Introducing a departmental branding model to improve the visibility and legitimacy of internal support functions

Dissertation
im Studiengang Betriebswirtschaftslehre
an der Fakultät Sozial- und Wirtschaftswissenschaften
der Otto-Friedrich-Universität Bamberg

Verfasserin: Lisa Kurscheidt
Marie-Curie-Straße 13, 91052 Erlangen
Matrikelnummer: 1624002

Lehrstuhl: Betriebswirtschaftslehre, insbesondere Vertrieb und Marketing
Erstgutachter: Professor Dr. Björn Ivens
Zweitgutachter: Professor Dr. Marc Falko Schrader
Drittgutachter: Professor Dr. Johann Engelhard
Datum der Abgabe: 16.11.2020
Datum der Disputation: 14.06.2021

URN: urn:nbn:de:bvb:473-irb-511821
DOI: https://doi.org/10.20378/irb-51182

Acknowledgement

My special thanks to **Professor Dr. Björn Ivens** for his guidance throughout the whole process of this thesis. I am grateful for the opportunity he has given me to engage in the topic of departmental branding from a scientific angle and allowing me to bring a practical challenge into the research arena.

Also my gratitude goes to **Dr. Freimut Schröder, Head of EHS** for his enduring support and commitment, especially in making it possible to develop, test and implement the departmental branding model in his Department of EHS of Siemens Healthineers. His role as a coach and an enabler have been invaluable for this thesis.

Further, I would like to thank **Paul Moss** and **Nicola Grünberg** for their support in the practical implementation of departmental branding. Their facilitation, sparring and support have been a valuable contribution.

Finally, I would like to thank my partner **Bernd Trautwein** who has accompanied me on this journey and has been a great source of sparring and discussion.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

AMA	American Association of Marketing
B2B	Business-to-business
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CFO	Chief Financial Officer
CRM	Customer Relationship Management
e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)
EHS	Environmental Protection, Health Management and Safety
etc.	et cetera
G-D logic	Goods-dominant logic
H	Hypothesis
HR	Human Resources
i.e.	id est (that is to say)
IT	Information Technology
P	Proposition
PMO	Project Management Office
QR	Quality and Regulatory
QT	Quality
REACH	Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals
R&D	Research and Development
RoHS	Restriction of Hazardous Substances
RQ	Research Question
S-D logic	Service-Dominant logic
TQM	Total Quality Management
vs.	versus

1 Introduction

1.1 Problem description and relevance of thesis

Marketing and branding share a common path in their development trajectory in the last decades from each having a specific originate purpose to wider general application in multiple fields of business. And while branding in principle may be seen as a sub-element of marketing originally, it is today its own field of research (Balmer 2001a; Louro and Cunha 2001; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). Both marketing and branding have in their own fields experienced a broadening process (Kotler 2005; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009; Wilkie and Moore 2003).

Marketing, once seen as the task to stimulate consumers to buy products, had evolved towards a generic concept of marketing (Kotler 1972) that opened the path for a wide range of new fields beyond the classical domain of consumer goods marketing to areas, such as industrial or B2B marketing (Hadjikhani and LaPlaca 2013; Webster Jr. 1978), non-profit marketing (Kotler 1979; Modi and Mishra 2010), political marketing (Arndt 1983; Lees-Marshment 2014), or internal marketing (Hogg, Carter, and Dunne 1998; Rafiq and Ahmed 1993). The understanding of value in marketing has developed from a product and monetary-centric perspective to a broader understanding that includes all kinds of relational exchanges (Ravald and Grönroos 1996). Be they supplier, buyer, lateral or internal, all these types of relational exchanges have been incorporated into the concept of marketing (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Webster Jr. 1992). In this context it has become apparent that value is created through the mutual interaction between actors. This broadening of marketing towards a service-centric logic – that still resides today as predominant – provides a wide inclusive, holistic view of marketing applicable in a multitude of marketing situations (Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Vargo and Lusch 2004).

Branding for its part has experienced similar to marketing a broadening of the concept (Bastos and Levy 2012; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009). From being seen as a sub-discipline of marketing focusing only on product attributes (Louro and Cunha 2001), the relationship-focus era (Blackston 1992; Webster 2000) with its shift to brand value co-created by all stakeholders of the brand, has paved the way for branding to broaden in its own right (Ballantyne and Aitken 2007; Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006). In this evolution, especially the emergence of corporate branding has created a new field of branding that is relevant to the corporation from an organizational and employee perspective (Harris and de Chernatony 2001; Hatch and Schultz 2003).

However, despite this broadening process, marketing research has not yet studied all fields of application in which marketing plays a role today. Among those numerous possible fields of application, one particular domain has received only very limited attention, that is, the question how departments within an organization can use and implement the concept of the brand for their specific purposes. As a first attempt to close this gap, this thesis introduces departmental branding as a holistic concept to manage and improve the intra-organizational perception, the acceptance, and the cross-functional alignment of internal support functions.

For the particular area in the organization – the department itself – only little research can be found on the application of branding in an inter-departmental context of a corporation (Beck 2010; Benson and Kinsella 2017; Cheskis 2012; Esser and Schelenz 2011; Jessl 2010; Rahman and Areni 2010; Siems and Lackus 2010).

