is no significant correlation between structural authority constraint and brand internalisation ( $r=0.095$ ,  $N=352$ ). Brand internalisation is positively correlated with in-role behaviour ( $r=.404$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Brand internalisation is positively correlated with extra-role behaviour ( $r=.525$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ).

Furthermore, HR red tape and brand training are negatively correlated ( $r=-.308$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). This means that the higher the HR red tape, the less likely it is for the employee to have brand training. Table 56 shows that intrinsic rewards are positively correlated with brand based transformational leadership ( $r=.507$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), with brand based transactional leadership ( $r=.411$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), with brand internalisation ( $r=.474$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), with in-role behaviour ( $r=.376$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), with extra-role behaviour ( $r=.551$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), with brand training ( $r=.600$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), and with extrinsic rewards ( $r=.571$ ,  $N=352$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). This means that the higher the intrinsic rewards, the more likely it is that the employee increases his or her in-role and extra-role behaviour. The higher the transactional and brand based transformational leadership, the higher the likelihood of an increase in intrinsic rewards for employees.

It is evident that there is no significant correlation between the structural authority constraints with the key dependant variable named brand internalisation. Therefore, structural authority is removed from any further statistical analysis and there is no hypothesis tested for H6.

Having assessed the Pearson correlations, the next step is to examine the results of the

regression analysis in the conceptual model. The next section displays the segments and then the results of the regression analysis.

### 7.7.3 Step 2: Factors influencing brand internalisation

The effect of brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, and structural authority constraints on brand internalisation are investigated. A stepwise regression was computed with brand internalisation as the dependent variable, and brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, and extrinsic rewards, as the independent variables. The hypotheses and regression results are presented in table 57 below, which shows the results of the stepwise regression analysis.

| Results of stepwise regression with brand internalisation as a dependent variable |                                      |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable                             | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.222          | 101.334     | 0.000  | 2.84           |
| 1   | Constant                             | 4.820              | 8.123       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | .138               | 10.066      | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.256          | 61.275      | 0.000  | 2.77           |
| 2   | Constant                             | 3.834              | 6.096       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | .113               | 7.702       | .000 | 1.203 |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based transactional leadership | .082               | 4.084       | .000 | 1.203 |                |             |        |                |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.269          | 42.668      | 0.000  | 2.76           |
| 3   | Constant                             | 3.810              | 6.086       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | .096               | 5.680       | .000 | 1.599 |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based transactional leadership | .066               | 3.080       | .002 | 1.383 |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand training                       | .074               | 2.073       | .039 | 1.795 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 57: Results of stepwise regression with brand internalisation as a dependent variable**

Model 3 is statistically significant (F (42.668),  $P < 0.001$ ) and explains 26% of the variance in brand Internalisation.

According to table 57, there is no direct effect of brand based transformational leadership on brand internalisation (Beta value=0.005;  $t=0.066$ ;  $p=0.947$ ). Hence, H1 is not accepted.

The results show significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand based transactional leadership on brand internalisation (Beta value=0.166;  $t=3.080$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). Hence, H2 is accepted

(reverse direction). The results show significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand training on brand internalisation (Beta value= 0.127;  $t=2.073$ ;  $p<0.05$ ). Hence, H3 is accepted. The results show significant evidence for the direct positive effect of intrinsic rewards on brand internalisation (Beta value= 0.127;  $t=5.680$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Hence, H4a is accepted. There is no direct effect of extrinsic rewards on brand internalisation (Beta value=-0.003;  $t = -.054$ ;  $p = 0.957$ ). Hence, H4b is not accepted. There is no direct effect of HR red tape on brand internalisation (Beta value = -0.052;  $t = -1.068$ ;  $p = 0.286$ ). Hence, H5 is not accepted.

#### 7.7.4 Step 3: The effects of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour

The effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour is examined using a linear regression analysis, and the results are shown in table 58 below.

| Results of linear regression with in-role brand building behaviour as a dependent variable |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Independent variable   | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Brand internalisation</b>   | .404 | 8.275   | .000 | .161        | 68.468  | .000 |

Table 58: Results of linear regression with in-role brand building behaviour as a dependent variable

As shown in table 58, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour (Beta value= 0.404;  $t=8.275$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Hence, H7 is accepted.

#### 7.7.5 Step 4: The effects of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour

The effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour are examined using a linear regression analysis, and the results are shown in table 59.

| Results of linear regression with extra-role brand building behaviour as a dependent variable |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Brand internalisation</b>  | .525 | 11.543  | .000 | .274        | 133.252 | .000 |

Table 59: Results of linear regression with extra-role brand building behaviour as a dependent variable

As shown in table 59, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour (Beta value= 0.525;  $t=11.543$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Hence, H8 is accepted.

### 7.7.6 Step 5: Mediation

As per the proposed relationship in the conceptual model, brand internalisation acts as a mediator to in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. Therefore, in this section, we need to rule out that there is a direct relationship between brand based transactional leadership, brand training, and intrinsic rewards with in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. In order to complete this step, mediation testing was computed following the work of Baron and Kenny (1986). Mediation analysis aims to investigate if the relationship between the exposure variable and the outcome variable are affected by a mediator. It tests whether there is a direct relationship between these variables and if the mediator variable causes the outcome variable. Figure (28) shows the mediation model that was followed. In this figure, A represents brand based transactional leadership, brand training and intrinsic rewards, while B represents brand internalisation, and C represents in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. Three regressions were firstly computed for in-role behaviour, then another three for extra-role behaviour. According to Barron and Kenny, if there is a change in levels values because of introducing the mediator, then there is mediation.

According to Baron and Kenny, the procedures are as follows:

Step 1: show that the variables are correlated with the mediator. Use the mediator as an outcome ( $A \rightarrow B$ ).

Step 2: show that the variables are correlated with the outcomes ( $A \rightarrow C$ ).

Step 3: show that the mediator affects the outcome variable. The mediator B is added to the variables A, and then tested together on C ( $A+B \rightarrow C$ ). to establish that the mediator completely mediates the  $A \rightarrow C$  relationships, the Beta and t value should be zero for the variables. However, if it is not zero, then there is partial mediation.

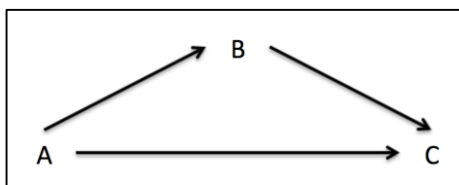


Figure 28: Mediation model from Baron and Kenny 1986

#### 7.7.6.1 Mediation of brand internalisation to in-role behaviour

##### Step 1: $A \rightarrow B$

In this first step, a regression analysis is done between brand based transactional leadership,



brand training and intrinsic rewards with brand internalisation. Table 60 shows the results.

| Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 1 on in-role behaviour.                                    |            |       |      |
|--|------------|-------|------|
| <b>Regression 1:</b> Brand based transactional leadership, brand training, intrinsic rewards → brand internalisation |            |       |      |
| Results  |            |       |      |
|  | Beta Value | t     | Sig. |
| <b>Brand based transactional leadership</b>  | .166       | 3.080 | .002 |
| <b>Brand training</b>  | .127       | 2.073 | .039 |
| <b>Intrinsic rewards</b>   | .329       | 5.680 | .000 |

**Table 60:** Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 1 on in-role behaviour.

According to table 60, there is significant evidence for the direct positive relationship of brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value= .166;  $t=3.080$ ;  $p<.05$ ), brand training (Beta Value= .127;  $t=2.073$ ;  $p<.05$ ) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value= .329;  $t=5.680$ ;  $p<.001$ ) on brand internalisation.

### Step 2: A→C

In this step, a regression analysis is computed between brand based transactional leadership, brand training and intrinsic rewards with in-role behaviour.

| Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 2 on in-role behaviour.                                |            |       |      |
|--|------------|-------|------|
| <b>Regression 1:</b> Brand based transactional leadership, brand training, intrinsic rewards → in-role behaviour |            |       |      |
| Results  |            |       |      |
|  | Beta Value | t     | Sig. |
| <b>Brand based transactional leadership</b>  | .250       | 4.739 | .000 |
| <b>Intrinsic rewards</b>   | .273       | 5.173 | .000 |

**Table 61:** Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 2 on in-role behaviour.

According to table 61, there is significant evidence for the direct positive relationship between brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value= .250;  $t=4.739$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value= .273;  $t=5.173$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and in-role behaviour. Moreover, there is no significant evidence of the direct effect of brand training on in-role behaviour (Beta Value=.096;  $t=1.49$ ;  $p=0.137$ ). Therefore, it will not be tested for mediation in step three.

### Step 3: A+B→C

In this next step, a regression analysis is done between transactional leadership, brand training

and bintrinsic rewards and included with brand internalisation on in-role Behaviour.

| Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 3 on in-role behaviour.                                |            |       |      |
|--|------------|-------|------|
| Regression 1: Brand based transactional leadership, intrinsic rewards, brand internalisation → in-role behaviour |            |       |      |
| Results  |            |       |      |
|  | Beta Value | t     | Sig. |
| Brand based leadership   | .199       | 3.785 | .000 |
| Intrinsic rewards  | .176       | 3.177 | .002 |
| Brand internalisation  | .248       | 4.564 | .000 |

**Table 62: Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 3 on in-role behaviour.**

As per table 62, according to Barron and Kenny, when introducing brand internalisation, the link between brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value= .199;  $t=3.785$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value= .176;  $t=3.177$ ;  $p<.05$ ) on in-role behaviour becomes weaker. Therefore, the results show partial but not full mediation. This is because brand based transactional leadership has a direct effect on employee in-role behaviour but is partially mediated by brand internalisation. Furthermore, intrinsic rewards also have a direct effect on employee in-role behaviour but is partially mediated by brand internalisation.

In the next section, we will repeat the above steps to test the mediation of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour.

### 7.7.6.2 Mediation of brand internalisation to extra-role behaviour

#### Step 1: A → B

In this first step, a regression analysis is done between brand based transactional leadership, brand training and intrinsic rewards with brand internalisation. Table 63 shows the results.

| Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 1 on extra-role behaviour.                          |            |       |      |
|---|------------|-------|------|
| Regression 1: Brand based transactional leadership, brand training, intrinsic rewards → brand internalisation |            |       |      |
| Results   |            |       |      |
|   | Beta Value | t     | Sig. |
| Brand based transactional leadership  | .166       | 3.080 | .002 |
| Brand training  | .127       | 2.073 | .039 |
| Intrinsic rewards   | .329       | 5.680 | .000 |

**Table 63: Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 1 on extra-role behaviour.**

According to table 63, there is significant evidence for the direct positive relationship of brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value= .166;  $t=3.080$ ;  $p<.05$ ), brand training (Beta Value= .127;  $t=2.073$ ;  $p<.05$ ) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value= .329;  $t=5.680$ ;  $p<.001$ ) on brand

internalisation.

### Step 2: A → C

In this next step, a regression analysis is computed between brand based transactional leadership, brand training and intrinsic rewards with extra-role behaviour. Table 64 shows the results.

| Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 2 on in-role behaviour.                            |            |       |      |
|--|------------|-------|------|
| Regression 1: Brand based transactional leadership, brand training, intrinsic rewards → extra-role behaviour |            |       |      |
| Results  |            |       |      |
|  | Beta Value | t     | Sig. |
| Brand based transactional leadership   | .265       | 5.639 | .000 |
| Intrinsic rewards  | .442       | 9.418 | .000 |

Table 64: Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 2 on in-role behaviour.

According to table 64, there is significant evidence for the direct positive relationship between brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value= .265; t=5.639; p<.001) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value= .442; t=9.418; p<.001) on extra-role behaviour. Moreover, there is no significant evidence of the direct effect of brand training on extra-role behaviour (Beta Value=0.089;t=0.155; p=0.12). Therefore, it will not be tested for mediation in step three.

### Step 3: A+B → C

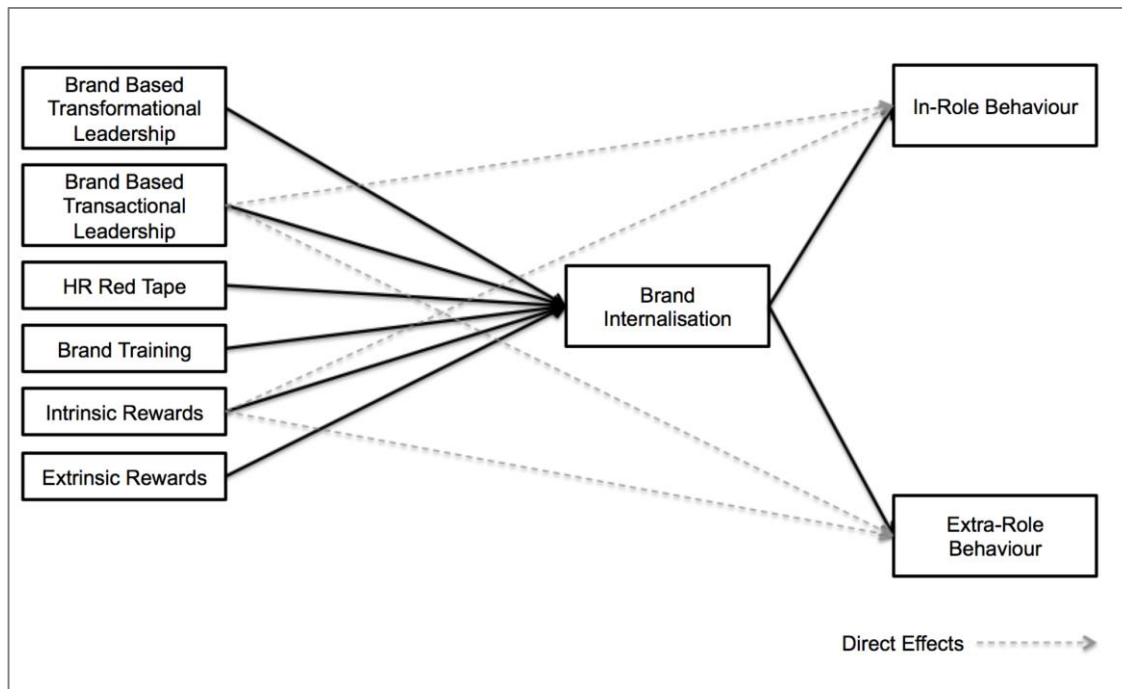
In this next step, a regression analysis is computed between brand based transactional leadership, intrinsic rewards and included with brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour. Table 65 below shows the results.

| Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 3 on extra-role behaviour.                                |            |       |      |
|---|------------|-------|------|
| Regression 1: Brand based transactional leadership, intrinsic rewards, brand internalisation → extra-role behaviour |            |       |      |
| Results   |            |       |      |
|   | Beta Value | t     | Sig. |
| Brand based transactional leadership  | .204       | 4.465 | .000 |
| Intrinsic rewards   | .327       | 6.784 | .000 |
| Brand internalisation   | .296       | 6.264 | .000 |

Table 65: Results of multiple regression for testing mediation step 3 on extra-role behaviour.

As per table 65, and according to Barron and Kenney, when introducing brand internalisation (the mediator), the link between brand based transactional Leadership (Beta Value= .204;

$t=4.465$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value= 0.327;  $t=6.784$ ;  $p<.001$ ) on extra-role behaviour becomes weaker. Therefore, the results show partial but not full mediation. This is because brand based transactional leadership has a direct effect on employee extra-role behaviour but is partially mediated by brand internalisation. Furthermore, intrinsic rewards also have a direct effect on employee extra-role behaviour but are partially mediated by brand internalisation.



**Figure 29: Summary of mediated and direct relationships**

Figure 29 illustrates the direct relationships and the mediated relationships as found in this research.

### 7.7.7 Step 6: Post-hoc analysis

The purpose of this section is to investigate the extent to which individuals who responded to this survey questionnaire differed on the basis of their demographic characteristics. These included gender, age, educational level, years of experience, grade in organisation, and position, in regards to brand based transformational leadership, brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and structural authority constraints.

When we run a multiple group analysis, we want to test if our models will look different for different groups within our dataset. Do the interactions between the different construct differ

according to different groups?

#### 7.7.7.1 The influence of gender

A multiple group stepwise regression was computed in order to investigate the differences between male and female respondents in the Riyadh Municipality.

The variable gender was identified as either male or female. There were 175 males, and 165 females. It was decided to split the data according to their gender. Using this distinction, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1 (male) N= 175.
- Group 2 (female) N= 165.

| Results of stepwise regression for males |                                      |                    |             |       |       |                |             |        |                |
|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model                                    | Variable                             | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig.  | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                                      |                    |             |       |       | 0.254          | 58.570      | 0.000  | 2.974          |
| 1  | Constant                             | 4.412              | 5.646       | 0.000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.142              | 7.653       | 0.000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|  |                                      |                    |             |       |       | 0.300          | 36.695      | 0.000  | 2.889          |
| 2  | Constant                             | 3.406              | 4.173       | 0.000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | .107               | 5.147       | 0.000 | 1.332 |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand based transactional leadership | .098               | 3.362       | 0.001 | 1.332 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 66: Results of stepwise regression for males**

Table 67 shows the results from the female respondents.

| Results of stepwise regression for females |                   |                    |             |       |       |                |             |        |                |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model                                      | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig.  | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                   |                    |             |       |       | 0.220          | 45.992      | 0.000  | 2.623          |
| 1  | Constant          | 5.485              | 6.493       | 0.000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand training    | 0.312              | 6.781       | 0.000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|  |                   |                    |             |       |       | 0.251          | 27.249      | 0.000  | 2.577          |
| 2  | Constant          | 4.042              | 4.057       | 0.000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.067              | 2.618       | 0.010 | 1.503 |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand             | 0.228              | 4.113       | 0.000 | 1.50  |                |             |        |                |

|  |          |  |  |   |   |  |  |  |  |
|--|----------|--|--|---|---|--|--|--|--|
|  | training |  |  | 0 | 3 |  |  |  |  |
|--|----------|--|--|---|---|--|--|--|--|

**Table 67: Results of stepwise regression for females**

As shown in table 66, for males, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.380;  $t=5.147$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), and brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value=.248;  $t=3.362$ ;  $p\leq 0.001$ ) on brand internalisation. As shown in table 67, for females, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.218;  $t=2.618$ ;  $p\leq 0.01$ ) and brand training (Beta value=.243;  $t=4.113$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) on brand internalisation.

Therefore, the level of brand internalisation for male employees is strongly predicted by intrinsic rewards and brand based transactional leadership. However, female employees value intrinsic rewards and training. Regardless of gender, intrinsic rewards are a strong predictor of brand internalisation in the public sector.

Next, we examine gender related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour.

| Gender related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Gender   | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Male</b>  | Brand internalisation | .377 | 5.339   | .000 | .137        | 28.510  | .000 |
| <b>Female</b>  | Brand internalisation | .407 | 5.683   | .000 | .160        | 32.291  | .000 |

**Table 68: Gender related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour**

As shown in table 68, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for both male and female respondents. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for females (Beta value= 0.407;  $t=5.683$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Next, we examine gender related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour.