For instance, Siems and Lackus (2010, p. 32) observed:

> “what remains neglected is the understanding of internal customer-supplier relations and the relevance of branding in this relationship as an essential element of internal marketing (…). This is interesting – and important – because the sub-units themselves can represent the own brand and brand personalities: Internal services can be ‘internal brands’.”

Within the organization, departments compete for scarce resources such as power, budget, personnel, top management awareness, recognition and legitimacy (Hybels 1995; Tyler 2006; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). They face challenges in their internal market for visibility and legitimacy. Despite there being a need for departments to position themselves in their own competing environment there is no branding model with which such a sub-organization can address its market and business challenges.

Internal support functions such as technology, accounting, or quality enable primary functions, such as manufacturing or sales, to create value for the firm (Porter 1985). Although they are fundamental to ensure the stability and timeliness of a firm’s core business, they often perform in the shadows of the firm’s primary units that are directly concerned with profit maximization. Whereas those primary functions produce visible and measurable results and profits, internal support functions perform services that run in the background and tend to be hard to measure (Menon 2012; Rust et al. 2004). In addition, support functions are often measured by the costs they create rather than by their business impact, which may become evident only after several years (Dekimpe and Hanssens 1995; Park et al. 2012). Because of their lack of internal visibility and the various roles they fulfill, internal support functions tend to be challenged with gaining acceptance among their internal stakeholders. However, to retain legitimacy, access vital resources like budget and personnel, and influence corporate-wide strategic decisions ensuring the firm's competitiveness, internal support functions need to develop techniques for gaining and maintaining visibility and acceptance among their relevant stakeholders (Eisenstat 1990).

This is also the case for the Department of Environmental Protection, Health and Safety (EHS) at Siemens Healthineers (Siemens Healthineers 2020a), who kindly offered to be a research partner in this thesis. It is from this aspect that the research object of an internal support function as the department is taken.

1.2 Goal of this thesis

The goal of this thesis is to propose a model for departmental branding that can be applied to internal departments for them to establish their visibility and legitimacy in their competitive environment. The internal department's characterization and its way of creating value are the starting point for this research, under special consideration and focus on the internal support function.

Before establishing any branding model for internal departments, it is necessary to understand characteristics of internal departments and how they are positioned in the corporate context. Using the object of an internal support function, the first research question is defined as:

RQ1: What are the specific characteristics and challenges of internal support functions?

Subsequently, before establishing a departmental branding model, the broadening of marketing and branding are investigated to understand under which conditions an own model can be created and based on which existing stream of research it can be best derived from. From this the following research question can be derived:

RQ2: What are the prerequisites for a departmental branding model?

In a next step building on existing research, the necessary elements for a departmental branding model as well as their stages can be proposed. As such this results in the research question:

RQ3: What are the elements and stages of a departmental branding model?

With a proposed model it is then possible to test the model in the practical application and define measures for the adoption of the model. The last research question can thus be defined:

RQ4: What practical measures can be applied to adopt a departmental branding model?

1.3 Structure of this thesis

To reach the goal of this thesis firstly the principle foundations for the object of focus, the internal support function as the department object, are presented from different angles to present a complete picture (see Figure 1 for the structure of this thesis). Firstly, in Chapter 2.1 the nature of internal support functions are presented and their particular characterization as internal services described. In Chapter 2.2 the individual aspect of internal customer-supplier relationships and how they create value is introduced, thereby the need of integration and alignment is presented. Putting the internal support function into the context of overall corporate organization is discussed in 2.3 highlighting conflicting roles and negative stereotyping these functions face. Chapter 2.4 addresses the critical role of legitimacy for internal support functions before in Chapter 2.5 typical challenges for internal support functions can be derived from the preceding chapters.

In Chapter 3 the evolutionary broadening of marketing and in branding are investigated as a basis to transfer the concept of branding to organizational sub-units. In 3.1 the evolutionary broadening of marketing is discussed with relevance to the thesis and in 3.2 analog the evolutionary broadening of branding and its relevance to the thesis. Chapter 3.3. then learns from other examples of transfer and then discusses predominantly the transfer from corporate branding approach to organizational sub-units.

Chapter 4 proposes a departmental branding model. In Chapter 4.1 the relevance and contribution of the model is formulated. In Chapter 4.2 the conceptual framework is outlined in its four parts that are then subsequently elaborated and discussed. Firstly, in Chapter 4.3 the creation of the departmental brand identity is discussed and constituents are proposed. Secondly, in Chapter 4.4 the employee branding process is discussed from a brand ambassador, brand citizenship behavior and a human resource perspective. Levers to generate departmental brand citizenship are identified. In Chapter 4.5 the creation of departmental brand equity is discussed and an empirical study on the determinants of departmental brand equity is presented. Levers to generate departmental brand equity are identified. Chapter 4.6 presents the feedback step back to brand identity and highlights the continuous process of "gap-reduction" that is innate to branding. The complete model is presented in summary in Chapter 4.7.

With the departmental branding model proposed, in Chapter 5 the model is applied to the case study object of EHS at Siemens Healthineers in an action research case study. Chapter 5.1 outlines the action research case study approach before in Chapter 5.2 the Department of EHS is presented. The challenges for internal support functions derived from the literature in Chapter 2 are applied in Chapter 5.3 to define propositions to test the applicability of EHS as a case study object. Subsequently, the case study at EHS is explained in Chapter 5.4. highlighting the measures taken in the practical context. In Chapter 5.5 learnings are discussed as well as facilitators and barriers derived for the successful adoption of the departmental branding model in future research.