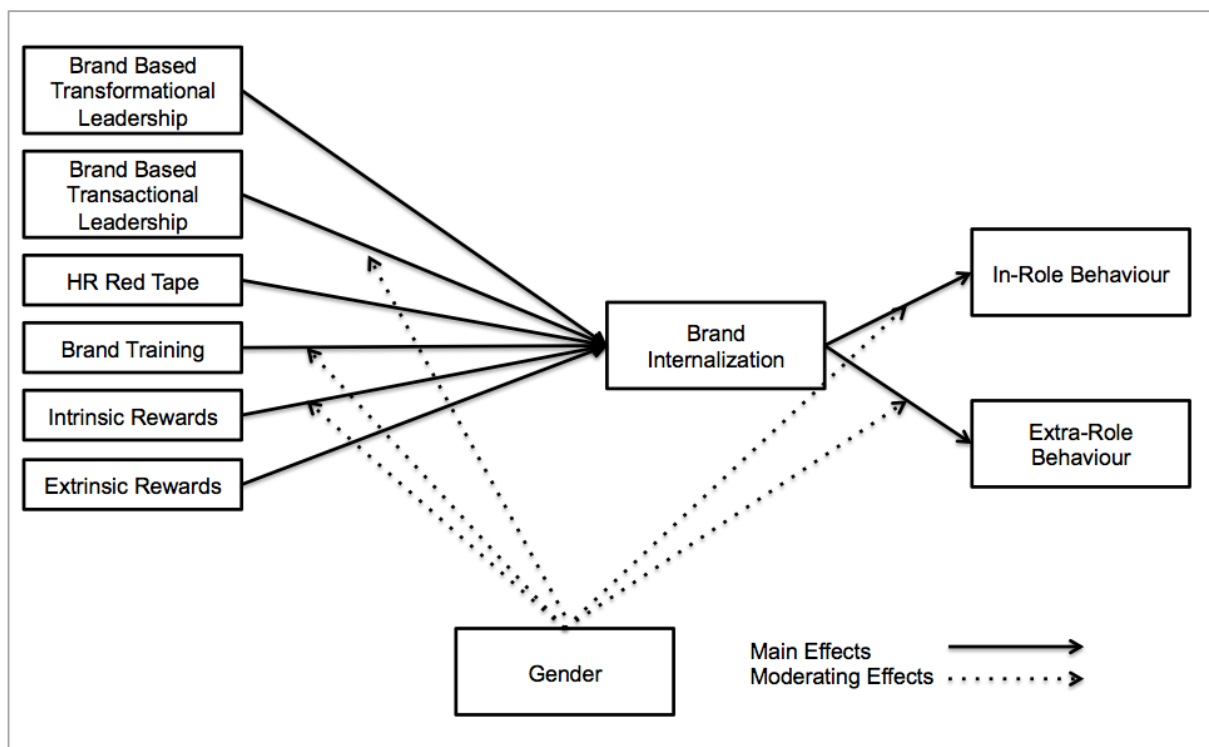
| Gender related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour |                      |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Gender  | Independent variable | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Male</b>   | Brand                | .497 | 7.512   | .000 | .243        | 56.437  | .000 |

|               |                       |      |       |      |      |        |      |
|---------------|-----------------------|------|-------|------|------|--------|------|
|               | internalisation       |      |       |      |      |        |      |
| <b>Female</b> | Brand internalisation | .574 | 8.951 | .000 | .325 | 80.126 | .000 |

**Table 69: Gender related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour**

As shown in Table 69, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour for both male and female respondents. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for females (Beta value= 0.574;  $t=8.951$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Figure 30 illustrates the moderating effect of gender on the three named variables.



**Figure 30: Moderating effect of gender**

#### 7.7.7.2 Age

The variable age ranged from <20 years old to 66+. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed about the mid point of 29 as defined by the median and the mean. It was therefore decided to use the median point of 29 to divide the distribution into two equal parts. Respondents under 29 years of age were categorised as a young group, and those 30 years or over were categorised as the older group. Using this definition of young and older respondents, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1 (young) Age 19 to 29: N= 212.

- Group 2 (older) Age 30+: N= 140.

| Results of stepwise regression for young respondents |                                      |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model  | Variable                             | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.195          | 52.089      | .000   | 2.921          |
| 1  | Constant                             | 5.207              | 6.888       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.128              | 7.217       | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|  |                                      |                    |             |      |       | .231           | 32.623      | .000   | 2.855          |
| 2  | Constant                             | 3.989              | 4.822       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.108              | 5.850       | .000 | 1.127 |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand based transactional leadership | 0.085              | 3.277       | .001 | 1.127 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 70: Results of stepwise regression for young respondents**

| Results of stepwise regression for older respondents |                   |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model  | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |       | .260           | 49.906      | .000   | 2.7266         |
| 1  | Constant          | 4.118              | 4.235       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.154              | 7.064       | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |       | .315           | 32.931      | .000   | 2.624          |
| 2  | Constant          | 7.474              | 5.546       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.140              | 6.568       | .000 | 1.035 |                |             |        |                |
|  | HR red tape       | -0.195             | -3.461      | .001 | 1.035 |                |             |        |                |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |       | .329           | 23.728      | .000   | 2.596          |
| 3  | Constant          | 6.767              | 4.902       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.113              | 4.449       | .000 | 1.487 |                |             |        |                |
|  | HR red tape       | -0.170             | -2.960      | .004 | 1.091 |                |             |        |                |
|  | Training          | 0.098              | 1.979       | .050 | 1.565 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 71: Results of stepwise regression for older respondents**

As shown in table 70, for younger respondents, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.375;  $t=5.850$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), and brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value=.210;  $t=3.277$ ;  $p\leq 0.001$ ) on brand internalisation.

As shown in table 71, for older respondents, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.377;  $t=4.449$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and brand training (Beta value=.172;  $t=1.979$ ;  $p\leq 0.05$ ) on brand internalisation. For older employees, there is evidence for the direct negative relationship between HR red tape (Beta Value=-.215;  $t=-2.960$ ;  $p<0.005$ ) and brand internalisation.



Therefore, regardless of age, public sector employees' brand internalisation is highly predicted by intrinsic rewards. While younger employees prefer brand based transactional leadership, older employees prefer training. The negative effects of HR red tape are more evident with older employees.

Next, we examine age-related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour.

| Age-related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Age   | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Younger</b>  | Brand internalisation | .399 | 6.308   | .000 | .137        | 39.786  | .000 |
| <b>Older</b>  | Brand internalisation | .408 | 5.255   | .000 | .160        | 27.614  | .000 |

**Table 72: Age-related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour**

As shown in table 72, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for both younger and older respondents. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for older participants (Beta value= 0.408;  $t=5.255$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Next, we examine age-related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour.

| Age-related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Age  | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Younger</b>   | Brand internalisation | .511 | 8.605   | .000 | .257        | 74.046  | .000 |
| <b>Older</b>   | Brand internalisation | .543 | 7.604   | .000 | .290        | 57.817  | .000 |

**Table 73: Age-related differences in the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour**

As shown in table 73, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour for both younger and older respondents. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for older participants (Beta value= 0.543;  $t=7.604$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Figure 31 illustrates the moderating effect of aAge on the named variables.

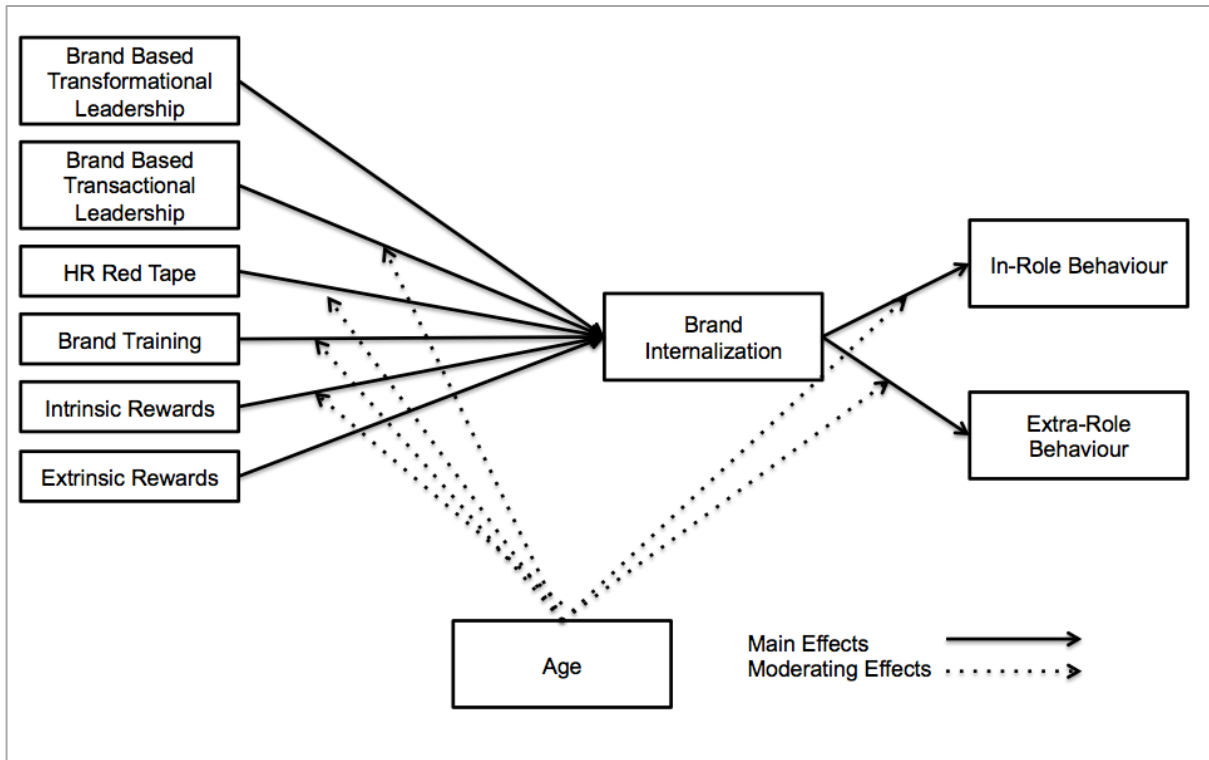


Figure 31: Moderating effect of age

### 7.7.7.3 Educational level

The variable educational level ranged from ‘1= less than high school’ to ‘7=doctoral degree’. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed about the mid point of ‘4=bachelor’s degree’ as defined by the median and the mean. It was therefore decided to use the median point of 4 to divide the distribution into two equal parts. Respondents with less than a bachelor’s degree were categorised as group 1, and those with a bachelor’s degree or above were categorised as group 2. Using these groups, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1 (‘1’ to ‘4’): N=128.
- Group 2 (greater than ‘4’): N=224.

| Results of stepwise regression for less educated respondents (group 1) |                   |                    |             |      |      |                |             |        |                |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model  | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |      | 0.217          | 34.951      | .000   | 2.687          |
| 1  | Constant          | 5.289              | 5.379       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.133              | 5.911       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |      | 0.285          | 24.919      | .000   | 2.578          |

|   |                                      |       |       |      |       |  |  |  |  |
|---|--------------------------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|--|--|--|--|
| 2 | Constant                             | 4.333 | 4.407 | .000 |       |  |  |  |  |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.093 | 3.796 | .000 | 1.288 |  |  |  |  |
|   | Brand based transactional leadership | 0.103 | 3.445 | .001 | 1.288 |  |  |  |  |

**Table 74: Results of stepwise regression for less educated respondents (group 1)**

Table 75 shows the results from more educated respondents.

| Results of stepwise regression for more educated respondents (group 2) |                   |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model  | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |       | 0.226          | 65.099      | .000   | 2.926          |
| 1  | Constant          | 4.609              | 6.190       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.139              | 8.068       | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |       | 0.255          | 37.862      | .000   | 2.878          |
| 2  | Constant          | 4.123              | 5.488       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | 0.100              | 4.673       | .000 | 1.610 |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand training    | 0.131              | 2.905       | .004 | 1.610 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 75: Results of stepwise regression for more educated respondents (group 2)**

As shown in table 74, for less educated respondents, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.326; t=3.796; p<0.001) and brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value=.296; t=3.445; p≤0.001) on brand internalisation.

As shown in table 75, for more educated respondents, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.344; t=4.673; p<0.001) and brand training (Beta value=.214; t=2.905; p<0.05) on brand internalisation.

Therefore, regardless of education level, public sector employees’ brand internalisation is highly predicted by intrinsic rewards. While less educated employees prefer brand based transactional leadership, the more educated employees value training. This could be because less educated employees may need more direction, while more educated employees value education and skill building and may prefer training. Next, we examine the differences related to educational level and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour.

| Educational level related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level  | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Less educated</b>   | Brand internalisation | .480 | 6.145   | .000 | .224        | 37.755  | .000 |

|                      |                       |      |       |      |      |        |      |
|----------------------|-----------------------|------|-------|------|------|--------|------|
| <b>More educated</b> | Brand internalisation | .367 | 5.870 | .000 | .130 | 34.457 | .000 |
|----------------------|-----------------------|------|-------|------|------|--------|------|

**Table 76: Educational level related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour**

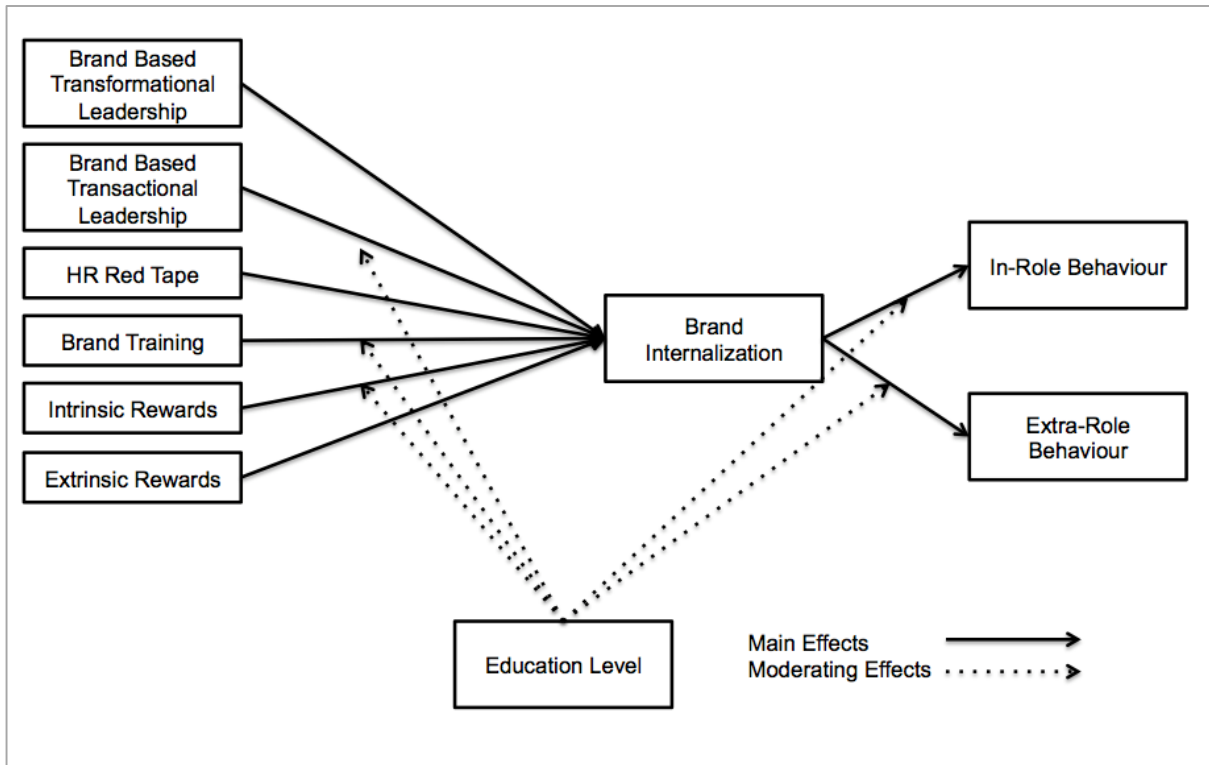
As shown in table 76, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for both less educated and more educated participants. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for less educated participants (Beta value= 0.480;  $t=6.145$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Next, we examine educational level related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour.

| Educational level related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level   | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Less educated</b>  | Brand internalisation | .501 | 6.491   | .000 | .245        | 42.127  | .000 |
| <b>More educated</b>  | Brand internalisation | .541 | 9.594   | .000 | .290        | 92.045  | .000 |

**Table 77: Educational level related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour**

As shown in table 77, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour for both less educated and more educated participants. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for more educated participants (Beta value= 0.541;  $t=9.594$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Figure 32 illustrates the moderating effect of education levels on the named variables.



**Figure 32: Moderating effect of educational levels**

#### 7.7.7.4 Years of experience

The variable years of experience ranged from one year to 17+ years. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed about the mid point 4 years as defined by the median and the mean. It was therefore decided to use the median point of 4 to divide the distribution into two equal parts. Respondents with up to four years of experience were categorised as group 1, and those with four years' experience or higher were categorised as group 2. Using these groups, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1 Up to 4 years: N=210.
- Group 2 More than 4 years: N=142

| Results of stepwise regression for less experienced respondents (Group 1) |   |                    |             |      |      |                |             |        |                |
|---|---|--------------------|-------------|------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable                                | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |   |                    |             |      |      | 0.196          | 50.859      | .000   | 2.8            |
| 1   | Constant                                | 5.290              | 6.867       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                       | 0.126              | 7.131       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |
|   |   |                    |             |      |      | 0.285          | 33.293      | .000   | 2.8            |
| 2   | Constant                                | 3.446              | 3.792       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                       | 0.082              | 3.919       | .000 | 1.5  |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based transformational leadership | 0.053              | 3.582       | .000 | 1.5  |                |             |        |                |
|   |   |                    |             |      |      | 0.262          | 24.427      | .000   | 2.8            |
| 3   | Constant                                | 3.530              | 3.921       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                       | 0.063              | 2.806       | .005 | 1.7  |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based transformational leadership | 0.038              | 2.416       | .017 | 1.8  |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand training                          | 0.107              | 2.304       | .022 | 1.8  |                |             |        |                |

**Table 78: Results of stepwise regression for less experienced respondents (Group 1)**

Table 79 shows the results from more experienced respondents.

| Results of stepwise regression for more experienced respondents (Group 2) |                                      |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable                             | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      | 0.226 | 0.267          | 51.014      | .000   | 2.8            |
| 1   | Constant                             | 4.137              | 4.428       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.155              | 7.142       | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.255          | 29.737      | .000   | 2.8            |
| 2   | Constant                             | 3.265              | 3.337       | .001 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.133              | 5.829       | .000 | 1.2   |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based transactional leadership | 0.074              | 2.543       | .012 | 1.2   |                |             |        |                |

**Table 79: Results of stepwise regression for more experienced respondents (Group 2)**

As shown in table 78, for less experienced respondents, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.222;  $t=2.806$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and brand based transformational leadership (Beta Value=.193;  $t=2.416$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) and Brand Training (Beta Value=.186;  $t=2.304$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) on brand internalisation.

As shown in table 79, for more experienced respondents, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.445;  $t=5.829$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and brand based transactional leadership (Beta value=.219;  $t=2.543$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) on brand internalisation.

Therefore, the brand internalisation of employees with less experience is highly predicted by

intrinsic rewards, brand based transformational leadership and brand training. However, it is interesting to note that the brand internalisation in employees with more experience is predicted by intrinsic rewards and brand based transactional leadership.

Next, we examine years of experience related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour.

| Years of experience related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level  | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Less experienced</b>  | Brand internalisation | .439 | 7.056   | .000 | .189        | 49.783  | .000 |
| <b>More experienced</b>  | Brand internalisation | .357 | 4.523   | .000 | .121        | 20.460  | .000 |

**Table 80: Years of experience related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour**

As shown in table 80, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for both less experienced and more experienced participants. However, the relationship is stronger for less experienced participants (Beta value= 0.439;  $t=7.056$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Next, we examine years of experience related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour.

| Years of experience related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level   | Independent Variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Less experienced</b>   | Brand internalisation | .550 | 9.496   | .000 | .299        | 90.170  | .000 |
| <b>More experienced</b>   | Brand internalisation | .492 | 6.692   | .000 | .237        | 44.788  | .000 |

**Table 81: Years of experience related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour**

As shown in table 81, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour for both less experienced and more experienced participants. However, the relationship is stronger for less experienced participants (Beta value= 0.550;  $t=9.496$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

Figure 33 illustrates the moderating effect of years of experience on the named variables.

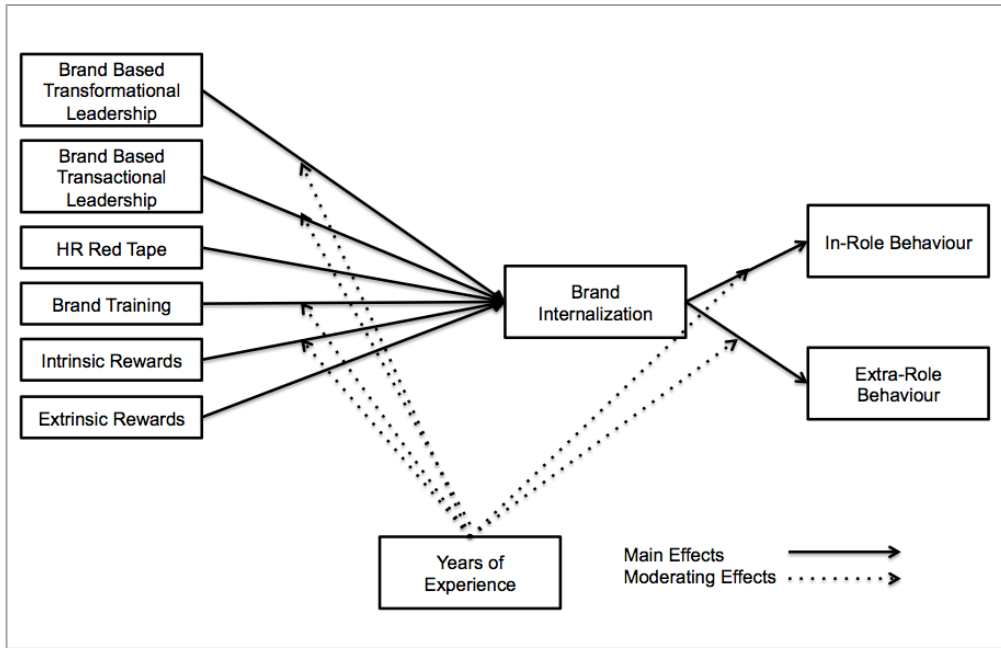


Figure 33: Moderating effect of years of experience

### 7.7.7.5 Role in organisation

The variable role in organisation ranged from ‘1=deputy mayor’ to ‘7=non-manager’. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed between managers and non-managers. It was therefore decided to group all managerial positions in group 1, and non-managers in group 2. Using these groups, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1: (1 to 6): N=224.
- Group 2: (7): N=128.

| Results of stepwise regression for managers (Group 1) |                                      |                    |             |      |      |                |             |        |                |
|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable                             | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      |      | 0.178          | 48.086      | .000   | 2.964          |
| 1   | Constant                             | 5.647              | 7.627       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.120              | 6.934       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |
|   |                                      |                    |             |      |      | 0.208          | 29.138      | .000   | 2.91           |
| 2   | Constant                             | 4.822              | 6.176       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.094              | 4.856       | .000 | 1.28 |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based Transactional leadership | 0.078              | 2.924       | .004 | 1.28 |                |             |        |                |

Table 82: Results of stepwise regression for managers (Group 1)



| Results of stepwise regression for non-managers (Group 2) |   |                    |             |       |      |                |             |        |                |
|---|---|--------------------|-------------|-------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable                                | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig.  | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |   |                    |             |       |      | 0.340          | 65.126      | .000   | 2.58           |
| 1   | Constant                                | 2.874              | 2.921       | .004  |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                       | 0.180              | 8.070       | .000  | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |
|   |   |                    |             |       |      | 0.412          | 65.126      | .000   | 2.44           |
| 2   | Constant                                | 0.923              | 0.872       | .0384 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards                       | 0.140              | 5.970       | .000  | 1.23 |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand based transformational leadership | 0.054              | 3.911       | .000  | 1.23 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 83: Results of stepwise regression for non-managers (Group 2)**

As shown in table 82, for managers, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.329;  $t=4.856$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value=.198;  $t=2.924$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) on brand internalisation.

As shown in table 83, for non-managers, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.454;  $t=6.434$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and brand based transformational leadership (Beta value=.298;  $t=3.911$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) on brand internalisation.

Therefore, regardless of role in organisation, brand internalisation is predicted by intrinsic rewards. Interestingly, managers prefer brand based transactional leadership, while non-managers prefer brand based transformational leadership.

Next, we examine role in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation on in-role behaviour.

| Role in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level   | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Managers</b>   | Brand internalisation | .351 | 5.593   | .000 | .120        | 31.285  | .000 |
| <b>Non-managers</b>   | Brand internalisation | .500 | 6.480   | .000 | .224        | 41.995  | .000 |

**Table 84: Role in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour**

As shown in table 84, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for both managers and non-managers. However, the relationship is stronger for employees that are not managers (Beta value= 0.500;  $t=6.480$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

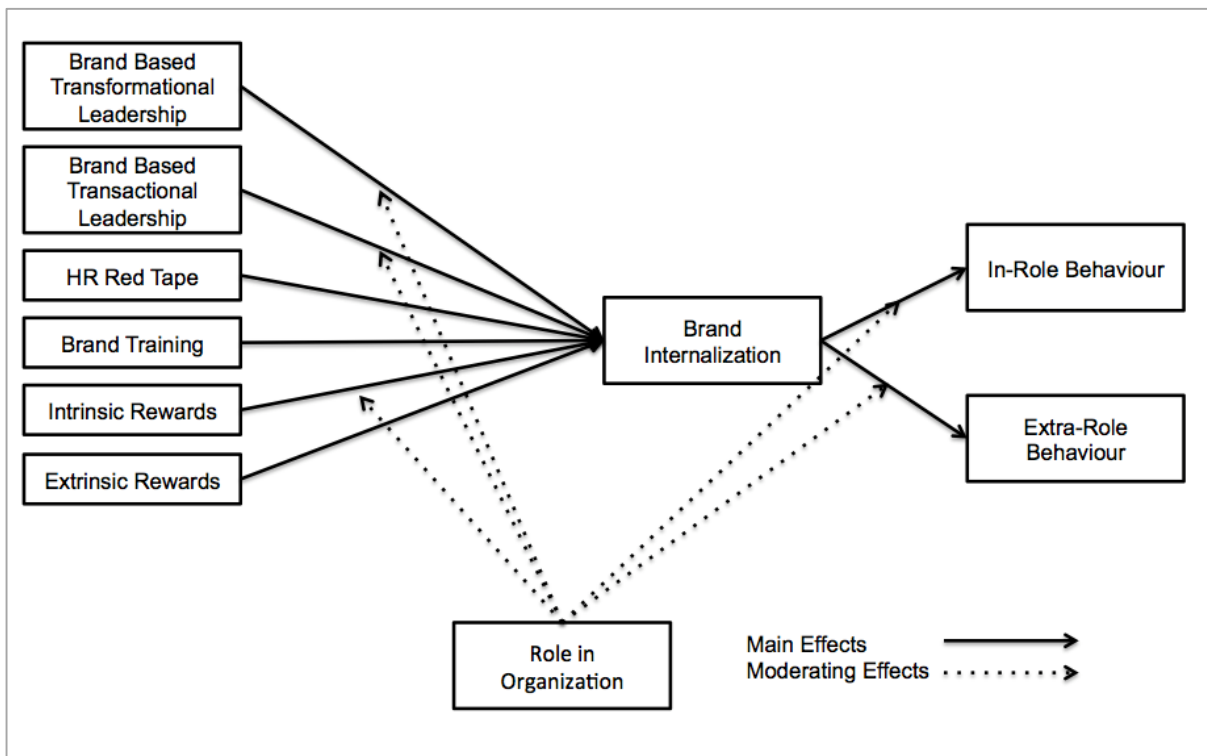
Next, we examine role in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour.

| Role in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level  | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Managers</b>  | Brand internalisation | .496 | 8.509   | .000 | .243        | 72.399  | .000 |
| <b>Non-managers</b>  | Brand internalisation | .583 | 8.054   | .000 | .335        | 64.862  | .000 |

**Table 85: Role in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour**

As shown in table 85, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour for both managers and non-managers. However, the relationship is stronger for employees that are not managers (Beta value= 0.583; t=8.054; p<0.001).

Figure 34 illustrates the moderating effect of role in organisation on the named variables.



**Figure 34: Moderating effect of role (managerial vs. non managerial) in organisation**

### 7.7.7.6 Grade in organisation

The variable grade in organisation ranged from 1 to 12. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed about the mid point grade 4 as defined by the median and the mean. It was therefore decided to use the median point of 4 to divide the distribution into two equal parts. Respondents with up to grade 4 were categorised as group 1, and those with grade 4 or higher were categorised as group 2. Using these groups, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1 (grade 1 to 4): N=231.
- Group 2 (grade 4 or higher): N= 121.

Table 86 below shows the stepwise regression results of employees with a lower grade.

| Results of stepwise regression for lower grade employees |                                      |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model  | Variable                             | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.215          | 62.843      | .000   | 2.805          |
| 1  | Constant                             | 5.284              | 7.467       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.131              | 7.927       | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|  |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.263          | 40.735      | .000   | 2.724          |
| 2  | Constant                             | 4.811              | 6.892       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.083              | 4.070       | .000 | 1.608 |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand training                       | 0.154              | 3.851       | .000 | 1.608 |                |             |        |                |
|  |                                      |                    |             |      |       | 0.278          | 29.140      | .000   | 2.702          |
| 3  | Constant                             | 4.255              | 5.756       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards                    | 0.077              | 3.806       | .000 | 1.63  |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand training                       | 0.116              | 2.675       | .008 | 1.92  |                |             |        |                |
|  | Brand based transactional leadership | 0.054              | 2.155       | .032 | 1.44  |                |             |        |                |

**Table 86: Results of stepwise regression for lower grade employees**

Table 87 below shows the results from higher grade employees.

| Results of stepwise regression for higher grade employees |                   |                    |             |      |      |                |             |        |                |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |                   |                    |             |      |      | 0.258          | 41.39       | .000   | 2.889          |
| 1   | Constant          | 3.646              | 3.371       | .001 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards | 0.157              | 6.434       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 87: Results of stepwise regression for higher grade employees**

As shown in table 86, for employees on the lower grades, there is evidence for the direct

positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.274;  $t=3.806$ ;  $p<0.001$ ), brand training (Beta Value=.209;  $t=2.675$ ;  $p<0.01$ ), and brand based transactional leadership (Beta Value=.146;  $t=2.155$ ;  $p<0.05$ ) on brand internalisation.

As shown in table 87, for employees on the higher grades, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.508;  $t=6.434$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) and brand internalisation.

Therefore, regardless of grade in organisation, brand internalisation is predicted by intrinsic rewards. Employees with lower grades also value training and brand based transactional leadership. Next, we examine grade in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour.

| Grade in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|--|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level  | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Lower grade</b>   | Brand internalisation | .419 | 6.983   | .000 | .172        | 48.756  | .000 |
| <b>Higher grade</b>  | Brand internalisation | .374 | 4.404   | .000 | .133        | 19.394  | .000 |

**Table 88: Grade in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and in-role behaviour**

As shown in table 88, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for both lower grade and higher grade participants. However, the relationship is slightly stronger for participants with lower grades (Beta value=0.419;  $t=6.983$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

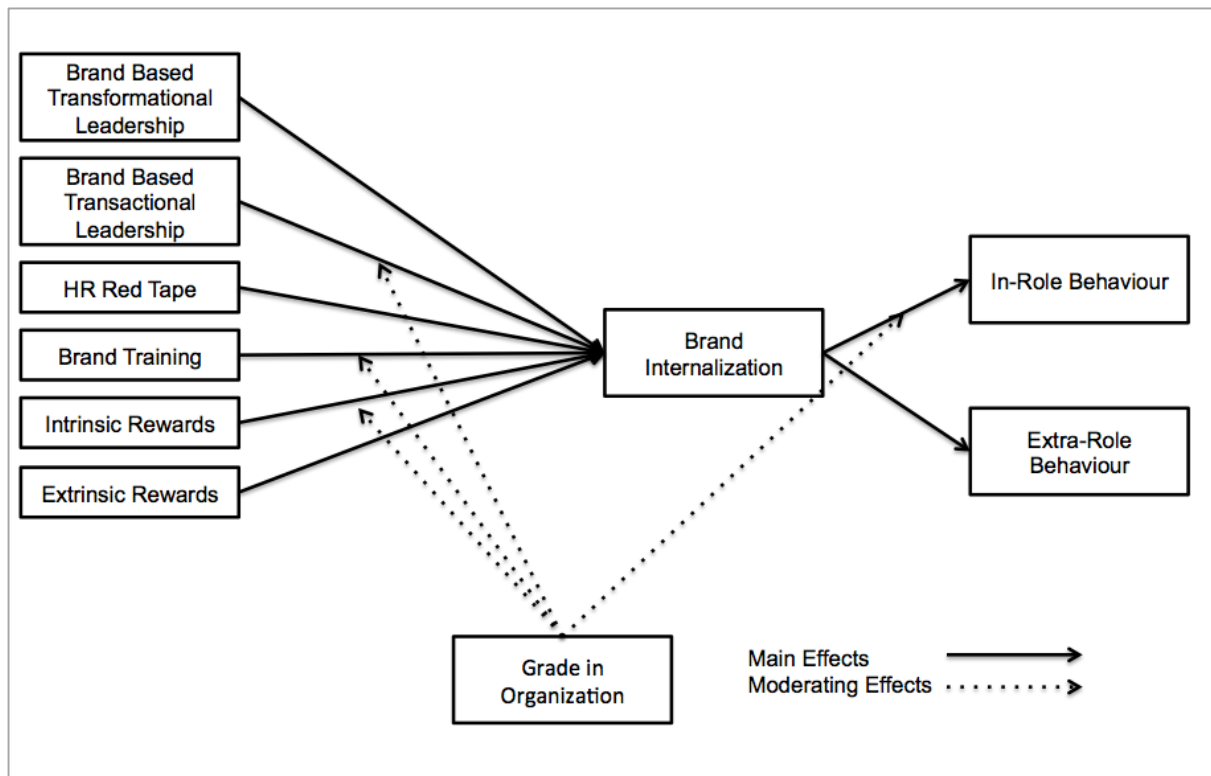
Next, we examine grade in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour.

| Grade in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour |                       |      |         |      |             |         |      |
|---|-----------------------|------|---------|------|-------------|---------|------|
| Educational level   | Independent variable  | Beta | T value | Sig. | Adjusted R2 | F-value | Sig. |
| <b>Lower grade</b>  | Brand internalisation | .525 | 9.344   | .000 | .273        | 87.316  | .000 |
| <b>Higher grade</b>   | Brand internalisation | .529 | 6.797   | .000 | .274        | 46.196  | .000 |

**Table 89: Grade in organisation related differences and the relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour**

As shown in table 89, there is significant evidence for the direct positive effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour for both lower grade and higher grade participants. Therefore, grade in organisation does not moderate the relationship between brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour.

Figure 35 illustrates the moderating effect of grade in organisation on the named variables.



**Figure 35: Moderating effect of grade in organisation**

#### 7.7.7.7 Brand based transformational leadership

The variable brand based transformational leadership ranged from 0 to 94. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed about the mid point of 68 as defined by the median and the mean. It was therefore decided to use the median point of 68 to divide the distribution into two equal parts. Respondents with up to 68 were categorised as low transformational, and those over 68 were categorised as high transformational. Using these groups, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1: low transformational (up to 68): N=162.
- Group 2: high transformational (over 68): N= 191.

Table 90 shows the stepwise regression results when brand based transformational leadership was low.

| Results of stepwise regression lower brand based transformational leadership |                   |                    |             |      |      |                |             |        |                |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model  | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |      | .157           | 37.338      | .000   | 3.012          |
| 1  | Constant          | 5.062              | 6.593       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | .121               | 6.110       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |
|  |                   |                    |             |      |      | .190           | 23.391      | .000   | 2.96           |
| 2  | Constant          | 7.343              | 6.675       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|  | Intrinsic rewards | .121               | 6.220       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |
|  | HR red tape       | -.156              | -2.849      | .005 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 90: Results of stepwise regression lower brand based transformational leadership**

Table 91 shows the results for when brand based transformational leadership was high.

| Results of stepwise regression for higher brand based transformational leadership |                   |                    |             |      |      |                |             |        |                |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF  | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |                   |                    |             |      |      | 0.84           | 13.433      | .000   | 2.47           |
| 1   | Constant          | 7.639              | 6.399       | .000 |      |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards | 0.091              | 3.665       | .000 | 1.00 |                |             |        |                |

**Table 91: Results of stepwise regression for higher brand based transformational leadership**

As shown in Table 90, for the group of employees that perceive their leaders to be less transformational in their leadership style, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.396;  $t=6.220$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) and HR red tape (Beta Value=-.181;  $t=-2.849$ ;  $p<.05$ ) on brand internalisation. There is also evidence for the direct negative relationship between HR red tape (Beta Value=-.181;  $t=-2.849$ ;  $p<.05$ ) and brand internalisation.

As shown in table 91, for the group of employees that perceive their leaders to be more transformational in their leadership style, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.289;  $t=3.665$ ;  $p<0.001$ ) on brand internalisation.

Therefore, regardless of the level of brand based transformational leadership, brand internalisation is predicted by intrinsic rewards. However, employees that perceive their leaders to be less transformational are negatively affected by HR red tape.

Figure 36 illustrates the moderating effect of brand based transformational leadership on the named variables.

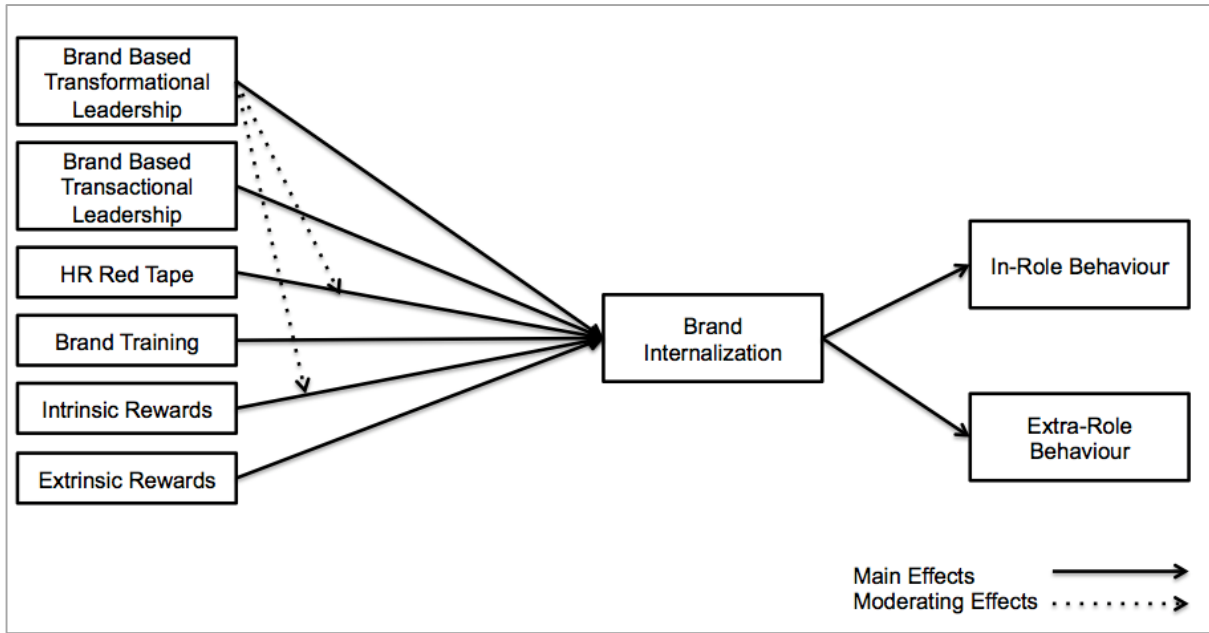


Figure 36: The moderating effect of brand based transformational leadership

### 7.7.7.8 Brand based transactional leadership

The variable brand based transactional leadership ranged from 0 to 40. This variable appeared to be symmetrically distributed about the mid point of 24 as defined by the median and the mean. It was therefore decided to use the median point of 24 to divide the distribution into two equal parts. Respondents with up to 24 were categorised as low transactional, and those over 24 were categorised as high transactional. Using these groups, a stepwise regression analysis was computed.