Chapter 6 intends to share critical reflections on the thesis. In Chapter 6.1 central results are collated. Chapter 6.2 describes implications from a science and managerial perspective. Chapter 6.3 outlines limitations and areas for further research.

Figure 1: Structure of thesis

1. Introduction

2. Internal support functions: characteristics and challenges

2.1 The organization, its subsystems and functions	2.2 Value creation in internal customer-supplier relationships	2.3 Organizational embedding and roles of internal support functions	2.4 Managing social acceptance: the concept of organizational legitimacy

2.5 Conclusion

3. Prerequisites for a departmental branding model

3.1 Evolutionary broadening of marketing	3.2 Evolutionary broadening of branding	3.3 Transfer to the departmental context

3.4 Conclusion

4. Departmental branding – a model to increase visibility and legitimacy

4.1 Relevance and contribution of the model

4.2 Structure for a departmental branding model

4.3 Creation of departmental brand identity	4.4. Employee branding	4.5 Creation of departmental brand equity	4.6 Feedback to departmental brand identity

4.7 Departmental branding model summary

5. Action-orientated case study at Siemens Healthineers

5.1 Action research study approach	5.2 Siemens Healthineers and the EHS Department	5.3 Investigating the challenges of the support function EHS	5.4 Implementation of departmental branding at EHS

5.5 Critical discussion

6. Critical reflection

6.1 Central results	6.2 Implications	6.3 Limitations and further research

2 Internal support functions: characteristics and challenges

This chapter examines the nature of internal support functions. By analyzing the way value is created in the internal customer-supplier relationship and putting into the context the organizational embedding of such functions. Together with the aspect of how to manage internal legitimacy this section concludes by answering the first research question:

RQ1: What are the specific characteristics and challenges of internal support functions?

2.1 The organization, its subsystems and functions

Over the past 100 years, economists, sociologists and business analysts have tried to explain the characteristics and dynamics of organizations. This has led to a broad and interdisciplinary field of organization theory concerned with the performance and survival of organizations, the impact of social organizations on the attitudes and behaviors of their members and vice versa, and the interaction of organizations with their environments (Pfeffer 1997; Scott 1987; Silverman 1970). In fact, the term “organization” may refer to two major meanings and usages. The first meaning was employed by the classicists of organizational theory, such as Henri Fayol, who defined organization as the overall process of managing things by forecasting, planning, coordinating and controlling them (Fayol 1949; Urwick 1976). The second stream that finally prevailed in organization theory regards the organization as a specific form of social group (Pfeiffer 1976). For instance, Pfeffer and Salancik (2003, p. 36) defined an organization as a “coalition of groups and interests, each attempting to obtain something from the collectivity by interacting with others, and each with its own preferences and objectives. The result of these interactions and exchanges is the collectivity we call the organization.”

Barnard (1968, p. 82) listed three conditions to set up organizations: “(1) there are persons able to communicate with each other (2) who are willing to contribute action (3) to accomplish a common purpose.” He added that for long-term existence an organization has to be effective and efficient, whereas the endurance of the organization depends on the free will of every organizational member to put efforts in the organization’s survival and progress. To maintain this willingness, it is mandatory to retain the goal and process satisfaction of every contributor and ensure that shared goals are achievable (Barnard 1968).

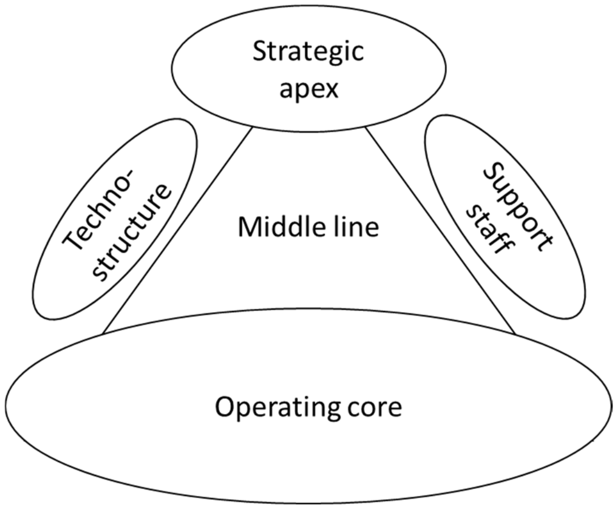
For instance, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) saw organizations through a social capital lens as institutional settings that are conducive to create and transfer knowledge. These knowledge systems, characterized by structured and coordinated expertise embedded in networks of relationships, may have a distinctive advantage over alternative arrangements such as markets. Following a classical system theory approach, the organization is made up of many different systems. These create together a larger connected system. It is a subordinate unit of a larger system that itself embraces subsidiary systems, such as specialized departments. In general terms, every system is tied together by its distinctive purpose and objective (Barnard 1962). Consequently, organizations are systems of interrelated human behaviors subdivided into specialized and distinct sub-units. They are charged with certain tasks and integrated with other sub-units of the system in order to ensure effective performance (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). These social systems are characterized by the arrangement, configuration and interdependencies of their functional units (Dubin 1963).

With respect to Mintzberg (1979), every sort of organized human activity requires two basic but opposing things. First, the division of labor separates the work process into a number of distinct tasks performed by specific subsystems. Second, coordination and integration mechanisms ensure unity among the subsystem's different activities and direct them towards the corporate goals. To cope effectively with their environments organizations need to find the right balance between differentiation and integration of their organizational parts (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). Mintzberg (1979) and Porter (1985) proposed a generic division of the organization in its major components. Both concepts are outlined in the following.

2.1.1 Mintzberg's basic parts of the organization

Mintzberg (1979, 1980, 1981) suggested a generic division of the service or manufacturing firm into five components called strategic apex, middle line, operating core, technostructure and support staff. These basic parts are illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Mintzberg's five basic components of the organization



Based on Mintzberg (1979, p. 20)

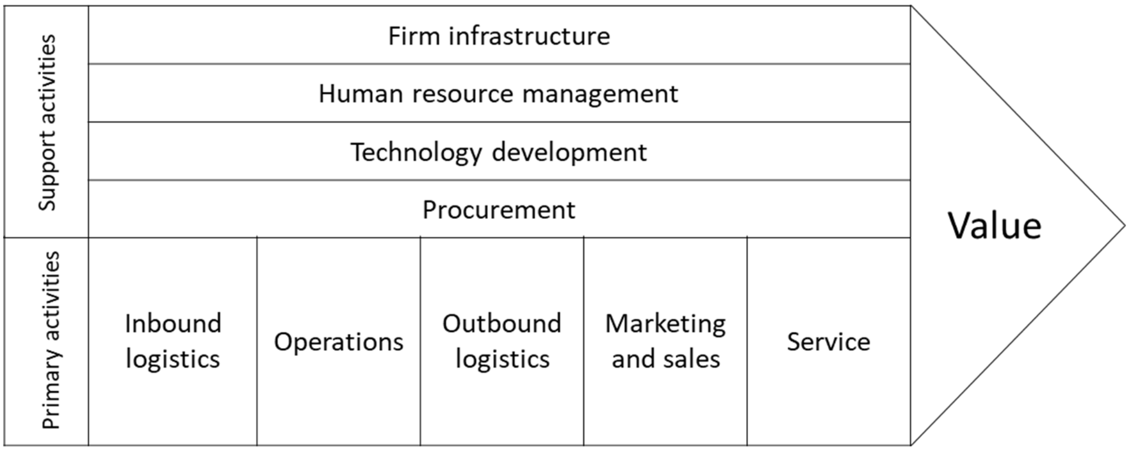
The strategic apex encompasses all top-level managers, as well as those who directly assist top management. The strategic apex is fully responsible for the business performance. It defines strategic directions and supervises operative business activities. Middle-line managers have managerial authority over the operating core and ensure that coordination mechanisms work along the line. Staff that performs operational tasks directly linked to the production of product or services is called the operating core. While the strategic apex, middle line and operating core belong to the more visible parts of an organization, the technostructure and the support staff, both detached from the operating work flow, are rather "actors behind-the-scene." Analysts and experts referred to as technostructure are mainly concerned with designing, planning and standardizing work flow to make processes more effective. Finally, the support staff is charged with providing internal services to other organizational units. Especially in large companies, a broad range of different internal services exists at all levels of hierarchy. Typical support units are public relations, research and development and the legal department. As they are acting largely autonomously and uncoupled from the core business, Mintzberg (1979, p. 32) referred to them as "mini organizations" or "organizations in an organization."

2.1.2 Porter's generic value chain model

In his book "Competitive Advantage" Porter (1985, 2004) introduced the value chain as a tool to understand the sources of competitive advantage by systematically splitting up and analyzing the firm's strategically important activities.

Along the value chain, he classifies the firm's activities into primary and support activities, as displayed in Figure 3. While primary activities relate directly to the production, distribution and maintenance of a product, support activities assist, maintain and enable all primary activities and comprise of activities such as research and development, human resources and quality control.

Figure 3: Porter's generic value chain



Based on Porter (2004, p. 37)

Primary activities comprise:

- **Inbound logistics:** Activities associated with receiving, storing and inventory control
- **Operations:** Activities associated with the production of the product, such as machining, packaging and testing
- **Outbound logistics:** Activities associated with storing and delivery of products
- **Marketing and sales:** Activities to support sales, such as advertising and pricing
- **Service:** Activities such as maintenance, repairing and training

Support activities comprise:

- **Firm infrastructure:** For example, general management, finance, legal and quality management activities
- **Human resource management:** Activities such as recruiting, training and employee development
- **Technology development:** Activities performed to improve production and processes, such as research, product design and innovation management
- **Procurement:** Activities that refer to purchasing and supply management

Porter (2004) further distinguishes three different activity types which appear among both primary and support activities. Direct activities such as assembly, product design or advertising are directly involved in the value creation process. Indirect activities such as administration or research are indirectly involved in value creation and pave the way to perform direct activities. Finally, quality assurance activities such as monitoring, testing and reviewing are essential to meet quality requirements. Due to their hidden contribution to customer value, indirect and quality assurance activities are often perceived to be less relevant in terms of gaining competitive advantage. Porter points out that both activities can produce significant costs and are worth reviewing due to their high impact on direct activities.