- Group 1: low transactional (up to 24): N=152.
- Group 2: high transactional (over 24): N= 175.

Table 92 shows the stepwise regression results when brand based transactional leadership was low.

| Results of stepwise regression lower brand based transactional leadership |                   |                    |             |      |       |                |             |        |                |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|-------------|------|-------|----------------|-------------|--------|----------------|
| Model   | Variable          | Parameter estimate | t-statistic | Sig. | VIF   | R <sup>2</sup> | F-Statistic | Prob>F | Standard error |
|   |                   |                    |             |      |       | .145           | 29.468      | .000   | 3.019          |
| 1   | Constant          | 6.103              | 8.993       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand training    | .261               | 5.428       | .000 | 1.00  |                |             |        |                |
|   |                   |                    |             |      |       | .186           | 19.745      | .000   | 2.954          |
| 2   | Constant          | 4.587              | 5.464       | .000 |       |                |             |        |                |
|   | Brand training    | .174               | 3.140       | .002 | 1.390 |                |             |        |                |
|   | Intrinsic rewards | .071               | 2.952       | .004 | 1.390 |                |             |        |                |

Table 92: Results of stepwise regression lower brand based transactional leadership

Table 93 shows the results for when brand based transactional leadership was high.

| <b>Results of stepwise regression for high brand based transactional leadership</b> |                   |                           |                    |             |            |                      |                    |                  |                       |
|---|-------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|-------------|------------|----------------------|--------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Model</b>  | <b>Variable</b>   | <b>Parameter estimate</b> | <b>t-statistic</b> | <b>Sig.</b> | <b>VIF</b> | <b>R<sup>2</sup></b> | <b>F-Statistic</b> | <b>Prob&gt;F</b> | <b>Standard error</b> |
|   |                   |                           |                    |             |            | .197                 | 42.691             | .000             | 2.559                 |
| 1   | Constant          | 5.509                     | 5.770              | .000        |            |                      |                    |                  |                       |
|   | Intrinsic rewards | .133                      | 6.534              | .000        | 1.00       |                      |                    |                  |                       |

**Table 93: Results of stepwise regression for high brand based transactional leadership**

As shown in table 92, for the group of employees that perceive their leaders to be less transactional in their leadership style, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between brand training (Beta Value=.254;  $t=3.140$ ;  $p<0.5$ ) and intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.239;  $t=2.952$ ;  $p<0.5$ ) on brand internalisation.

As shown in table 93, for the group of employees that perceive their leaders to be more transactional in their leadership style, there is evidence for the direct positive relationship between intrinsic rewards (Beta Value=.444;  $t=6.534$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) on brand internalisation.

Therefore, regardless of the level of brand based transactional leadership, brand Internalisation is predicted by intrinsic rewards. However, employees that perceive their leaders to be less transactional are also positively affected by brand training.

Figure 37 illustrates the moderating effect of brand based transactional leadership on the named variables.



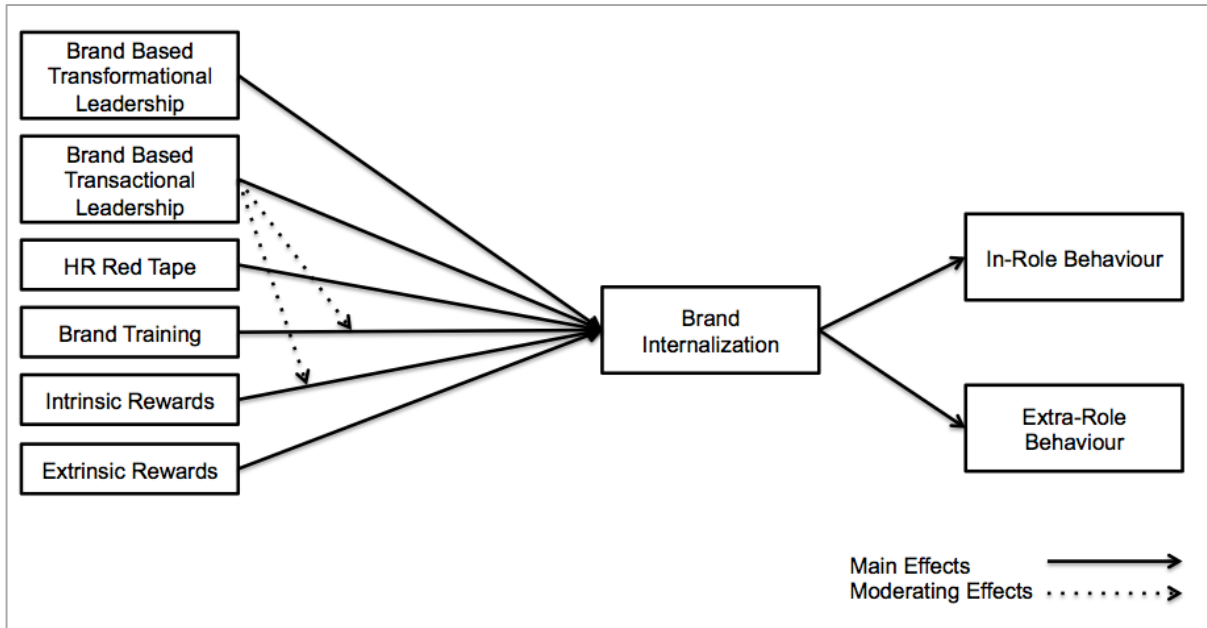


Figure 37: Moderating effect of brand based transactional leadership

7.7.7.9 Summary of post-hoc analysis

Table 94 displays a summary of the post-hoc analysis.

| Summary of the post-hoc analysis |  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|--|
| Variable                         | Group 1 findings   | Group 2 findings   |
| Gender                           | Males:<br>Male employees are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when their leaders are more transactional and offer intrinsic rewards.   | Females:<br>Female employees are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when offered more intrinsic rewards and receive more organisational brand training. The effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour is slightly stronger for women.  |
| Age                              | Young:<br>Young employees are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and when their leader is more transactional.   | Old:<br>Older employees are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and attend training related to the organisation's brand. Older employees are also more negatively affected by HR red tape. The effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour is slightly stronger for older employees. |
| Educational level                | Less educated employees:<br>Employees with less than a bachelor's degree are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and when their leaders are more transactional. The effect of brand internalisation on in-role | More educated employees:<br>Employees who have obtained a bachelor's degree or higher are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and attend training related to the organisation's brand.   |

|   |  |  |
|---|--|--|
|   | behaviour is slightly stronger for less educated employees.  | The effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour is slightly stronger for more educated employees.  |
| Years of experience                     | Less experienced:<br>Employees with less than four years of experience are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and are able to attend training related to the organisation's brand, and their leader is more transformational.<br>The effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour is slightly stronger for less experienced employees. | More experienced:<br>Employees with more than four years of experience are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and their leader is more transactional.   |
| Role in organisation:                   | Managers:<br>Managers are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and their leader is more transactional.  | Non-managers:<br>Non-managers are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and their leader is more transformational.<br>The effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour is slightly stronger for non-managers. |
| Grade                                   | Lower grade:<br>Employees on grades 1 to 4 are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically, are able to attend training related to the organisation's brand, and their leader is more transactional.<br>The effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour is slightly stronger for lower grade employees.   | Higher grade:<br>Employees on a grade higher than 4 are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically.   |
| Brand based transformational leadership | Lower transformational:<br>The group of employees that perceive their leaders to be less transformational in their leadership style are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically. This group are also affected negatively with the restrictions of HR red tape.   | Higher transformational:<br>The group of employees that perceive their leaders to be more transformational in their leadership style are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically.  |
| Brand based transactional leadership    | Lower transactional:<br>The group of employees that perceive their leaders to be less transactional in their leadership style are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically and when they are able to attend training related to the organisational brand.   | Higher transactional:<br>The group of employees that perceive their leaders to be more transactional in their leadership style are more likely to internalise their organisational brand values when they are rewarded intrinsically.  |

**Table 94: Summary of the post-hoc analysis.**

### 7.8 Results from the open-ended questions (Q84-Q88)

In the next section, the key results of the open-ended questions are presented. The first open-ended question asked the participants to share their personal goals and ambitions.

### 7.8.1 Personal goals and ambitions

Participants in the survey questionnaire were asked to share their personal goals and ambitions. They were given the opportunity to select three options, the first selection being their first choice. Out of 352 participants, over 20% said that they are working to reach a promotion and achieve career development. Participants also shared that they wanted to further their education and work on their own self-development. Table 95 shows the results of the open-ended questions grouped into fifteen items.

| Survey participants' personal goals and ambitions |                  |        |                   |       |                  |       |
|---|------------------|--------|-------------------|-------|------------------|-------|
| Personal goals and ambitions<br>(N=352)           | First preference |        | Second preference |       | Third preference |       |
| Career development / higher position              | 80               | 22.73% |                   |       |                  |       |
| Pursue higher studies / master's degree           | 29               | 8.24%  | 5                 | 1.42% |                  |       |
| Personality development and self-improvement      | 23               | 6.53%  | 5                 | 1.42% |                  |       |
| Career stability and security                     | 13               | 3.69%  | 3                 | 0.85% |                  |       |
| Continue to serve the public                      | 18               | 5.11%  | 9                 | 2.56% | 1                | 0.28% |
| Develop advanced systems for the municipality     | 14               | 3.98%  | 3                 | 0.85% |                  |       |
| Acquire training skills and courses               | 13               | 3.69%  | 12                | 3.41% | 3                | 0.85% |
| Achieve my ambitions in life                      | 5                | 1.42%  | 1                 | 0.28% |                  |       |
| Change my job for a better opportunity            | 5                | 1.42%  | 2                 | 0.57% |                  |       |
| Have a nice villa / house                         | 7                | 1.99%  | 4                 | 1.14% | 1                |       |
| Have medical insurance                            | 2                | 0.57%  | 5                 | 1.42% |                  |       |
| Get a higher salary                               | 3                | 0.85%  | 1                 | 0.28% |                  |       |
| Have good welfare for my children                 | 1                | 0.28%  | 1                 | 0.28% |                  |       |
| Motivate employees to improve productivity        | 6                | 1.70%  |                   |       |                  |       |

Table 95: Survey participants' personal goals and ambitions

### 7.8.2 Professional career goals and ambitions

Employees were asked to state their four professional goals.;127 employees did not respond. Out of those who responded, the greatest number of employees (49%) chose career development as their preferred professional goal. The second choice was also to further education, similar to the previous question. This adds to the importance of these factors for employees in the Riyadh Municipality.

| <b>Survey participants' professional career goals and ambitions</b>  |                         |        |                          |       |                         |        |
|--|-------------------------|--------|--------------------------|-------|-------------------------|--------|
| <b>Participants' professional career goals and ambitions (N=352)</b> | <b>First preference</b> |        | <b>Second preference</b> |       | <b>Third preference</b> |        |
| Career development / higher position                                 | 111                     | 31.53% |                          |       |                         |        |
| Pursue higher studies / master's degree                              | 31                      | 8.81%  | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |        |
| Personality development and self-improvement                         | 8                       | 2.27%  | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |        |
| Career stability and security  | 4                       | 1.14%  | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |        |
| Continue to serve the public   | 12                      | 3.41%  | 4                        | 1.14% |                         |        |
| Develop advanced systems for the municipality                        | 18                      | 5.11%  | 15                       | 4.26% |                         |        |
| Acquire training skills and courses                                  | 11                      | 3.13%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Achieve my ambitions in life   | 1                       | 0.28%  | 1                        | 0.28% | 1                       | 0.28 % |
| Change my job for a better opportunity                               | 6                       | 1.70%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Have a nice villa / accommodation                                    | 1                       | 0.28%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Get a better and higher salary                                       | 4                       | 1.14%  |                          |       | 1                       | 0.28 % |
| Have good welfare for my children                                    | 1                       | 0.28%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Motivate employees to improve productivity                           | 5                       | 1.42%  |                          |       | 2                       | 0.57 % |
| No comment   | 127                     | 36.08% |                          |       |                         |        |
| Contribute more to the organisation                                  | 9                       | 2.56%  |                          |       |                         |        |

**Table 96: Survey participants' professional career goals and ambitions**

### 7.8.3 General impression towards immediate leader or supervisor

Participants were asked to share their general perceptions about their immediate leaders or supervisors. Almost 30% of the participants shared that their leader was 'excellent'. They also shared that their leader was respectful and hardworking or ordinary. Over 33% did not comment on this question.

| <b>Survey participants' general impression towards their immediate leader or supervisor</b> |                         |        |                          |       |                         |        |
|---|-------------------------|--------|--------------------------|-------|-------------------------|--------|
| <b>General impression towards their immediate leader or supervisor (N=352)</b>              | <b>First preference</b> |        | <b>Second preference</b> |       | <b>Third preference</b> |        |
| Excellent leader  | 105                     | 29.83% |                          |       |                         |        |
| Respectful  | 16                      | 4.55%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Hardworking   | 17                      | 4.83%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Cooperative   | 7                       | 1.99%  | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |        |
| Ambitious   | 4                       | 1.14%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Humble  | 4                       | 1.14%  | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |        |
| Motivating / Encouraging  | 8                       | 2.27%  | 3                        | 0.85% | 1                       | 0.28 % |
| Responsible   | 17                      | 4.83%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Great and wonderful personality   | 6                       | 1.70%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Positive attitude   | 5                       | 1.42%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Successful  | 4                       | 1.14%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Wise and intelligent  | 1                       | 0.28%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |

|                              |    |       |   |       |   |        |
|------------------------------|----|-------|---|-------|---|--------|
| Incompetent / bad leader     | 18 | 5.11% | 1 | 0.28% |   |        |
| Just and fair                |    | 0.00% | 6 | 1.70% | 1 | 0.28 % |
| Practises nepotism and waste | 4  | 1.14% |   |       |   |        |
| Not fair and just            | 5  | 1.42% | 2 | 0.57% |   |        |
| Fine / ordinary              | 14 | 3.98% |   |       |   |        |

**Table 97: Survey participants' general impression towards their immediate leader or supervisor**

#### 7.8.4 General impression towards the Municipality of Riyadh

Participants were also asked to share their general perceptions about the municipality. While 30% did not comment, others thought that it was simply 'great or excellent'. Others thought it was good, or positive, while some thought it had a bad reputation. Table 98 shows the results of the participants grouped according to their answers.

| <b>Survey participants' general impression towards the Municipality of Riyadh</b> |                         |        |                          |       |                         |        |
|---|-------------------------|--------|--------------------------|-------|-------------------------|--------|
| <b>General impression towards the Municipality of Riyadh (N=352)</b>              | <b>First preference</b> |        | <b>Second preference</b> |       | <b>Third preference</b> |        |
| Acceptable  | 13                      | 3.69%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Excellent and great   | 46                      | 13.07% |                          |       |                         |        |
| Good / positive   | 73                      | 20.74% | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Bad reputation  | 34                      | 9.66%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Practices nepotism and waste  | 5                       | 1.42%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Shows improvement / getting better  | 12                      | 3.41%  |                          |       |                         |        |
| Serves the citizens well  | 17                      | 4.83%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| Proud organisation  | 4                       | 1.14%  | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |        |
| One of the best Municipalities in the KSA   | 7                       | 1.99%  | 1                        | 0.28% | 1                       | 0.28 % |
| Needs improvement to serve people better  | 7                       | 1.99%  | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |        |

**Table 98: Survey participants' general impression towards the Municipality of Riyadh**

#### 7.8.5 Barriers or challenges faced by participants in the Municipality of Riyadh

Participants were also asked to share their views about the barriers and challenges that they faced in the Municipality of Riyadh. 20% believed their work procedures and systems needed to be improved, and 20% shared that they believed that their immediate supervisors were not capable or competent for their job. Some also believed that not enough people are aware of the Municipality's rules and regulations. Table 99 presents the results of the participants grouped by their answers to the open-ended question.

| <b>Barriers or challenges faced by the survey participants' in the Municipality of Riyadh</b>        |                         |       |                          |       |                         |       |
|--|-------------------------|-------|--------------------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| <b>Barriers or challenges faced by the survey participants in the Municipality of Riyadh (N=352)</b> | <b>First preference</b> |       | <b>Second preference</b> |       | <b>Third preference</b> |       |
| Bureaucracy  | 5                       | 1.42% |                          |       |                         |       |
| A lack of good management  | 11                      | 3.13% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Job promotions are delayed   | 4                       | 1.14% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Injustice  | 3                       | 0.85% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Delays in customer paperwork   | 7                       | 1.99% | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |       |
| Bad public reputation  | 9                       | 2.56% | 2                        |       |                         |       |
| Management corruption  | 4                       | 1.14% | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |       |
| No bonuses given   | 6                       | 1.70% | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |       |
| Female unit is not accepted by public  | 6                       | 1.70% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Misallocation of budget  | 3                       | 0.85% | 2                        | 0.57% |                         |       |
| Implemented rules and regulations are not clear  | 8                       | 2.27% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Centralism   | 2                       | 0.57% | 2                        | 0.57% | 1                       | 0.28% |
| Road infrastructure needs improvement  | 4                       | 1.14% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Need to develop and use modern technology to upgrade facilities                                      | 21                      | 5.97% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Nepotism and waste   | 4                       | 1.14% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Financial support for training programs  | 3                       | 0.85% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Lack of public awareness of Municipality rules   | 9                       | 2.56% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Improvement in routine work procedures   | 11                      | 3.13% |                          |       |                         |       |
| A lack of manpower resources in some departments   | 5                       | 1.42% | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |       |
| No training courses nor career development for employees   | 9                       | 2.56% | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |       |
| No motivation nor appreciation for employees' hard work  | 6                       | 1.70% |                          |       |                         |       |
| Incompetent and incapable managers and supervisors   | 10                      | 2.84% | 1                        | 0.28% |                         |       |
| Large volume of applicants and customers   | 8                       | 2.27% |                          |       |                         |       |

**Table 99: Barriers or challenges faced by the survey participants in the Municipality of Riyadh**

## Summary of quantitative findings

| Summary of quantitative findings  |                                      |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| Hypothesis  | Results                              |
| H1: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee. | Not supported                        |
| H2: A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee.    | <b>Supported</b> (reverse direction) |
| H3: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee.                          | <b>Supported</b>                     |
| H4a: A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.                      | <b>Supported</b>                     |
| H4b: A significant positive relationships exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.                     | Not supported                        |
| H5: A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by employee.                             | Not supported                        |
| H6: A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by employee.        | Not supported                        |
| H7: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by employee.                      | <b>Supported</b>                     |
| H8: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee.                   | <b>Supported</b>                     |

**Table 100: Summary of quantitative findings**

## 7.9 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, detailed descriptive statistics were provided. The chapter illustrated and discussed the findings of the factor analysis in order to successfully determine the reliability and the validity of the measurement scales used in this study. There are several major findings that were generated in this chapter. Firstly, there was an almost even response rate between the male and female employees at the municipality (51% male, and 48% female respondents). The majority of the respondents were fresh graduates, with 61% holding a bachelor's degree and 59% with under four years of experience. The majority of the respondents were front line employees as they had a lower grade scale of 5 or less (74%). The survey was well distributed to a variety of departments in the municipality headquarters as well as the district level centres across the city. Secondly, the skewness and kurtosis values for all constructs showed that the data was normally distributed with a skewness falling between the range of -1 and +1. Thirdly, the factor analysis conducted on all constructs helped to condense the existent data and generate a smaller number of combinations with as few factors as possible. This also helped identify the different clusters and components within the variables. Fourthly, the goodness of fit was investigated through the reliability and validity testing of the data and constructs. The Cronbach's Alpha scores ranged from (0.72 to 0.94) indicating acceptable reliability of the constructs. Next, the relationships between the constructs were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Next, the results of the stepwise regression analysis showed that brand based transactional leadership, brand training and intrinsic rewards were positively related to brand internalisation. The results of the linear regression showed that brand internalisation was positively related to both in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. Mediation testing was conducted and it was found that there was partial mediation for brand internalisation. Next, the post-hoc stepwise regression analysis was computed on a variety of descriptive variables including gender, age, educational level, years of experience, role in organisation, and grade. Finally, some interesting results of the open-ended questions were presented.



-- Chapter Eight --  
Discussion

## **8. Chapter 8: Discussion**

### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the findings obtained from the qualitative and quantitative findings in chapter 6 and chapter 7. The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section 8.2 discusses the relevance of branding and brand internalisation in public sector organisations. Section 8.3 discusses the effect of brand based transformational leadership in employee brand internalisation in the public sector. Section 8.4 discusses the effect of brand based transactional leadership in employee brand internalisation, in-role behaviour, and extra-role behaviour in the public sector. Section 8.5 discusses the effect of brand training on brand internalisation. Section 8.6 discusses the effects of intrinsic rewards on brand internalisation, in-role behaviour, and extra role behaviour. Section 8.7 discusses the effects of extrinsic rewards on brand internalisation. Section 8.8 discusses the effect of HR red tape on brand internalisation in the public sector. Section 8.9 discusses the effect of structural authority constraints on brand internalisation in the public sector. Section 8.10 discusses the effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour. Section 8.11 discusses the effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour. Section 8.12 presents a discussion of the demographic results. Section 8.13 discusses the findings of the open-ended questions. Finally, section 8.14 presents a summary of the chapter.

### **8.2 Branding and brand internalisation in the public sector**

This research adds to the recently growing research on internal branding in the public sector, such as that of Groom et al. (2008). Although researchers have argued that public sector organisations have political rather than financial goals (Whelan, Davies et al. 2010), public sector organisations also strive to increase efficiency and enhance performance (Luke, Verreynne, and Kearins 2010). This research has confirmed that internal branding can be a successful tool for enhancing performance in public sector organisations through enhancing in-role and extra role behaviour. When the organisational brand message is communicated to front line employees in the public sector, they will feel that they are ‘on board’ with the organisational brand (brand internalisation) (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009). Moreover, there needs to be unity between the internal branding strategy and between the different public sector departments in order to create a unified and enhanced experience for citizens. Most public sector organisations focus on enhancing employee satisfaction or employee loyalty, without

putting enough effort into increasing performance through brand internalisation. Middle managers need to transmit a consistent implementation of brand values and brand messages to their employees. Internal branding can also encourage top management to refine their objectives consistently and streamline services across different departments. When internal branding is implemented in a public sector, the organisational brand values are internalised by the employee as part of their attitudes and beliefs, translating into changes in the employee's actions and behaviours. This research found that, when the employee internalises the organisational brand values, he or she is more likely to finish a citizen's case on time, complete it correctly, apply the correct process, and try to solve problems and involve immediate supervisors to assist in challenging situations. These kinds of actions are defined as in-role behaviour. When employees internalise a public sector organisational brand, they are also more likely to be kind, polite, and welcoming to citizens, to go out of their way to solve challenging problems, and to take personal responsibility for serving citizens. They do more work than is expected of them. These actions are referred to as extra-role behaviour.

### **8.3 Effect of brand based transformational leadership on brand internalisation**

This research revealed that few managers in the Riyadh Municipality are transformational in their leadership style and employees described their supervisors as 'sometimes transformational'. We start this section by reviewing the findings for each of the transformational leadership dimensions and we will notice that the only dimension that was evident in this context was the first: individualised consideration.

#### *Individual consideration*

Researchers have argued that transformational leaders create a supportive environment by recognising the individual needs of their followers (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Avolio and Bass 2001). In this research, it was found that public sector leaders consider the individual needs of their employees by being lenient in terms of leave requests, the distribution of the workload, and considering their personal circumstances. Employees said that their supervisors treated them as individuals rather than as just another employee at the organisation. Individual consideration in the public sector takes the form of unofficial bending of the rules and bypassing of policies and procedures. Individual consideration also includes delegating and giving employees autonomy as per their individual

abilities and needs. However, in the public sector within the context of this research, it was found that leaders do not delegate work. Instead a centralised system is favoured in order to sustain managerial power.

#### *Intellectual stimulation*

Researchers have argued that transformational leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative when approaching a challenge (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Avolio and Bass 2001). In the public sector, the work is rigid and there are many constraints and little room for creativity. However, creativity is evident in one case: when dealing with citizens, employees who are committed to service are creative in finding ways to serve citizens and locating loopholes in the system that will allow the case to move forward. The citizen is often frustrated because he or she cannot rely on the government procedures and must instead rely on the commitment of the individual employee with whom they are dealing.

#### *Inspirational motivation*

Researchers argue that transformational leaders inspire their followers by creating meaning for their work, envisioning the future, and making them feel enthusiastic about their work (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Avolio and Bass 2001). In the public sector, leaders use different strategies to motivate and inspire their staff. Leaders remind their followers of their religious and moral commitment to serving the citizens. Managerial and employee behaviour is shaped and influenced by Islamic values and principals: being conscientious and knowledgeable about what you do, being sincere in serving citizens, being patient with citizens, and having a passion for achieving excellence in work.

#### *Idealised influence*

Researchers have argued that transformational leaders act as role models: they are respected and trusted by their followers, are the first to do a job, and take risks on behalf of their team (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Avolio and Bass 2001). In the public sector, leaders are role models who work longer hours and take on larger workloads. However, they do not do this in order to inspire their followers, but rather to satisfy and impress top management. Being assigned a large number of cases is a sign of prestige and importance in the public sector, and it means that there is greater reliance on that leader, who will therefore be invited to more meetings in order to share their opinions. Therefore, this component could

be for the satisfaction of leaders rather than the benefit of their employees.

**H1: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee (*Qualitative findings: somewhat supported; quantitative findings: not supported*).**

The result for hypothesis 1 is against expectation. The results of the qualitative research revealed that there was a weak relationship between brand based transformational leadership and brand internalisation and the results of the quantitative research revealed that there was no relationship between brand based transformational leadership and brand internalisation.

This might be related to the characteristics of the public sector; as the Riyadh Municipality is a typical public sector organisation with rigid processes that seldom change, similar to the military, which has a similar bureaucracy and hierarchy to the municipality. Public sector employees are pressured to follow the rules and procedures, and they are not challenged to solve problems, test old assumptions, or think creatively about solving citizens' cases, and therefore there is little or no intellectual stimulation (Bass 1990). When public sector employees need something for their department, they need to ask permission from their superiors, who then tell them what to do. Interestingly, the leading researchers in leadership tested the effectiveness of leadership style in enhancing performance in the military (Bass, Avolio et al. 2003) by investigating the predictive ability of the two leadership styles in the performance of rifle platoons, and found that both transformational and transactional leadership were positively linked to performance.

This may also be due to the fact there is little evidence of brand based transformational leadership, which could be due to the barriers faced by managers in the public sector. This research found that middle managers in public sector organisations are restricted; they have very limited authority and are subject to strict performance measures by top management. Therefore, it is possible that middle managers cannot fully implement the components of transformational leadership that involve encouraging participative decision making, creativity in problem solving, etc. Similarly, (Avolio and Bass 2001) have argued that, without proper authority, managers are not able to empower their staff, and therefore find it more difficult to become brand based transformational leaders.

#### **8.4 Effect of brand based transactional leadership on brand internalisation, in-role behaviour, and extra-role behaviour**

This research revealed that there are high levels of brand based transactional leadership in the Riyadh Municipality. This section starts by reviewing the findings for each of the transactional leadership dimensions.

##### *Contingent reward*

Researchers have argued that transactional leaders set goals for achievement and apply either positive or negative contingent reinforcement according to the performance of followers (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Avolio and Bass 2001). In the public sector, rewards for good performance are given in terms of approval for leave requests, inviting employees to join meetings, or recommending them for a higher status position (not a financial promotion). Rewards can also take the form of increased responsibility or workload.

##### *Management by exception*

Researchers have argued that transactional leaders take corrective action, monitoring the errors and mistakes of their followers (Bass 1990, Bass and Avolio 1994, Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, Avolio and Bass 2001). This is strongly evident in the public sector, and this may be because the main role of middle managers is to check the work of front line employees. They do not depend on the employee; rather, they recheck their work and edit and make improvements based on their own experience and greater knowledge of the regulations, monitoring closely for errors.

**H2: A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee (*Qualitative findings: supported reverse direction; quantitative findings: supported reverse direction*).**

The result for hypothesis 2 is against expectation. Although it was hypothesised that transactional leadership would be negatively associated with brand internalisation, it was found that a transactional leadership style has a positive effect on the degree to which employees internalise the values and attitudes of their organisation's brand values and brand message.

In other words, the results of this research found that when the leader focuses his or her attention on irregularities, exceptions, deviations arise from what is expected of employees as brand representatives. When the leader keeps careful track of mistakes regarding brand

inconsistencies of employee behaviour, monitors employee performance for errors needing correction, or tells the employee what to do in order to be rewarded, then this makes the employees feel that the municipality is part of their identity. It also means that they want to spend extra effort on behalf of the municipality's reputation, that they want to champion its brand, and they feel that there is an overlap between their value system and that of the municipality.

This is contrary to the findings of the previous researchers that have found that brand based transactional leadership has a negative effect on brand internalisation (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009), which was conducted in a private sector setting. This could be due to the nature of the work in the public sector, as transactional leaders monitor, evaluate, and control employees, which could be a key success factor in organisations that have strict rules and process for conducting their work, such as the municipalities. Some have argued that transformational leadership is better suited to organisations that require faster change, while transactional leadership is better suited to public sector or government organisations, that have little change and perform similar actions and similar processes, with less emphasis on creativity (Sandilands 2015).

This could also be related to cultural differences in the Saudi Arabian public sector, which is very different from the western cultures on which many of the previous studies have focused. The context of this research was the Riyadh Municipality, which is a developing country with a unique culture different to the democratic culture of western and European countries (Hofstede 1981), and transactional leadership could be successful in other cultures. Similarly, research conducted in the Chinese public sector found that transactional leadership was positively related to performance enhancement (Long and Mao 2008).

The results of this research also revealed that brand based transactional leadership has a direct effect on in-role behaviour which may be due to the nature and characteristics of transactional leaders. Transactional leaders focus on the day-to-day efficiency of the job, close supervision and monitoring of the work. Transactional leaders focus on increasing efficiency and following the rules, routines and procedures within the organisation without challenging change or innovation (Ching 2014). This is contrary to the findings of the researchers that argued that transactional leadership was found to be negatively related to performance (Howell and Avolio

1993).

The results of this research also revealed that brand based transactional leadership has a direct effect on extra-role behaviour.

This is contrary to the research that argues that transformational leadership is more effective at increasing employee extra-role behaviour (Nguni, Slegers et al. 2006), which was done in a private educational setting in Tanzania. However, the findings are in alignment with the results of another study that was conducted in a United Arab Emirates bank setting, where the researchers found that both transactional and transformational leadership increase employee extra-role behaviour (Suliman and Al Obaidli 2013).

### **8.5 Effect of brand training on brand internalisation**

The results of this research revealed that brand-related training is needed to boost congruence with the organisational brand identity.

**H3: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee. (*Qualitative findings: supported; quantitative findings: supported*).**

The results for hypothesis 3 are in line with previous research, which have found that staff brand-related training is one of the most important factors that can increase brand internalisation (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009). De Chernatony and Cottam (2006) also argued that staff training is an important factor for the success of internal branding. Training courses ‘enable employees to identify with the organization, its culture, and its values, in addition to providing the basic knowledge and skills needed for the job’ (Miles and Mangold 2005).

When employees get offered training orientation, the training helps them clarify the behaviours and values that the municipality represents. When the training enables the employee to identify with the municipality, its culture, its vision and what is required on the job, then this makes the employees feel that the municipality is part of their identity, meaning that they want to spend extra effort on behalf of the municipality’s reputation, and want to champion its brand. They also feel that there is an overlap between their value system and that of the municipality.

Although brand training was found to have a positive effect on brand internalisation, unlike



brand based transactional leadership and intrinsic rewards, it did not have a direct effect on in-role and extra-role behaviour. This means that it is possible that employees that attend brand-related training feel more positively towards the organisation, but it doesn't necessarily enhance their performance. The reason for this may be because of the nature of the training offered in the Riyadh Municipality. The results of this research found that the training offered is not linked to the needs of the department in which the employee works. Public sector employees revealed that they often do not learn anything new from training courses. Public sector employees may be attending the training to cross off a checklist of requirements for promotion. Therefore, employees are motivated when attending a training course, not because it will enhance their skills, but because it might help them achieve a promotion.

#### **8.6 Effect of intrinsic rewards on brand internalisation, in-role behaviour, and extra-role behaviour**

The results of this research revealed that public sector managers use intrinsic rewards with their employees in terms of: approval for leave requests, lenience in check-in and check-out times, and granting title promotions, more responsibility, and greater workload.

**H4a: A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee (*Qualitative findings: supported; quantitative findings: supported*).**

The results for hypothesis 4a is in line with previous research, which argued that public sector employees prefer intrinsic rewards (Festré and Garrouste 2008). Research has shown that public service employees are motivated more by intrinsic than extrinsic rewards, which could be due to their motivation to serve citizens (PSM) (Festre and Garrouste 2008; Wright 2007) and public ethos (Rayner et al. 2011), and this is positively related to their emotional motivation to work in the organisation (Festre and Garrouste 2008; Park and Rainey 2008). This means that when the public sector employees are rewarded intrinsically, through recognising their work, letting them feel a sense of accomplishment, challenge and increased responsibility, they will be more aligned with the vision of the organisational brand and its organisational mission. Moreover, intrinsic rewards in terms of approval for leave requests, lenience in check-in and check-out times, and granting title promotions, more responsibility, and giving greater workload to employees makes the employees feel that the municipality is part of their identity. It also makes them want to spend extra effort on behalf of the municipality's reputation, that

they want to champion the municipality's brand, and that they feel that there is an overlap between their value system and that of the municipality.

The results of this research also revealed that intrinsic rewards have a direct effect on in-role behaviour. This means that when public sector employees are rewarded intrinsically, they are more likely to ensure that they contact situations with citizens is in line with municipality expectations, that their behaviour is in alignment with the municipality brand, and that they adhere to the standards put forth by the municipality.

This is in alignment with the research study that was conducted in a Greek public sector that found that intrinsic rewards were related to better organisational outcomes in terms of increasing the day-to-day efficiency of task achievement (Manolopoulos 2007).

The results of this research also revealed that intrinsic rewards have a direct effect on extra-role behaviour. This means that when public sector employees are rewarded intrinsically, they are more likely to 'talk up' about the Riyadh Municipality to people that they know, to raise the Municipality in conversations with friends and acquaintances, to let their managers know how they can strengthen the organisational brand, make constructive suggestions about their organisation, and work to improve the organisational brand performance.

This is in alignment with researchers that have found that intrinsic rewards increase employee extra-role behaviour in terms of prosocial behaviour, altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and taking initiative in the public sector (Lazauskaite-Zabielske, Urbanaviciute et al. 2015).

### **8.7 Effect of extrinsic rewards on brand internalisation**

The results of this research revealed that public sector managers use extrinsic rewards with their employees in terms of: recommendations for scholarships, approvals for company cars, approval to attend training courses, assisting with applications for request for land, etc.

**H4b: A significant positive relationship exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee (*Qualitative findings: somewhat supported; quantitative findings: not supported*).**

The result for hypothesis 4b is against expectation. It was expected that extrinsic rewards would have a positive effect on brand internalisation, but there was no relation between the extrinsic and financial rewards and the degree to which the employee feels in congruence with the

organisational brand.

This is contrary to the findings of researchers that argued that public sector employees need both types of reward systems, intrinsic and extrinsic, in order to have a positive effect on the internalisation of the brand values and commitment to the brand (Chen and Hsieh 2006). This could be because extrinsic rewards may have a shorter-term effect compared to intrinsic rewards. Zhou et al. (2011) argued that when extrinsic rewards are used in moderating it can have a positive effect on employees, but excessive use of extrinsic rewards deviates from the objective which is an ‘over-erosion’ effect.

### **8.8 Effect of HR red tape on brand internalisation in the public sector**

The results of this research revealed that the public sector suffers from significant HR red tape. HR policies do not match the needs of the staff in order to develop their competencies, meet their personal and professional goals, or increase employee satisfaction. Hiring processes are not aligned with the organisational brand, employment contracts do not specify job descriptions, and interviews are not consistent and are not conducted by department supervisors. Hiring is based on certification only, staff appraisals are not linked to performance, there are no clear performance indicators, promotion process is not clear, and there is a high influence of relationships and word of mouth.

However, regardless of the significant challenges faced because of HR red tape in the Riyadh Municipality, conflicting results were found from the qualitative and quantitative findings.

H5: A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by employee (*Qualitative findings: supported; quantitative findings: not supported*).

The quantitative result for hypothesis 5 is against expectation. The results of the qualitative findings revealed that HR red tape has a negative effect on an employee’s ability to be in congruence with the organisational brand, but the quantitative findings revealed that there was no relationship between HR red tape and brand internalisation.

The quantitative findings are contrary to the argument of researches that have shown that HR red tape has a negative effect on employee internal branding and public sector performance (Pandey and Moynihan 2006). The interviews revealed that the researchers are not in favour of

the HR system and they acknowledged that this is a barrier to brand internalisation, but when analysing the quantitative results, it was found that HR red tape is not a factor that affects brand internalisation. Despite the barrier of HR red tape, public sector employees have the ability to internalise the organisational brand.

### **8.9 Effect of structural authority constraints on brand internalisation in the public sector**

The results of this research revealed that structural authority constraints are considered to be a normal daily challenge for public sector employees. Although structural authority constraints are perceived as substantial, they were not found to have a negative effect on brand internalisation.

H6: A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by employee (*Qualitative findings: not supported; quantitative findings: not supported*).

The result for hypothesis 6 is against expectation. Although it was hypothesised that structural authority constraints would have a negative effect on follower brand internalisation, it was found that they did not have a significant effect. Although employees were aware that there are substantial structural authority constraints, this did not seem to affect the degree to which they internalised the brand and aligned themselves with the organisation's message and values in the Riyadh Municipality. Previous research has found that structural authority constraints hinder the effectiveness of internal branding (Colyer 2006). Organisations with strict rules, policies, centralised decision-making, multiple hierarchies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. 1996, Pandey and Moynihan 2006) hinder internal branding (Kuvaas 2009). In contrast, this research found that structural authority constraints did not have a negative effect on brand internalisation. This could be due to the different dynamics of the public sector (Ring and Perry 1985), and not having a hierarchical system in the public sector may result in a negative effect on performance. Similarly, researchers found that having a less hierarchical, more decentralised model in the public sector can lead to decreased accountability, more patchwork services, and a decrease in the quality of service (Romzek 2000). Therefore, more research is needed on the benefits and implications of hierarchical and structural constraints in the public sector and the effects of this on public sector performance.

### **8.10 Effect of brand internalisation on in-role behaviour**

The results of this research revealed that in-role behaviour is described as ‘following the book’. Everyday task execution, completing citizens’ cases on time, rapid achievement of work, completing cases correctly, correct application of process, problem solving and referring complicated issues to management is positively related to brand internalisation.

**H7: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by employee. (*Qualitative findings: not supported; quantitative findings: supported*).**

The result for hypothesis 7 is contradictory between the qualitative and quantitative findings. The results of the qualitative findings revealed that public sector in-role behaviour was found to be unaffected by brand internalisation. Rather, high degrees of transactional leadership were found to have a direct influence on in-role brand based behaviour. However, results of the quantitative findings revealed that there was a significant positive effect between in-role behaviour and brand internalisation. This means that when employees were in congruence with organisational brand, there was an increase in their day-to-day tasks and performance.