Porter's value chain can be seen as a "two-level generic taxonomy" that distinguishes activities which bring direct value to the customer and those activities which bring indirect value by enabling and supporting those primary activities (Stabell and Fjeldstad 1998). Other authors have also used a similar two-level classification (Chalvron and Curien 1978; Stabell 1982). More recent publications refer to Porter's value chain as a tool to identify and specify internal support activities they call "internal services" (Beer 1997; Pahl-Schönbein 2011). Porter's original value chain was set in the traditional manufacturing context and has been criticized for neglecting the value creation logic of service firms. This gave rise to a number of revised models for service contexts that take into account Porter's classification into primary and support activities. Whereas the primary activities in these models are adjusted to reflect the service delivery process, support activities and functions such as human resources or other management activities such as planning, finance, etc. are basically the same in manufacturing and in service companies (Armistead and Clark 1993; Flecker, Haidinger, and Schönauer 2013; Stabell and Fjeldstad 1998).

In summary, Mintzberg and Porter provided two different concepts to divide the firm into its major components. Whereas Mintzberg focused his classification on the functioning and structuring of organizations, Porter concentrated on mapping and analyzing direct and indirect value creation processes. However, both authors examined and emphasized the role of the so-called "support staff" and "support activities." They agreed that support functions and support activities substantially influence business performance although their value contribution is often hard to perceive. In fact, there are several publications addressing the challenge of typical support functions such as IT, Marketing or HR of being less visible and underappreciated within the firm (Alonso et al. 2015; Menon 2012; O'Sullivan and Abela 2007; Park et al. 2012; Vosburgh 2007).

2.1.3 Internal support activities as internal services

This section examines the nature of the support activities performed by internal support functions.

Internal support functions perform activities and operations to support other organizational entities of the same firm. In literature these support activities are referred to as “internal service operations” or “internal services.” For instance, Davis (1991, p. 5) stated: “Internal service operations are behind-the-scenes routines, procedures, and activities that provide the necessary support to the company's more visible functions.” According to Bruhn (1999), all secondary activities (support activities), no matter if they directly or indirectly create value to the customer, can be defined as internal services. However, the term internal is not exclusively used for describing the activities of internal support functions. For instance, Vandermerwe and Gilbert (1991, p. 59) refer to internal services as “all services received within the firm. Every function provides some form of internal service, for example, a sales department providing product design information to research and development.”

To understand the nature of internal services, the term “service” is specified in the following.

There have been various attempts to capture the nature of services. While enumerative definitions classify services by listing examples, negative definitions describe what is not included in the term of service such as buildings, furniture and products are not services. However, neither definitions are not fully appropriate to explain the distinctive characteristics of services (Corsten and Gössinger 2007; Haller 2012). For this reason, a number of authors try to gain more clarity about the nature of services by isolating service characteristics from product characteristics (Berry 1980; Grönroos 1978; Haller 2012, p. 9; Lehmann 1995, p. 21; Shostack 1977; Zeithaml 1991). This is elaborated in the following paragraphs.

There are four characteristics of services that are consistently listed in literature (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985).

1) Intangibility

Probably the most critical distinction between goods and services is the intangible nature of services (Berry 1980; Grönroos 1978; Shostack 1977; Upah 1980). For instance, Bateson (1979, p. 39) argued that intangibility is the most distinctive feature that all other characteristics are based on. Since services cannot be counted, measured, tested, seen, felt or touched in the same way as goods can be, they are described as “deeds,” “acts” or “performances” rather than as physical objects (Berry 1980; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985).

2) Simultaneity and inseparability of production and consumption

Second, services are characterized by the simultaneity and inseparability of production and consumption. The customer is directly involved in the process of production and, in many cases, has to be attendant during the service delivery process (Carman and Langeard 1980). In contrast to goods, which are generally first produced, sold and consumed, services are first sold and then produced and consumed at the same time (Regan 1963). These differences have substantially affected marketing conceptualizations, since service providers cannot split up the marketing process into the traditional marketing mix variables developed for goods marketing (Grönroos 1978). As a result, quality evaluations of services are related to the relational interactions during the service production process (Grönroos 1984) and vary from customer to customer and supplier to supplier, even if the same actors are involved multiple times (Onkvisit and Shaw 1989).

3) Heterogeneity

Due to the fact that each customer-supplier interaction is unique, context specific, inimitable and cannot be standardized or mass-produced, services are characterized by a high degree of heterogeneity (Rathmell 1966; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985).

4) Perishability

A last characteristic often referred to in literature is the perishability of services. Services cannot be stored to meet future demands, they are time and place dependent (Donnelly 1976; Onkvisit and Shaw 1989; Sasser 1976).

Due to the specific characteristics of services, service quality is more difficult to assess than product quality (Kuei 1999; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985). While goods can be easily determined prior to purchasing or consumption due to its search qualities such as color or price, services are hard to evaluate in advance. Experience qualities refer to the attributes of products and services that can be assessed during or after consumption. These include, for example, taste, satisfaction or durability. Even if services become more concrete in the moment they are consumed, in most cases, they remain difficult to evaluate because specific knowledge or expertise would be required to do so. Consequently, services are high in credence qualities (Heskett, Sasser, Jr., and Hart 1990; Nelson 1974; Zeithaml 1991).

In summary it can be said that internal services take place during relational interactions, are highly intangible, subjective and hard to measure. The difficulty to assess services and to put their outcome into objective numbers may be of the major challenges internal support functions are faced with.

2.2 Value creation in internal customer-supplier relationships

This section describes the way support functions create value through interacting with other organizational units. These units can be regarded as their internal customers.