The findings of the quantitative findings are in alignment with the findings of the researchers that argue that when employees interpret the brand and begin to internalise its message, they naturally and unconsciously behave in alignment with its brand values (Gotsi and Wilson 2001; Chernatony and Cottam 2006; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007; 2009) by displaying higher in-role and extra-role brand-building behaviour (Morhart et al. 2009).

Interviewees argued that regardless of whether there was brand internalisation, they still ‘followed the book’ and therefore performed their in-role tasks because of their ‘transactional’ leader. However, it is possible that interviewees are unaware of the fact that brand internalisation has already occurred, and it is possible that they are unconscious to the process and to its occurrence. This is in accordance with researchers that have argued that brand internalisation occurs on a psychological level (Cho and Faerman 2010).

### **8.11 Effect of brand internalisation on extra-role behaviour**

The results of this research revealed that extra-role behaviour is evident in the Riyadh Municipality in terms of kindness, politeness, a welcoming attitude to citizens, taking personal

responsibility for serving citizens, doing more work than expected, and making a lasting impression on citizens.

**H8: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee. (*Qualitative findings: somewhat supported; quantitative findings: supported*).**

The results for hypothesis 8 is in line with previous research as Morhart et al. (2009) found that internalisation of the organisational brand values also leads to greater extra-role behaviour in the private sector. Researchers have argued that when employees feel a psychological attachment between the employee and the organisation they go beyond day-to-day work and the tasks that are mandated in job descriptions (Farahani, Taghadosi et al. 2011). Brand internalisation occurs when the employee internalises the organisational values and there is an emotional buy in and alignment between the employee behaviour and that of the organisational vision (Scheys and Baert 2007). Furthermore, the results of this research revealed that there is a relationship between brand internalisation and extra-role behaviour in both the private and the public sector.

## **8.12 Demographic discussion**

### **8.12.1 Gender**

Saudi Arabia is witnessing major changes for women in the workforce. For example, during the time of this research, women were allowed to work in the Riyadh Municipality, for the first time since its inception in 1941. 2015 marked the first year in history that elections would be held for members of the Municipal council, including women for the first time, also at a time of other major shifts for women empowerment in education and the workforce (Rather 2016).

Women did not participate in the qualitative section of this research study, because at that time there were no female employees at the municipality. However, women did take part in the quantitative section of this research.

The results of the stepwise regression for male and female respondents revealed that gender has an effect on brand based transactional leadership, brand training, and intrinsic rewards.

For female participants, the strongest determinants for brand internalisation are brand training

and intrinsic rewards. For male participants, the strongest determinants for brand internalisation are brand based transactional leadership and intrinsic rewards.

This finding accords with researchers that found that women in Britain had more training compared to men (Jones, Latreille et al. 2004). The reasons for this may include the fact that many women work part time, and may have more time to attend training, and it may also be because of the increased competition faced by women in the workforce (Jones, Latreille et al. 2004). It could also be because women feel a greater need to pay back the period that they may have taken off for childbirth (Jones, Latreille et al. 2004). Researchers have also argued that there could be other reasons why more women want to attend training, and this could be due to the particular characteristics of women and their strive for educational endowment (Jones, Latreille et al. 2004). According to Cordesman (2003) there are more women in Saudi Arabia applying for scholarships than ever before in history. Women are more committed, and they want to succeed in the workforce given the fact that they were only recently allowed to join the workforce alongside men, and this explains their dedication and strive for training. Men, in contrast, might only attend training sessions as a ‘tick-box’ activity to help them gain promotions.

The results also revealed that male respondents preferred it when their leaders were transactional. This finding accords with researchers who found that men were more susceptible to transactional leadership compared to women (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt et al. 2003). Further research also found that women exhibit less transactional leadership compared to men (Druskat 1994). This could be the case because transactional leadership may not be in line with the perceived characteristics of women. Women are considered to be more participative, communicative and transformational compared to men.

Surprisingly, although common stereotypes may suggest that men would prefer extrinsic rewards, this research found that both men and women are positively influenced by intrinsic rewards. This is similar to the work of Lambert (1991) that found that both men and women favoured intrinsic rewards. This is in line with the mission and vision of the public sector. This has been embedded in the social aspect of working to serve citizens, and both men and women want to be appreciated and recognised for their work and their service to the citizen.

The results of this research also revealed that brand internalisation is positively related to both in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour for both male and female respondents, although the

relationship is slightly stronger for female respondents.

Researchers found that when employees take initiative in their workplace and exhibit higher levels of extra-role or organisational citizenship, behaviour may become overloaded, and this relationship is stronger for females (Bolino and Turnley 2005). Interestingly, further research found that extra-role behaviour was more likely with women than with men, and when men exhibited extra-role behaviour, the impression was that there were other motives involved related to their management (Farrell and Finkelstein 2007). This could be the case in the Riyadh Municipality because women may want to prove themselves in the workplace. Women also face more social pressure in the Saudi society compared to men, and they might engage more heavily in the workplace to feel more autonomy, self-identity and increase satisfaction.

### **8.12.2 Age**

The results of the stepwise regression for younger and older respondents revealed that age has a significant effect on brand based transactional leadership, HR red tape, brand training, and intrinsic rewards.

The strongest determinants for higher brand internalisation in younger employees are intrinsic rewards and brand based transactional leadership. The strongest determinants for higher brand internalisation in older employees are intrinsic rewards and brand training. Brand internalisation in older employees is negatively affected by HR red tape.

Researchers found that age has an influence on preference for leadership style. For example, older employees prefer a more participative and consultative leadership style compared to younger ones (Oshagbemi 2004). Another research found that participants with more experience prefer leaders that are less directive and structured (Vecchio and Boatwright 2002). Younger employees may need more instruction, they may have fewer regulations, or they are exposed to many regulations and policies of which they might be aware. So this explains why they are in preference for more guidance and direction. Given the fact that the context is in the public sector, so they need close monitoring and guidance for the correct execution of policies and procedures.

The results found that both younger and older participants are positively driven by intrinsic rewards. This is contrary to the findings of Kooij et al. (2011) that conducted a research to investigate the age differences on work-related motives. They found that younger employees



were more motivated by extrinsic rewards while older employees were more motivated by intrinsic rewards. However, these findings were not conducted within the public sector, and the remuneration for employees in the public sector are already much lower than the private sector. So the motive for younger employees who enter the public sector is not extrinsic, it is intrinsic, from within the organisation (recognition from the organisation) and externally (recognition from society).

This research also revealed that older employees in the Riyadh Municipality are more negatively affected by HR red tape. According to researchers, older employees have a stronger desire to improve their financial situation, have flexible working arrangements and be treated fairly (Zientara 2009). In Saudi Arabia, government agencies commonly prefer to hire younger employees. University graduates often apply for jobs in the public sector. Therefore, it is probable that older employees are also those that have more experience working in the same organisation. Therefore, older employees may have spent more time in that organisation experiencing HR red tape than younger employees. Older employees in the municipality would favour more recognition for their work in terms of pay and promotion. However, because of the rigidity of the HR red tape, the system does not facilitate and does not match the employee performance and expectation, which explains why it would have negative effect on older employees.

The study also showed that older employees felt more in alignment with the brand mission and values (brand internalisation) when they had more access to attend brand-related training. Interestingly, researchers found that older employees are less likely to be offered work-related training opportunities, and are less likely to take up training activities when offered possibly due to a lack of self-confidence in the ability to further develop their skills compared to younger employees (Newton 2006). This could be because older employees may interpret being able to attend training as a reward and recognition. Training courses in the municipality are usually offered as a reward and take place during work hours, so employees are motivated to attend, take leave, and perhaps even travel to other places to attend training courses.

The results of this research also revealed that brand internalisation is positively related to both in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour for both younger and older respondents, although the relationship is slightly stronger for older respondents. This may be because older employees are an asset in the organisation because of their crystallised intelligence, experience, practical

and tactical knowledge and expertise, making them more effective in both in-role and extra-role tasks (Turek and Perek-Bialas 2013).

This could be because older employees may feel more responsible for their behaviour. Older employees probably have more responsibilities compared to younger employees, and this could be another reason why their in-role and extra-role behaviour is stronger than in younger employees.

### **8.12.3 Educational level**

The results also found that there were differences in the results between less educated and more educated participants. The strongest determinants for brand internalisation in less educated participants are intrinsic rewards and brand based transactional leadership. The strongest determinants for brand internalisation in more educated participants are intrinsic rewards and brand training.

Less educated employees are positively affected by brand based transactional leadership. This could be because they need more guidance and closer monitoring. They will take direction from their brand based transactional leaders. This is in accordance with the work of Jerome (2009), who argued that different styles of leadership are required for different organisational and educational levels.

More educated employees are positively affected by brand training. This could be because they are more committed to learning, and they appreciate the opportunity to have more training.

This study also revealed that there are differences between less and more educated employees when it comes the effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour.

Brand internalisation has a stronger effect on in-role behaviour for less educated employees compared to more educated employees. In other words, brand internalisation has more effect on increasing in-role behaviour when the public sector employees are less educated. This could be because they are expected to follow the tasks that are required of them and they are more reliant on their supervisors for guidance on what is accepted behaviour.

Brand internalisation has a stronger effect on extra-role behaviour for more educated employees compared to less educated employees. This is related to the findings of researchers that argued that level of education moderates the employee feeling of organisational citizenship

behaviour (Chen, Chen et al. 2010).

#### **8.12.4 Years of experience**

The results also found that there were differences in the results between less experienced and more experienced participants. The results of the stepwise regression revealed that the strongest determinants for brand internalisation in less experienced employees were intrinsic rewards, brand based transformational leadership, and brand training.

Less experienced employees are strongly affected by transformational leadership style, which may be because transformational leaders would be better suited to inspire these relatively newer staff members and to align them to the organisational brand mission and vision.

Less experienced employees are strongly affected by brand training, which may be because they are motivated to learn, to take courses, and improve their skills in the public sector. This is in accordance with the findings of Maurer, who argued that younger workers participate more in learning and development activities (2001).

The results of the stepwise regression revealed that the strongest determinants for brand internalisation in more experienced employees were intrinsic rewards and brand based transactional leadership.

More experienced employees were more affected by transactional leadership, which could be because of the context of the public sector organisation. This is not in alignment with a study that showed that males, older managers, degree holders, experienced managers, and middle managers had a higher preference toward democratic and participative leadership styles compared to other styles (Al-Ababneh and Lockwood 2010). However, these results were found in the private sector. Researchers have found that transactional leadership was more effective in public sector organisations (Chaudhry and Javed 2012). There is a close exchange relationship between the leaders and the employees whereby leaders are focused on eliciting brand based behaviour from their employees, and in return they expect rewards from their leaders. Yousef (1998) also found that age, education and experience had an effect on leadership style preference.

This study also revealed that there are differences between less and more experienced employees when it comes the effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour.

Brand internalisation has a stronger effect on in-role behaviour for less experienced employees compared to more experienced employees. This may be because when employees with little or no experience working in the organisation feel an alignment and congruence with the organisational brand, this will have an effect on their day-to-day task achievement in alignment with the organisational brand (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009).

Brand internalisation has a stronger effect on extra-role behaviour for less experienced employees compared to more experienced employees. In other words, brand internalisation is more effective in increasing in-role and extra-role behaviour especially in employees who are new to the Riyadh Municipality. In the municipality, less experienced employees are more motivated to learn, they mimic traits that they learned from t university, spend extra time to get the job done and work to learn the regulations of the municipality. Then, as they serve more years, they realise the challenges of the system enforced upon them, they become more bureaucratic and mimicking the constraints of the public sector. This is line with the researchers that investigated conformity in the public sector. Ashworth et al. found that there was a substantial amount of conformity (compliance and convergence) in the public sector (2009).

### **8.12.5 Role in organisation**

The results also found that there were differences in the results between managers and non-managers. The results of the stepwise regression revealed that the strongest determinants for brand internalisation in managers were intrinsic rewards and brand based transactional leadership.

Managers who perceive their supervisors as transactional feel in congruence with the Riyadh Municipality, feel a degree of overlap between their own values and that of the municipality, feel that working for the municipality is part of who they are, and feel that working for the municipality is more than just earning a living (brand internalisation). This may be related to the findings of researchers that argued that transactional leadership is better suited for the public sector (Chaudhry and Javed 2012). This research also found that managers are also more likely to internalise the organisational brand when they are rewarded intrinsically, recognised for their performance, and appreciated by their superiors. This is in accordance to the research of Alatrasta and Arrowsmith (2004) that investigated the organisational commitment of managers in non-profit organisations.

The results of the stepwise regression revealed that the strongest determinants for brand internalisation in non-managers were intrinsic rewards and brand based transformational leadership.

Brand internalisation for non-managers in the Riyadh Municipality is positively related to transformational leadership. This is in accordance with the findings of the researchers that argued that brand based transformational leadership positively influences brand internalisation (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009).

This study also revealed that there are differences between managers and non-managers when it comes the effect of brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour.

There was a slightly stronger effect for brand internalisation on in-role and extra-role behaviour for non-managers. This is in alignment with the findings of the years of experience (section 8.12.4) where brand internalisation was more effective in increasing in-role and extra-role behaviour especially in employees who are new to the Riyadh Municipality. Because most of the new hires in the Riyadh Municipality are fresh graduates, and because managerial promotions are based on years of service and not on competency or performance, it means that those with less experience are also non-managers and there is an alignment between the findings for the level of experience and role in organisation.

#### **8.12.6 Grade in organisation**

The results also found that there were differences in the results between lower and higher-grade participants. The results of the stepwise regression revealed that the strongest determinants for brand internalisation in lower grade employees were intrinsic rewards, brand training and brand based transactional leadership. This means that employees on lower grades will feel more in congruence with the organisational brand and message when they are rewarded and appreciated, and are able to attend training courses that specify the brand-accepted behaviour when their leader is more transactional in their leadership style.

There was a slightly stronger effect for brand internalisation on in-role behaviour for low-grade employees.

The results of the stepwise regression revealed that the strongest determinant for brand internalisation in higher-grade participants was intrinsic rewards. When Riyadh Municipality employees on grade 4 or higher feel appreciated, that their work is recognised, and believe that

their job is rewarded fairly based on competence, they feel in congruence with the Riyadh Municipality. They also feel a degree of overlap between their own values and that of the municipality, feel that working for the municipality is part of who they are, and feel that working for the municipality is more than just earning a living (brand internalisation). This is in accordance with research that found that managers in the public sector were more likely to be motivated by intrinsic rewards (Khojasteh 1993).

### **8.13 Discussion of open-ended questions**

When asked about their personal goals and ambitions, 20% of the interviewees chose that they are working to achieve a promotion and achieve career development. Participants also shared that they wanted to further their education and work on their own self-development. When asked about their professional career goals and ambitions, 49% chose career development as their preferred professional goal. The second choice was also to further education, similar to the previous question.

When asked to comment on their views towards their immediate leader or supervisor, almost 30% of the participants shared that their leader was 'excellent'. They also shared that their leader was respectful and hardworking or ordinary. Over 33% did not comment on this question. When asked about their general impressions towards the Riyadh Municipality, 30% did not comment, while others thought that it was simply 'great or excellent'. Others thought it was good, or positive, while some thought it had a bad reputation. Interviewees also mentioned that the municipality makes and works to keep their promises to citizens, their mission is to provide great quality service and to help people develop their investments by dealing with citizen cases in a rapid and correct way. However, sometimes cases take a long time, the procedures are often contradictory and unclear to citizens and employees responsible for them, and there is a reliance on relationships and personal favours, making it difficult for the average citizen to deal with the system.

When asked about the barriers or challenges faced by participants in the Riyadh Municipality, 20% believed their work procedures and systems needed to be improved, and 20% shared that they believed that their immediate supervisors were not capable or competent for their job. Some also believed that not enough people are aware of the municipality's rules and regulations. The results from the qualitative findings revealed that there are challenges with

regard to departmental collaboration. There are inconsistencies and contradictory procedures between the different departments of the municipality. Relationships and corruption caused further challenges and this was clearly evident in the findings of this research. Public sector employees admitted to the fact that they needed to closely and carefully manage their relationships with their immediate supervisors in a sensitive manner. Further research may benefit from investigating further in these areas.

#### 8.14 Chapter summary

Table 101 shows the summary of the results from the qualitative and the quantitative research stages.

| <b>Research hypothesis and supporting evidence from qualitative and quantitative research stage.</b>                                  |  |   |
|---|--|---|
| <b>Hypothesis</b>   | <b>Results from the qualitative research</b> | <b>Results from the quantitative research</b> |
| H1: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Based Transformational Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee. | Somewhat supported                           | Not supported                                 |
| H2: A significant negative relationship exists between Brand Based Transactional Leadership and Brand Internalisation by employee.    | <b>Supported</b> (reverse direction)         | <b>Supported</b> (reverse direction)          |

|  |                    |                  |
|--|--------------------|------------------|
| H3: A significant positive relationship exists between Brand Training and Brand Internalisation by employee.                   | <b>Supported</b>   | <b>Supported</b> |
| H4a: A significant positive relationship exists between Intrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.               | <b>Supported</b>   | <b>Supported</b> |
| H4b: A significant positive relationships exists between Extrinsic Rewards and Brand Internalisation by employee.              | Somewhat supported | Not supported    |
| H5: A significant negative relationship exists between HR Red Tape and Brand Internalisation by employee.                      | <b>Supported</b>   | Not supported    |
| H6: A significant negative relationship exists between Structural Authority Constraints and Brand Internalisation by employee. | Not supported      | Not supported    |
| H7: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and In-Role Behaviour by employee.               | Not supported      | <b>Supported</b> |
| H8: A significant positive relationships exists between Brand Internalisation and Extra-Role Behaviour by employee.            | Somewhat supported | <b>Supported</b> |

**Table 101: Research hypothesis and supporting evidence from qualitative and quantitative research stage.**

The following chapter presents the conclusions, theoretical contributions, managerial implications, limitations, future research recommendations and a conclusion to the research.



-- Chapter Nine --  
Conclusions, Implications, Limitations and  
Directions for Future Research

## **9. Chapter 9: Contributions, implications, limitations and directions for future research**

### **9.1 Introduction**

The primary objectives of this study were to do three things. First, to investigate the role of leadership in internal branding in the public section. Second, to investigate the differences in dynamics and the effects of transformational and transactional leadership in a non-western developing country. Third, to identify the constraints that the public sector faces in its practice of internal branding.

In order to achieve these four main objectives, a literature review was conducted, and chapter 2 presented a review of literature and the theories of leadership. Chapter 3 reviewed the literature concerning internal branding. Chapter 4 brought forward a conceptual model and the hypothesis were developed to explain the relationships among these variables. Chapter 5 positioned the current research within the positivist paradigm and selected a qualitative and quantitative research as a means for investigation. Chapter 6 presented the findings from the qualitative semi-structured interviews that were conducted with the middle managers in the Riyadh Municipality. Chapter 7 presented the main quantitative findings, the demographic profile of the sample and the descriptive analysis of the survey responses. The measures relating to the constructs in the conceptual model were examined by multiple regression and the results were presented. In chapter 8, the results of both the quantitative and the qualitative findings were discussed.

The aim of this final chapter is to put forward the key contributions and theoretical implications of this study which are presented in section 9.2. This is followed by an assessment of the managerial implications in section 9.3. Then, the limitations and directions for future research are presented in section 9.4, and finally the conclusion of this study is presented in section 9.5.

### **9.2 Key contributions and theoretical implications**

There are six major theoretical contributions, which have been generated by this study,

which include:

- 1- Substantiating the effect of brand based transformational leadership on brand internalisation in the public sector.
- 2- Establishing the positive effect of brand based transactional leadership on brand internalisation in the public sector.
- 3- Substantiating the effect of constraints (HR red tape and structural authority) on brand internalisation in the public sector.
- 4- Establishing the positive effect of intrinsic rewards on brand internalisation in the public sector and substantiating the effect of extrinsic rewards on brand internalisation in the public sector.
- 5- Establishing the positive effect of brand training on brand internalisation in the public sector.
- 6- Establishing the positive effect of brand internalisation on public sector performance (in terms of in-role and extra-role behaviour) in the public sector.

### **The effect of brand based transformational leadership on brand internalisation in the public sector.**

As stated earlier, prior research investigating brand based transformational leadership on brand internalisation in the public sector is very limited. Morhart et al (2009) investigated brand based transformational leadership in the private sector and found it to be positively related to brand internalisation.

In this study, brand based transformational leadership had no direct effect on brand internalisation in the Riyadh Municipality public sector. The study's theoretical contribution lies in being the first study to confirm that brand based transformational leadership may not be as effective in the public sector as it is in the private sector. Moreover, it was also established within the dimensions of transformational leadership, and 'individualised consideration' was the dimension that was used most by managers and supervisors in the Riyadh Municipality. The findings expand the limited understanding of the effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership in the public sector, and the need to redefine a new leadership style which is more specific to the context of the public sector setting.

### **The effect of brand based transactional leadership on brand internalisation in the public**

**sector.**

Prior research investigating brand based transactional leadership on brand internalisation argued that brand based transactional leadership would negatively affect an employee's ability to internalise the organisational brand values (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009). Numerous studies place a negative connotation on transactional leadership, arguing that transformational leadership is a better and more effective leadership style (Simola, Barling et al. 2010, Wright and Pandey 2010, Tipu, Ryan et al. 2012, Ljungholm 2014, van der Voet 2014).

In this study, brand based transactional leadership was found not to reduce brand internalisation but surprisingly to strengthen it. Brand based transactional leaders are a key success factor in the internal branding process in public sectors. Brand based transactional leadership was found to have a direct effect on enhancing both in-role and extra-role behaviour in the public sector. The study's theoretical contribution lies in being the first study to confirm that brand based transactional leadership is a key success factor for internal branding in the public sector. The findings expand the limited understanding of the effectiveness of transactional leadership in the public sector, and the need to redefine a new leadership style that is more specific to the context of the public sector setting.

Furthermore, when investigating the demographical analysis, it was found that the relationships between brand based transactional leadership and brand internalisation was stronger for males, younger employees, less educated employees, and employees working on a grade lower than 4.

**The effect of constraints (HR red tape and structural authority) on brand internalisation in the public sector.**

Prior research investigating brand internalisation suggested that it would be negatively affected by the constraints that are faced by the employees in that particular setting. In the context of the public sector, the constraints can include primarily HR related constraints and hierarchical or structural constraints.

**In this study**, it was found that these constraints do not have an effect on the level to which the employee feels congruence or oneness with the organisation and its brand values. The study

confirms that the constraints are high and that HR red tape is strongly evident as is structural authority, bureaucracy and hierarchy, but these do not seem to effect the level of brand internalisation. The study's theoretical contribution lies in being the first study to confirm that constraints in the public sector, however significant, do not affect brand internalisation in the same way as the private sector. The findings expand the limited understanding of the brand internalisation in the public sector and the degree to which it is affected by government constraints.

On the other hand, when analysing the demographical differences, it was found that the only category negatively affected by HR red tape were older employees.

### **The effect of rewards on brand internalisation in the public sector.**

Prior research investigating intrinsic rewards suggested that intrinsic rewards would be important but only with the accompanying extrinsic rewards on brand internalisation (Chen and Hsieh 2006) and that reward systems should focus on both economic and psychological value.

In this study, it was found that only intrinsic rewards were linked to brand internalisation. The study confirms that public sector employees have a complex set of motives for working in the public sector, and that extrinsic rewards may not have a similar effect compared to the private sector. The study's theoretical contribution lies in being the first study to confirm that extrinsic rewards are not related to brand internalisation in the public sector. The findings expand the limited understanding of the brand internalisation in the public sector and the degree to which it is affected by monetary or psychological incentives.

Moreover, when analysing the demographical differences, it was found that the intrinsic rewards were a strong precursor to brand internalisation for males, females, younger employees, older employees, less educated employees, more educated employees, less experienced employees, more experienced employees, managers, non-managers, and lower and higher grade employees.

### **The effect of brand training on brand internalisation in the public sector.**

Prior research investigating brand training suggested that brand training would be an important factor affecting the success of the internal branding effort and on brand internalisation (Berry

2000, Chong 2007, Mahnert and Torres 2007).

In this study, it was confirmed that brand training was positively related to brand internalisation in the public sector. The study confirms that public sector employees' brand congruence and brand internalisation is dependent on the amount of brand-related training that they receive. The study's theoretical contribution lies in being the first study to confirm that brand training is positively related to brand internalisation in the public sector. The findings expand on the success factors associated with brand internalisation in the public sector and the degree to which it is affected by brand-related training.

Moreover, when analysing the demographical differences, it was found that brand training was a strong precursor to brand internalisation for females, younger employees, more educated employees, less experienced employees, and lower grade employees.

### **The effect of brand internalisation enhancing performance (in terms of in-role and extra-role behaviour) in the public sector.**

Prior research investigating brand internalisation in the private sector found that it was positively related to in-role and extra-role behaviour (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009).

In this study, it was confirmed that brand internalisation was positively related to both in-role and extra-role Behaviour in the public sector. The study's theoretical contribution lies in being the first study to confirm that brand internalisation is positively related to enhancing the behaviour of public sector employees in terms of their day-to-day tasks as well as going beyond what is required of them and becoming a champion of the public sector organisation. The findings expand on the idea that brand internalisation has a place in the public sector. It was discovered that internal branding has a role in the public sector, and that there is a need for further research in other public sector organisations. This is the first research that has empirically investigated internal branding, in terms of brand internalisation, in a non-western government sector organisation. This research makes a key contribution to the internal branding literature in the public sector by proposing a conceptual framework for strategies to enhance in-role and extra-role brand based behaviour.

### 9.3 Implications for practice

Internal branding theories suggest that successful brand internalisation is based on several key factors including leadership, training, rewards, and managing constraints (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009). However, the results of this study highlight some significant differences in the implementation of internal branding in the public sector.

#### **Key major factors for achieving brand internalisation in the public sector**

This study found that the key major factors for achieving brand internalisation in the public sector are: intrinsic rewards; brand related training; and brand based transactional leadership.

#### **Intrinsic rewards**

The study's findings draw attention to the fact the intrinsic rewards are one of the major determinants for achieving brand internalisation in the public sector.

Employees in this sector appear to be more susceptible to intrinsic rewards than extrinsic rewards. Moreover, there is enough evidence to conclude that the degree of brand internalisation is affected by the use of intrinsic rewards.

Intrinsic rewards in the public sector can be defined as when hard work is recognised by leaders and supervisors, when employees feel that their hard work and performance is rewarded by appreciation, and when they feel a sense of accomplishment for their job, that it is challenging, requires intelligence and responsibility. Intrinsic rewards also include simple acts of lenience by direct supervisors towards their employees. Public sector managers who reward their employees intrinsically, may do so by knowing when to give them a more challenging job, or even a 'title' promotion.

Intrinsic rewards, when used as part of an internal branding strategy, lead to higher brand internalisation. Brand internalisation in the public sector can be defined as ensuring that the employees feel that working in the organisation is more than just earning a living. When public sector employees have internalised the organizational brand, they believe that working in the municipality is part of who they are. They start to describe themselves to others by saying that they 'are from the organisation'. They feel they want to extend extra effort on behalf of the organisation, and they consider themselves as champions representing the organisational brand. When public sector employees internalise the organisational brand values they believe that

there is a significant degree of overlap between their values and the values of the organisation.

To achieve brand internalisation in a public sector setting, it is advisable for public sector managers to consider intrinsic rewards as one of the major factors within their internal branding strategy.

### **Brand Training**

The study's findings draw attention to the fact that brand-related training is one of the major determinants for achieving brand internalisation in the public sector.

Brand training in the public sector can be described as training orientation for newly hired employees, training that clarifies the behaviours that are accepted by the organisation, the values that are important to the organisation, and the cultural environment at the organisation. Employees who attend the training need to be given opportunities to model the knowledge and skills learned during the training in their daily work in the organisation. Brand training in public sector organisations also needs to include informal training such as conversations between management and employees, suggestions, and advice.

Brand training, when used as part of an internal branding strategy, leads to higher brand internalisation. Brand internalisation in the public sector can be defined as ensuring that the employees feel that working in the organisation is more than just earning a living. When public sector employees have internalised the organisational brand, they believe that working in the municipality is part of who they are. They start to describe themselves to others by saying that they 'are from the organisation'. They feel they want to extend extra effort on behalf of the organisation, and they consider themselves as champions representing the organisational brand. When public sector employees internalise the organisational brand values they believe that there is a significant degree of overlap between their values and the values of the organisation. To achieve brand internalisation in a public sector setting, it is advisable for public sector managers to consider brand training as one of the major factors within their internal branding strategy.

However, before deploying brand training in public sector organisations, it is advisable for managers to remember a few key challenges that arose from the findings of this study.

Brand training courses need to be linked to the needs of the organisation as a whole but also to



the needs of the individual departments. When the training addresses the skills and competencies that the employee needs to have for that specific department, they will be more able to implement and use those skills on the job after the training is over. It is common for public sector training to be decided by another department that has little or no understanding of the needs of the different departments.

### **Brand based transactional leadership**

The study's findings draw attention to the fact the brand based transactional leadership is one of the major determinants for achieving brand internalisation in the public sector.

These employees appear to be more susceptible to transactional leadership than transformational leadership. Moreover, there is enough evidence to conclude that the degree of brand internalisation is affected by the use of brand based transactional leadership.

Brand based transactional leadership in the public sector can be described as those managers that focus their attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of employees as brand representatives. Brand based transactional leaders keep track of mistakes regarding brand consistency of employee behaviour. Brand based transactional leaders monitor their employees' performance for errors needing correction. Brand based transactional leaders alert their employees when they fail to meet the standards for brand-consistent behaviour. Brand based transactional leaders point out what their employees will receive when they do what is required of them as brand representatives. Brand based transactional leaders tell their employees what they need to do in order to be rewarded for their brand-consistent behaviour. Brand based transactional leaders work out arrangements with their employees on what special rewards they will get for exemplary behaviour.

Brand based transactional leadership, when used as part of an internal branding strategy, leads to higher brand internalisation. Brand internalisation in the public sector can be defined as ensuring that the employees feel that working in the organisation is more than just earning a living. When public sector employees have internalised the organisational brand, they believe that working in the municipality is part of who they are. They start to describe themselves to others by saying that they 'are from the organisation'. They feel they want to extend extra effort on behalf of the organisation, and they consider themselves as champions representing the organisational brand. When public sector employees internalise the organisational brand

values they believe that there is a significant degree of overlap between their values and the values of the organisation.

To achieve brand internalisation in a public sector setting, it is advisable for public sector managers to consider brand based transactional leadership as one of the major factors within their internal branding strategy.

#### 9.4 Limitations and directions for future research

At the point of completion, a number of limitations of the current study need acknowledging:

1. There is an issue of generalisability in internal branding studies and the present study is no exception. For instance, the findings of this study are limited to a certain group of public sector employees in a particular organisation in the capital city of Saudi Arabia. The study only focused on employees in the Riyadh Municipality and the results may not be applicable to employees in other public sector organisations.
2. For practical reasons, the questionnaire was developed in English and then translated into Arabic. Therefore, there is always a risk when translating from one language to another, although significant efforts were made to make sure that the translation was representative and accurate.
3. At the time of the interviews, there were no women middle managers available to take part in the interview, although soon afterwards they joined the municipality. However, for cultural reasons, it was not acceptable to go back and conduct further interviews to include them. Meeting with them face to face is extremely difficult and telephone interviews would need special approvals as well.
4. Previous researchers found that brand internalisation in the private sector enhances in-role and extra-role behaviour, as well as decreasing absenteeism (Morhart, Herzog et al. 2009). Originally, it was the intention in this research to gather data about absenteeism and investigate this relationship in the public sector. In the preliminary results from the qualitative interviews, it was found that managers argued that brand internalisation did in fact reduce absenteeism. However, when gathering the primary data, which includes reports regarding absenteeism rates in the departments, the department head refused to share the

information, despite having approvals from the mayor of the city. Therefore, it is a limitation that this study was not able to gather information about absenteeism to investigate the relationship between brand internalisation and absenteeism in the public sector.

5. Transformational leadership in the context of this research was found to be generally low. Therefore, it is possible that the positive effects of transformational leadership were not measured precisely due to the fact that it was not evident in the municipality. Future studies would benefit from including other public sector organisations that did have transformational leaders.
6. This research was exploratory in nature and the first of its kind, and therefore there may be improvements in how the constructs were measured and which combinations of items were used to measure the constructs. For example, the Skewness value for in-role behaviour is higher than the benchmark indicated by Hair et al. (1998).

However, it should be noted that whilst the current study was subject to a number of limitations, the research was successful in addressing the original objectives of the study.

After completing the current study, five areas that would benefit from future research have become apparent:

### **Larger scope to include transformational leaders**

It was found in this study that the majority of participants described their leaders and supervisors as transactional. Middle managers that took part in the interviews believed that they were transformational in their leadership style, but when they described their actions it was evident that it was transactional not transformational. Therefore, it is possible that the full benefits of transformational leadership could not be measured. Future studies can benefit from enhancing the scope to include different organisations and specifically a public sector organisation that has true transformational leadership.

### **Other factors that influence brand internalisation**

This research study measured specific factors that influence brand internalisation, and it was found that brand based transactional leadership; intrinsic rewards and brand training had the strongest effect on brand internalisation. However, future studies could also include other

factors that were mentioned during the interviews. These include departmental collaboration (or departmental competition), relationships (corruption), brand strategy (Manhert and Torres, 2007), communication effectiveness, alignment of internal and external messages, clarity and consistency of brand message (Manhert and Torres, 2007), and leadership jurisdiction.

### **Gender studies**

One future path for research that I would like to focus on is female middle managers in Saudi Arabia. In December 2015, 20 women won the seats as mid-level managers in municipal offices across the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Batrawy 2015). It would be interesting to investigate the different role that women middle managers play as brand builders in public sector organisations. How does gender play a role in effective leadership style and in achieving brand internalisation? Do women in Saudi public sector organisations face different obstacles and challenges to men in their newly appointed positions? How do women lead their teams to be public sector brand champions? How relevant is brand building behaviour in women's public sector departments in comparison to men's sections? This research found that there is a difference in the perceptions of female and male public sector employees with regard to brand based transactional leadership, brand training, and in-role and extra-role behaviour. Therefore, further research in this area is needed to clarify these differences and use this research's findings to help to prepare leaders to meet public sector challenges.

### **Longitudinal study of a public sector organization implementing internal branding**

Internal branding in the public sector can be investigated through a longitudinal design spanning over several years that focuses on a public sector organisation that implements an internal branding strategy. It therefore gains a richer understanding of the dynamics and complexities of implementing internal branding in the public sector. These researches may also include examination of the behavioural effect of implementing internal branding strategies in the public sector and investigate the interactions that take place between front line public sector employees and citizens. For example, one could research the level of customer orientation, enjoyment, and satisfaction in these groups (Whelan, Davies et al. 2010).

### **Further investigation into the links between in-role and extra-role behaviour and public sector performance**

Measuring performance in the public sector is a complex and difficult process (Gedeg et al.

2008). Further studies can include other elements to measure performance in the public sector other than in-role and extra-role behaviour, such as absenteeism.

## 9.5 Conclusion

The primary objectives of this study were to do three things. First, to investigate the role of leadership in internal branding in the public section. Second, to investigate the differences in dynamics and the effects of transformational and transactional leadership in a non-western developing country. Third, to identify the constraints that the public sector faces in its practice of internal branding.

The study found that there is place for internal branding in the public sector, and specifically in the Saudi Arabian context. Public sector organisations have brands and internal branding is evident in the public sector, although it is sometimes unintentional. For example, the municipality communicates its brand internally (internal branding) and seeks to instil certain values in its employees; the municipality makes a promise to citizens to provide a high quality service, a rapid completion of cases, helping people to develop their investments and taking responsibility to attend to all issue of the capital city of Riyadh. However, there are also hidden messages that are evident in the internal branding messages such as the lengthy service time, unclear and contradictory procedures, reliance on relationships and favouritism.

These are the key success factors of internal branding. In order to achieve a congruence and alignment between the employee values and those set out by organizational brand, one needs to use intrinsic rewards, brand training and brand based transactional leadership.

It was found that leaders in the public sector are aware that they have a role in helping their employees become brand champions, and that they mostly use a transactional leadership style to achieve this goal. It was evident from this study that transactional leadership was positively related to brand internalisation and this marks an important difference between the dynamics and the effects of transformational and transactional leadership in a non-western, developing country such as Saudi Arabia.

This research found that there were several constraints faced by managers and employees in the public sector, including HR red tape and structural authority constraints. But interestingly, these constraints did not seem to have an effect on the degree to which the employees in the public sector internalise the organisational brand values.

It was also shown that brand internalisation had a positive effect on enhancing in-role behaviour and extra-role behaviour. The study showed that there were some important demographical differences in the factors affecting brand internalisation in public sector employees. For example, male employees were more affected by brand based transactional leadership, while female employees were more affected by brand training. Younger employees were more affected by transitional leadership while older employees were more negatively affected by HR red tape. Less experienced employees were more affected by brand based transformational leadership and brand training, while more experienced employees were affected by transactional leadership. Managers were affected by transactional leadership, while non-managers were affected by transformational leadership. Lower grade employees were affected by brand training. It was also found that throughout all the demographical differences, one construct was evident as a key determinant for brand internalisation; this the was intrinsic rewards.

To conclude, this study has shown that internal branding efforts in the public sector can be a successful tool for enhancing brand based behaviour. There are key differences in the success factors of internal branding that were found in the context of this study for public sector organisations. It is hoped that these differences and their effects will lead public sector organisation leaders and public sector internal branding researchers to benefit from these findings and be inspired to continue further research in this area.

-- Chapter Ten --  
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## 10. Chapter 10: References

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-- Appendix A --  
Glossary of Terms

**Appendix A: Glossary of terms**

| Construct / variable   | Definitions and meanings   |
|--|--|
| <b>Public sector organisations</b>                                   | Public sector organisations provide government service to the public (citizen); these may include military, police, infrastructure, public education, etc.   |
| <b>Internal branding</b>   | Internal branding is the organisation's effort to communicate to its employees the clear view of the organisation and its values and its main objectives, as well the attitudes and behaviours that the organisation encourages.   |
| <b>Riyadh Municipality</b>   | This is a public sector organisation in the capital city of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. It is responsible for the towns, the construction of buildings, and preserving the aesthetics of the city.   |
| <b>Employee branding</b>   | Employee branding is the act of shaping employees' behaviour so that they project and act out according to and in alignment with the organisational core message.  |
| <b>Internal employee branding</b>                                    | Internal employee branding can include HR management systems, PR systems, culture, co-worker influence, and leaders and managers.  |
| <b>External employee branding</b>                                    | External employee branding includes advertising, PR, and customer feedback.  |
| <b>Brand champions or living the brand</b>                           | Brand champions is a term that refers to employees when they reflect the values and the essence of the brand both internally among themselves and externally to customers, and other stakeholders.   |
| <b>Leadership</b>  | Leaders influence their followers to achieve a common goal.  |
| <b>Brand based leadership</b>  | Brand based leaders motivate their followers to become brand champions, and to live the brand.   |
| <b>Transformational leadership</b>                                   | A process through which the leader transforms and changes a follower's behaviour.  |
| <b>Brand based transformational and in-role behaviour leadership</b> | Brand based transformational leadership is when the manager acts as a role model and exemplifies the organisational brand vision in his or her own actions, takes pride in the organisational brand, and ensures that the employees think about their roles and responsibilities in terms of the organisational brand. It also teaches and coaches employees to evolve as effective representatives of the organisational brand. |
| <b>Brand internalisation</b>   | Brand internalisation is when employees come to accept the brand values as their own and therefore perceive value congruence between their own and the corporate brand's values.   |
| <b>In-role behaviour</b>   | Fulfilling one's expected obligations according to the definitions and requirements of the job role, including the core tasks of the specific job.   |
| <b>Extra-role Behaviour</b>  | Going above and beyond what is required such as courtesy, word of mouth, assisting colleagues, altruism, etc.  |

-- Appendix B --  
Interview Guide

## Appendix B: Interview guide

Email message

Dear <<Title>> <<Last name>>

My name is Tariq Kashmiri. I am a doctoral researcher at Cardiff Business School, Cardiff University, United Kingdom.