2.2.1 Internal customer-supplier relationships as forms of cooperation

This section focuses on the concept of the internal customer and internal service quality to describe the individual aspect of the relationships between support functions and their internal customers.

The concept of internal customer-supplier relationships has emerged from total quality management (TQM) literature and later found its way into service and internal marketing literature (Finn et al. 1996; Grönroos 1982; Mohr-Jackson 1991). It is based on the premise that everyone within the organization has an internal customer. The TQM tenet is reflected in diverse definitions of the internal customer. They are illustrated in Table 1.

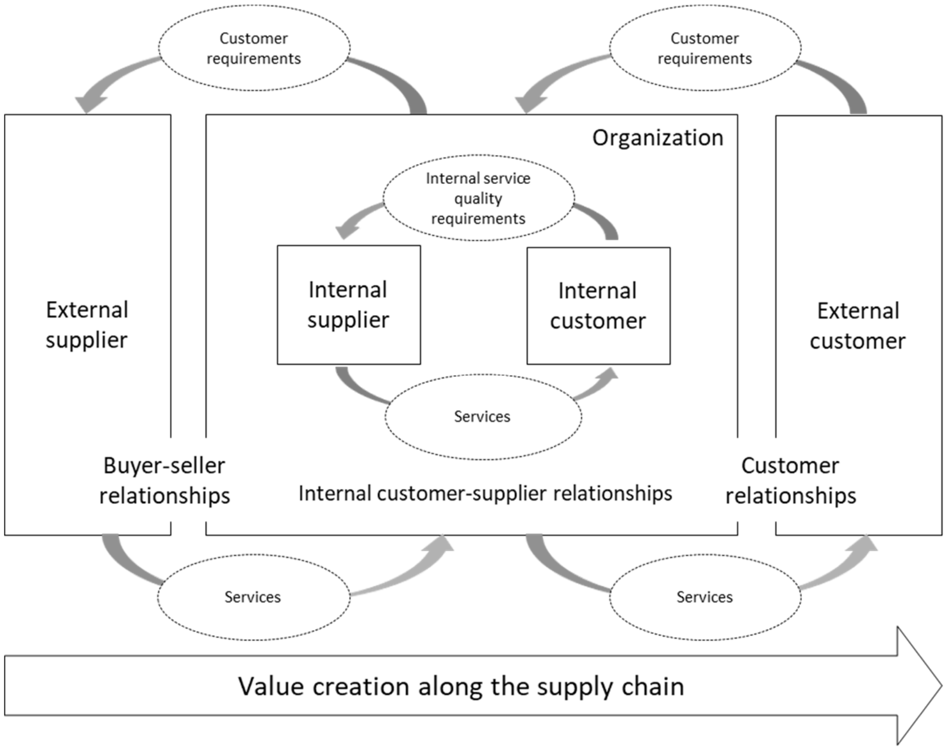
Table 1: Definitions of the internal customer

Sources	**Definitions**
Ishikawa (1985, p. 107)	"The next process is your customer."
Ratcliffe-Smith and Brooks (1993, p. 41)	"Next operation as customer."
Nagel and Cilliers (1990, p. 4)	"Within any company there are numerous situations in which departments and persons supply products to each other. The recipients are often called internal customers, despite the fact that they are not customers in the real sense."
Gremler, Bitner, and Evans (1995, p. 28)	"An internal customer is anyone in an organization who is supplied with products or services by others in the organization."
Marshall, Baker, and Finn (1998, p. 383)	"[I]nternal customers are paid, professional consumers of the services they use."
Juran (1999, p. 2.3)	"Customer: Anyone who is affected by the product or by the process used to produce the product. Customers may be external or internal."
Mohr-Jackson (1991, p. 459)	"[A] customer includes anyone with whom an employee has a job-related relationship."

Following the TQM logic, the definition of the internal customer is a matter of perspective. The employee is called internal customer when he receives a service from a peer. Conversely, he takes on the role of the internal supplier when he provides a service to a peer. This implies that employees may act as customers and suppliers depending on whether they receive or provide services (Bouranta, Chitiris, and Paravantis 2009). For example, the marketing department acts as an internal supplier of research and development when providing information on market requirements and assumes the role of the internal customer when receiving technology based information from research and development (Hauser, Simester, and Wernerfelt 1996).

From a value chain perspective, business processes in internal and external markets are split into many little sub-processes, linked together for the purpose of serving the external customer (Brandon-Jones and Silvestro 2010). As Figure 4 illustrates, there are different forms of relationships along the value chain. When external suppliers serve the firm, these relationships are called “buyer-seller relationships” or “business-to-business relationships” (Jelinek 2014; Madupalli, Pannirselvam, and Williams 2014). Within the firm, relationships among employees who receive and provide internal services are called “internal customer-supplier relationships.” Relationships directed from the firm to the final external customer are “customer relationships” or “customer-supplier relationships” (Lacoste and Johnsen 2015; Rudawska 2011).

Figure 4: Different customer-supplier relationships along the supply chain



Within the value chain, each unit acts as an independent producer turning input into output (Finn et al. 1996). Thus, each entity in a downstream process stage is called a "customer," whereas each entity in an upstream process is called a "supplier" (Hauser, Simester, and Wernerfelt 1996). For instance, Ratcliffe-Smith and Brooks (1993, p. 41) refer to the network of interconnected customer and suppliers as "next operation as customer." This includes customers along the flow of work as well as customers vertical to the management chain. Accordingly, services at the same hierarchical level are called "peer services," service to a higher hierarchical level are called "boss service" and services along the supply chain are called "workflow services" (Stauss 2010, p. 35,39).