My research aims to investigate the role of leaders in public sector organisations, in instilling the organisational brand in their employees to enhance behaviour that is in alignment with the organisational values, culture, and identity, and therefore enhance public sector performance. This study seeks to also investigate the factors that affect the ability of the leaders to motivate and empower his or her employees towards the organisational goal by ‘living’ the organisational brand.

This research is at its exploratory phase where my goal is to collect qualitative data through in-depth interviews with renowned leaders in public sector organisations in order to gain a deeper understanding of the influence of leadership and the effect of other constraints that affect employee behaviour.

As an expert in the field of public sector leadership, I would be grateful if I could interview you for 30-45 minutes at a time that is convenient for you.

Thank you for considering supporting this research.

Yours sincerely,

Tariq Kashmiri  
Doctoral Researcher  
Cardiff Business School

## Public Sector Leaders: Interview Guide

### Objectives

The overall aim of this qualitative phase is to explore the influences of brand based transformational leadership in public sector organisations on brand internalisation and its effect on employee behaviour and public sector performance. Additionally, it is also intended to identify any external factors that affect the influence of a leader or the ability of the employee to internalise and 'live' the organisational brand, such as complex hierarchical structures, political factors, or reward systems.

The information gathered from the expert interviews will be used to modify the conceptual model and create the basis for the quantitative research.

### Introduction

Good morning/afternoon and thank you for meeting with me. My name is Tariq Kashmiri and I am doctoral researcher at Cardiff Business School.

Today we are discussing your thoughts and opinions about being a leader in the public sector and the leadership strategies that you use to affect the behaviour of your employees and therefore enhance the performance of your department, and what are the factors that influence this process.

I would be grateful if I could use a digital recorder, as I do not want to miss any of your comments. I am going to analyse the data for academic purposes only. In my thesis, there will not be any names attached to the comments. Your confidentiality will be preserved.

I would like to begin by filling in a registration form that includes some demographic and company information.

### Registration form

1. Name
2. Gender
  - Female
  - Male
3. Age
4. Nationality
5. Please indicate your highest degree
  - High school graduate
  - Bachelor's degree
  - Professional qualification
  - Postgraduate certificate, diploma or degree
  - Doctorate (PhD)
6. Job position
7. The number of years of working in the public sector
8. The number of years working at this organisation
9. Name of the organisation
10. What does the organisation that you work for do?
11. What does the department you work for do?
12. How many employees work in your organisation?

### Interview guide

1. In your own words, can you define what a brand is?
2. Kotler (2010) defines a brand as the perception and the promise that is held by the organisation; others define a brand as the organisational values, culture, the unique services that it provides, and its overall identity. What does your organisational brand stand for?
3. What do you understand by the term 'brand internalisation' in general? What does employee brand internalisation mean specifically in the public sector? Can you give me some examples from your own organisation/department?
4. What are the consequences when employees 'live' the brand, or become brand champions? Can you give me examples from your organisation/department?  
What about in terms of, or do you think brand internalisation has an effect on any of

the following:

- a. Absenteeism
- b. In-role brand supporting behaviour
- c. Extra-role behaviour
- d. Public sector organisational performance

Why do think brand internalisation has an effect on any of these? Can you give me an example from your department?

5. What are some of the factors that influence the ability of the employees to 'live' the organisational brand and behave in alignment with it? Why do these factors play such a role? Can you give me a specific example?
6. Do you think that leadership and different styles of leadership play an important factor in organisational brand internalisation in your department? Can you give me specific examples?
  - a. Can you describe transactional and transformational leadership if possible?
  - b. Do you think transformational leaders, those who inspire and motivate their followers to work towards a common goal, influence their employees' ability to internalise the organisational brand? Can you give me specific examples of this?
  - c. Do you think transactional leaders, those who believe that employees work best motivated by rewards and punishment, working within the organisational culture, rather than striving to change it, have an influence on the ability of their employees to internalise the organisational brand? Can you give me specific examples of this?
7. What kind of effect does complex structural authority have on employee brand internalisation and on the brand based behaviour of the employees? Can leaders influence this? Can different leadership styles affect this? Can you give me specific examples?
8. What kind of effect do reward systems have on employee brand internalisation?
  - a. Do you think intrinsic rewards play an important role in motivating public sector employees and therefore 'living' the organisational brand values and brand based behaviours? Can you give me specific examples?
  - b. To what extent do you think extrinsic rewards affect brand internalisation, employee brand based behaviour, productivity, and performance? Can you

give me specific examples?

- c. Are there any other factors that are a threat to internal branding in your organisation? Can you give me specific examples?

9. Is there anything else you want to bring up or discuss before we finish the interview?

Ending

Thank you so much for your time. I really appreciate it.



-- Appendix C --  
Survey Questionnaire (English)

## Appendix C: Riyadh Municipality survey questionnaire

My name is Tariq Kashmiri. As part of my PhD research, I am investigating the links between leadership and internal branding in public sector organisations. I would like to invite you to take part in this short survey, which has been distributed to you by the mayor's office.

The survey will only take 25 minutes for you to complete and your participation will be a valuable input to my study.

Your participation in this project is *completely voluntary* and you are free to decline the invitation to participate at any time prior to or at any point during the activity.

Any information you provide will be kept *confidential* and used only for the purposes of this study and will not be used in any way to reveal your identity. All questionnaire responses, notes, and records will be kept in a secured environment.

If you choose to participate in this survey, please complete the questionnaire and place it in the drop box available in your department.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Tariq Kashmiri

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**Your responses will remain anonymous.**

No attempt will be made to identify individuals based on their answers to these questions.

### **PART 1**

Thinking about your immediate supervisor, please answer the following questions by selecting a number from 1 to 5 (by 1 meaning that your supervisor does not exhibit this behaviour at all, and 5 meaning that he/she demonstrates this behaviour frequently, if not

| always)   |            |                 |             |              |                           |
|---|------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------|---------------------------|
|   | Not at all | Once in a while | Some -times | Fairly often | Frequently, if not always |
| 1- My supervisor re-examines critical assumptions of our brand promise to question whether they are appropriate | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 2- My supervisor seeks differing perspectives when interpreting our brand values                                | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 3- My supervisor gets me to look at my job as a branding task   | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 4- My supervisor suggests a perspective that promotes the brand when looking at how to complete assignments     | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 5- My supervisor does not talk optimistically about the future of our brand                                     | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 6- My supervisor talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished to strengthen our brand             | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 7- My supervisor articulates a compelling vision of our brand   | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 8- My supervisor expresses confidence that brand-related goals will be achieved                                 | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 9- My supervisor instils pride in me for being associated with our brand  | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 10- My supervisor goes beyond self-interest for the good of the brand   | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 11- My supervisor lives our brand in ways that build my respect   | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |
| 12- My supervisor displays a sense of power   | 1          | 2               | 3           | 4            | 5                         |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| and confidence when talking about our brand  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 13- My supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of our brand   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14- My supervisor talks about our most important brand values and his/her belief in them   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15- My supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of our brand promise  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16- My supervisor does not emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of our brand mission  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17- My supervisor spends time teaching and coaching me in brand-related issues   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18- My supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just one of many members of the Riyadh Municipality                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19- My supervisor considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from other members of the Riyadh Municipality               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20- My supervisor does not help me to develop my strengths with regard to becoming a good representative of the Riyadh Municipality              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21- My supervisor focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of me as a brand representative | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22- My supervisor keeps careful track of mistakes regarding the brand consistency of my behaviour  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23- My supervisor monitors my performance as a brand representative for errors needing   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| correction  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 24- My supervisor is alert to failures to meet standards for brand-consistent behaviour   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25- My supervisor points out what I will receive if I do what is required from a brand representative                                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26- My supervisor tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts for brand-consistent behaviour  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27- My supervisor works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I behave in line with our standards for brand-consistent behaviour | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28- My supervisor talks about special rewards for exemplary behaviour as a brand representative   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

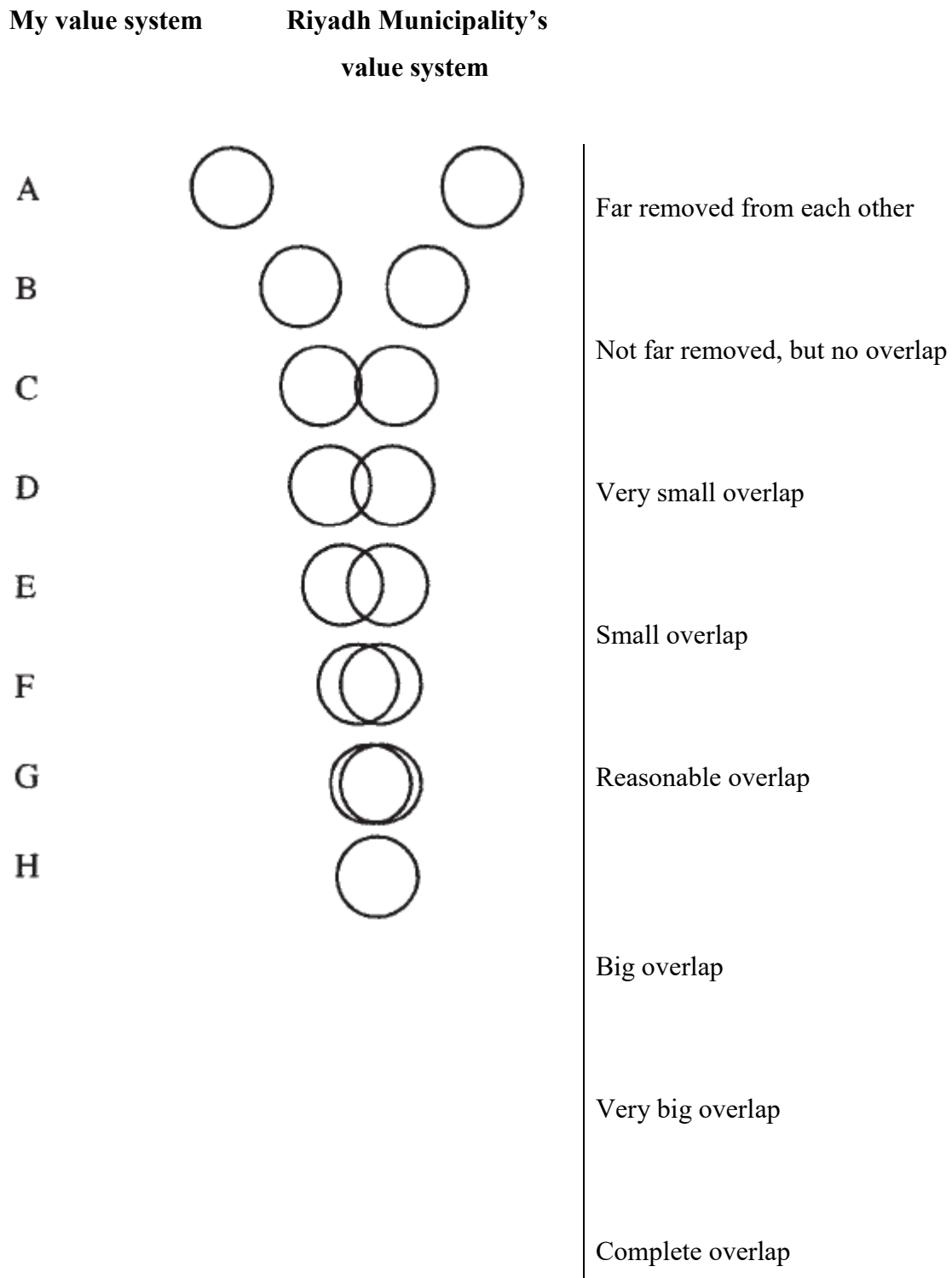
**PART 2**

This part focuses on the meaning that belonging to the Riyadh Municipality has for you personally

|   | Does not apply at all |   |   | Completely applies |   |
|---|-----------------------|---|---|--------------------|---|
| 29- For me, working for the Riyadh Municipality means more than just earning my living                                      | 1                     | 2 | 3 | 4                  | 5 |
| 30- Working for the Riyadh Municipality is an important part of who I am  | 1                     | 2 | 3 | 4                  | 5 |
| 31- I often describe myself to others by saying 'I work for the Riyadh Municipality' or 'I am from the Riyadh Municipality' | 1                     | 2 | 3 | 4                  | 5 |

|  |          |          |          |          |          |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 32- Unless I am rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of the Riyadh Municipality's image | <b>1</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |
| 33- How much I champion the Riyadh Municipality brand is directly linked to how much I am rewarded                               | <b>1</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |

34- Often we identify strongly with a corporate brand. That is the case when there is a great deal of overlap between our values and those of the brand. Imagine that the circle on the left represents your value system and the one on the right the values of your corporate brand (Riyadh Municipality). Please describe which case (A, B, C, ..., H) best describes the degree of overlap between your value system and the value of the Riyadh Municipality.



We remind you that your answers will remain completely anonymous.

|  | Does not apply at all |   | Completely applies |   |   |
|--|-----------------------|---|--------------------|---|---|
|  | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 35- In citizen contact situations, I pay attention to my personal appearance so that it is in line with the Riyadh Municipality’s appearance | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 36- I see that my actions in citizen contact are not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behaviour                                 | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 37- I adhere to our standards for brand-congruent behaviour  | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 38- I ‘talk up’ the Riyadh Municipality to people I know   | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 39- I bring up the Riyadh Municipality in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances                              | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 40- In social situations, I do not often speak favourably about the Riyadh Municipality  | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 41- I let my supervisor know of ways that we can strengthen our brand image  | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 42- I make constructive suggestions on how to improve our citizens’ brand experience   | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 43- If I have a useful idea on how to improve our brand’s performance, I share it with my supervisor   | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |

**PART 3**

This part seeks to gather some information on your organisation (Riyadh Municipality)

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 44- Please assess the extent of hierarchical authority constraints in your organisation. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|



|   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Please select a number between 0-10, with 0 signifying many layers of authority and 10 signifying few layers of authority |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|

|   | Does not apply at all |   | Completely applies |   |   |
|---|-----------------------|---|--------------------|---|---|
| 45- Personnel rules make it hard to remove poor performers from the organisation                    | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 46- Personnel rules on promotion make it hard for a good employee to move up faster than a poor one | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 47- Pay structures and personnel rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay       | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |
| 48- Personnel rules make it hard to hire new employees  | 1                     | 2 | 3                  | 4 | 5 |

| <b>PART 4</b>  |            |                 |           |              |                          |
|--|------------|-----------------|-----------|--------------|--------------------------|
| Thinking about the municipality and the training opportunities provided to you, please answer the following: |            |                 |           |              |                          |
|  | Not at all | Once in a while | Sometimes | Fairly often | Frequently if not always |
| 49- The Municipality of Riyadh provides a training orientation for newly hired employees                     | 1          | 2               | 3         | 4            | 5                        |
| 50- The municipality regularly holds training  | 1          | 2               | 3         | 4            | 5                        |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| for employees that helps clarify the behaviours and values promised by the municipality  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 51- The training available through the municipality enables employees to identify with the municipality, its culture, its vision and what is required in the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52- Employees that attend training are given an opportunity to model the knowledge and skills learned in the training  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 53- Employees that attend training are not rewarded when they use the knowledge and skills that they learned while performing their jobs                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 54- My supervisor clearly explains the municipality brand values through informal training such as conversations, suggestions and advice                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**PART 5**

Thinking about the way your performance is rewarded in the municipality, please answer the following:

|  | Strongly disagree | Generally disagree | Disagree | Agree | Generally agree | Strongly agree |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|----------|-------|-----------------|----------------|
| 55- Working hard is recognised by upper management   | 1                 | 2                  | 3        | 4     | 5               | 6              |
| 56- Fulfilling all my job responsibilities does little to improve my chances for a promotion | 1                 | 2                  | 3        | 4     | 5               | 6              |

|   | Almost never or never | Rarely   | Sometimes | Often    | Alot always or always |
|---|-----------------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------------------|
| 57- I have seen good job performance rewarded in my work unit | <b>0</b>              | <b>1</b> | <b>2</b>  | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b>              |

|   | Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|---|-------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
|   | 1                                   | 2        | 3        | 4        | 5        | 6        | 7        |
| 58- I feel that employees are promoted to higher positions not for years of work but for competencies and performance | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 59- Individual or team-based performance is measured with fairness  | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 60- This organisation provides me with fair opportunities for advancement and rewards based on performance            | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 61- I am satisfied with the amount of pay and rewards I receive based on my job performance                           | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 62- I am getting a feeling of accomplishment from my job  | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 63- I accomplish something worthwhile with my job   | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 64- I do find my job enjoyable  | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 65- I find my job challenging   | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 66- I find that my job requires intelligence  | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 67- I find that my job requires responsibility  | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 68- I find that my job requires personal judgment   | <b>1</b>                            | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |

**Your responses will remain anonymous.** No attempt will be made to identify individuals based on their answers to these questions.

| <b>PART 7</b>   |  |
|---|--|
| Demographics  |  |
| 77- Gender:   | <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female  |
| 78- What is your age?   | _____  |
| 79- What is your highest level of education?                      | <input type="checkbox"/> Less than high school<br><input type="checkbox"/> High school<br><input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's degree<br><input type="checkbox"/> Master's degree<br><input type="checkbox"/> Doctoral degree   |
| 80- How long have you been working in the Municipality of Riyadh? | <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year<br><input type="checkbox"/> 1-4 years<br><input type="checkbox"/> 5-8 years<br><input type="checkbox"/> 9-12 years<br><input type="checkbox"/> 13-16 years<br><input type="checkbox"/> More than 17 years  |
| 81- Which of the following best describes your level?             | <input type="checkbox"/> Deputy Mayor<br><input type="checkbox"/> General Manager<br><input type="checkbox"/> District Manager<br><input type="checkbox"/> Department Manager<br><input type="checkbox"/> Supervisor<br><input type="checkbox"/> Non-Manager                               |
| 82- What is your grade in the municipality?                       | <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 6<br><input type="checkbox"/> 7 <input type="checkbox"/> 8 <input type="checkbox"/> 9<br><input type="checkbox"/> 10 <input type="checkbox"/> 11 <input type="checkbox"/> 12<br><input type="checkbox"/> 13 |
| 83- In which department or district of the                        | _____  |

|                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| municipality do you work? |  |
|---------------------------|--|

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <p><b>PART 8</b><br/> <b>Any further comments are important to us:</b> If you wish, please take some time to tell us more about your professional and personal goals, and what you think overall about working in the municipality. Your views will help us to improve the Municipality of Riyadh.</p> |  |
| <p>84- Tell us about your personal goals and ambitions</p>   |  |
| <p>85- Tell us about your professional career goals and ambitions</p>  |  |
| <p>86- What is your general impression towards your immediate leader or supervisor?</p>  |  |
| <p>87- What is your general impression towards the Municipality of Riyadh?</p>   |  |

|  |  |
|--|--|
| 88- What are some of the barriers or challenges that you have faced in the Municipality of Riyadh? |  |
|--|--|

**This is the end of the survey. Thank you very much for your participation.**