Services are delivered during the interactions of service providers and service recipients. As a consequence, the recipient evaluates service quality mainly depending on his relationship with the supplier (Reynoso and Moores 1995). Parasuraman and Zeithaml (1994, p. 202) defined service quality "as the degree of discrepancy between customers' normative expectations for the service and their perceptions of the service performance." Taking this perspective, the customer and not the supplier determines service quality (Finn et al. 1996). Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) claimed that most determinants of service quality are experience-based and are unknown in advance to service consumption. They include: courtesy, reliability, responsiveness, understanding, knowing the customer and communication. Similar determinants have been identified by other researchers in terms of internal service quality (Brandon-Jones and Silvestro 2010; Hallowell, Schlesinger, and Zornitsky 1996; Kang, Jame, and Alexandris 2002; Kuei 1999; Minjoon Jun and Shaohan Cai 2010; Pantouvakis 2011; Reynoso and Moores 1995; Vanniarajan and Subbash Babu 2011). For example, Kuei (1999) explored four intangible service quality factors: reliability, empathy, assurance and responsiveness. Reynoso and Moores (1995) proposed ten dimensions of internal service quality. They are briefly described in the Table 2.

Table 2: Internal service quality dimensions

Internal service quality dimension	**Descriptions**
Helpfulness	The willingness of the unit to help in a courteous and approachable manner
Promptness	The ability to provide the service promptly and to respond rapidly to service requests
Communication	Keeping the internal customer informed about progress, problems or changes which may impact his activities
Tangibles	The condition and physical appearance of facilities, equipment, materials and written information of the internal supplier
Professionalism	The skills, knowledge and experience that members of the unit require to provide the service and to give advice
Reliability	The ability of the unit to provide the internal service required on time and correctly, including the provision of accurate information
Confidentiality	The unit's handling of confidential information and delicate situations
Flexibility	The willingness of the unit to respond flexibly to unexpected situations
Preparedness	The resources required by the unit to be able to provide the service
Consideration	The understanding, recognition, trust, and honesty of the unit towards the internal customer

In contrast to goods, services are consumed and produced simultaneously and thus are created by way of interpersonal relations (Zeithaml 1991). Close collaboration between the relationship partners is central to meet the customer's expectations and to enhance service quality (Fredendall, Hopkins, and Bhonsle 2005; Minjoon Jun and Shaohan Cai 2010). This is true for internal as well as for external relationships (Jap 1999).

However, internal customer-supplier relationships are special ones, since both actors perform in the same social system and are exposed to similar working conditions, share similar information and might even have identical superiors. The internal customer is a colleague and a customer in one person. In contrast to the external customer, he may have better access to information and knowledge about the supplier and thus tend to evaluate performance in a more subjective manner (Nagel and Cilliers 1990). Another difference between external and internal customer-supplier relationships may exist in terms of the level of dependency from the supplier. An example of this is when there is a supplier monopoly and internal customers have no alternatives to access services. In this case the internal customer may be highly dependent on the benevolence of the supplier. In turn, the supplier might not be motivated to provide high quality services because the customer cannot make any demands and has to accept what he is provided with. The supplier might adopt the attitude that the internal customer is paid to support him. Further, dissatisfied internal customers are often not taken as seriously as dissatisfied external customers. This can result in poor efforts to improve internal processes and service quality (Marshall, Baker, and Finn 1998; Nagel and Cilliers 1990; Velitchkova 2003).

In summary, the relationships between support functions and their internal customers are special ones. Their peculiarities should be taken into account when concepts based on classical firm-customer relationships are transferred to internal customer-relationships (Velitchkova 2003).

2.2.2 Value creation in internal customer-supplier relationships

This section examines how internal support functions create value in relationships with their internal customers. It intends to identify the nature of value created by support functions.

Value creation is a frequently discussed topic in marketing and management literature and as such has not been a stable concept over time (Bagozzi 1975; Grönroos 2012; Spiteri and Dion 2004; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008). In the traditional goods-dominant logic, suppliers make resources available for customers to use and manage in their own process of value creation. The supplier is concerned with producing goods that meet the needs of the customers. In contrast, the service logic that prevails in the contemporary marketing and management literature argues for further-reaching responsibility for and commitment to the customer's everyday needs and concerns. The supplier provides an "extended service offering" that goes beyond the supply of services or goods and ultimately enables and supports the customer in creating value (Grönroos 2011a). Grönroos and Ravald (2009) deem this as the "value facilitation" task undertaken by the supplier. Similarly, the customer is no longer a passive recipient of goods, instead he is an active and participating co-creator of value who engages himself in the supplier's processes (Auh et al. 2007a; Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb, and Inks 2000). Rather than embedded in the product, value is created throughout customer-supplier relationships (Grönroos 2000; Vargo and Lusch 2004). In other words, customers and suppliers co-create value when interacting with each other (C.K. Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004a; Wikström 1996). The definitions of the internal customer as provided by Table 1 reflect more the traditional goods-centered dominant logic since the customer is defined as a recipient of goods or services. In contrast, the service-centered dominant logic acknowledges the customer as a co-producer of services (Vargo and Lusch 2004). The following discussion emphasizes the importance of both concepts for the creation of value in internal customer-supplier relationships.

While it is now widely acknowledged that value is derived and determined in its use rather than it its exchange (Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Grönroos 2006; Vargo and Lusch 2004; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008), the question of what value really is tends to remain a philosophical one (Grönroos 2011a). In general, customer value is defined as the tradeoff between what the customer receives (e.g. goods, quality, emotions) and what the customer sacrifices (e.g. prices, time) (Butz Jr. and Goodstein 1996; Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo 2007; Zeithaml 1988). More generally, value for the customer is generated when he feels better after the value creation process than before (Grönroos 2008; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008).

Since the 1990s, extensive research has resulted in a multitude of different meanings and perspectives on the concept of perceived value (Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo 2007; Spiteri and Dion 2004). For instance, the theory of "consumption value" refers to value embedded in the product. For instance, Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991) categorize value into five different types of value. Social value is based on positive associations with the product, congruent with the social value system the consumer intends to project. The functional value is delivered by the functional, utilitarian or physical attributes of the product. Emotional value is related to the positive feelings and affective states associated with consumption. Epistemic value is generated when the product satisfies the consumer's desire for knowledge. Finally, conditional value refers to value enhanced by antecedent physical or social contingencies. Other representants of the consumption value theory such as Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) differentiate utilitarian value, based on functional and rational value of shopping, and hedonic value, which is reflected by the subjective and emotional worth. Likewise, Danaher and Mattsson (1994) refer to an emotional, practical and logical value dimension, demonstrating that all three are antecedents to customer satisfaction.

Literature on business relationships emphasizes value as linked to economic and social benefits for both sellers and buyers (Clements 2009; Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh 1987; Grönroos 2011a). Lindgreen and Wynstra (2005) identified two major streams of research. The first one focuses on value delivered through the exchange of goods and services as described by transaction cost theory (Cannon and Perreault Jr. 1999; Heide and John 1992; Williamson 1981). This stream reflects the goods-dominant logic, in which value is embedded in goods and value is generated through exchanges ("value-in-exchange") (Vargo and Lusch 2004). This perspective is adopted in earlier publications on value in business relationships (Anderson, Jain, and Chintagunta 1993; Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh 1987). For instance, Anderson, Jain, and Chintagunta (1993, p. 5) defined value in business markets "as the perceived worth in monetary units of the set of economic, technical, service and social benefits received by a customer firm in exchange for the price paid for a product offering, taking into consideration the available alternative suppliers' offerings and prices."

More recent literature reflects the service-dominant logic and indicates the second stream (Lindgreen and Wynstra 2005). It deals with value embedded in the relational interactions of buyers and sellers, such as credibility, continuity and security (Clements 2009; Ravald and Grönroos 1996; Schertzer, Schertzer, and Dwyer 2013; Srinivasan and Srivastava 2012). Value created in buyer-seller relationships tends to be a combination of economic and social values. For instance, Grönroos (2011a) divides customer value into three dimension. First, the support of the supplier delivers value in terms of effects on the customer's growth and revenue-generating capacity. This includes business growth opportunities and higher margins through premium prices. Second, value can be added on the customer's cost level, such as lower operative or administrative costs. Third, value is generated based upon the customer's perceptions during interactions with the supplier. This includes increased trust in the supplier's actions, increased commitment to the supplier, increased comfort during supplier interactions, and increased attraction of the supplier. Walter, Ritter, and Gemüden (2001) address similar value dimensions from the supplier's perspective. The profit function of a buyer-seller relationship helps to create supplier sustainability by retaining profitable customers. The volume function refers to the benefits provided by customers who purchase large numbers of the supplier's products. Lastly, the safeguard function is related to improvement of cost-efficiency and the reduction of uncertainties of the supplier.

Clements (2009) agrees that value in business relationships results from transactions and/ or from ongoing relationships. He identifies value for both business partners in terms of:

- Reduction of transaction costs
- Reduction of uncertainty
- Increased trust and commitment
- Mutual development

Generally speaking, partners tend to engage in one-time exchanges and individual transactions when economic self-interests rule and relational value is of minor importance. On the other hand, when the anticipated social and economic consequences of mutual value creation increase, for instance, due to mutual goals or social proximity, partners are likely to invest in long-term relationships (Gassenheimer, Houston, and Davis 1998). While economic value perspective is based on transaction cost theory (Bowen and Jones 1986; Williamson 1981) and marketing exchange theory (Bagozzi 1975, 1978), the social value perspective is reflected by social exchange theory (Blau 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005).

However, co-creation, understood as the joint creation of value rather than the exchange of economic or social values, requires time for the relationships to develop. The longer and more intimately both partners collaborate, the more they may develop shared understandings, trust and commitment that result in successive, satisfactory exchange, and the more likely they will begin to co-create value (Schertzer, Schertzer, and Dwyer 2013). Although the concept of co-creation articulated by the service-dominant logic has evolved into a contemporary understanding of value creation in partnerships (Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Dong, Evans, and Zou 2008; Grönroos 2011b; Lusch and Vargo 2014), it may not occur in every kind of relationship. Moreover, the perceived value in a business partnership depends on both partners and the nature of their relationship (e.g. short-term versus long-term) (Avery, Fournier, and Wittenbraker 2014; Clements 2009).

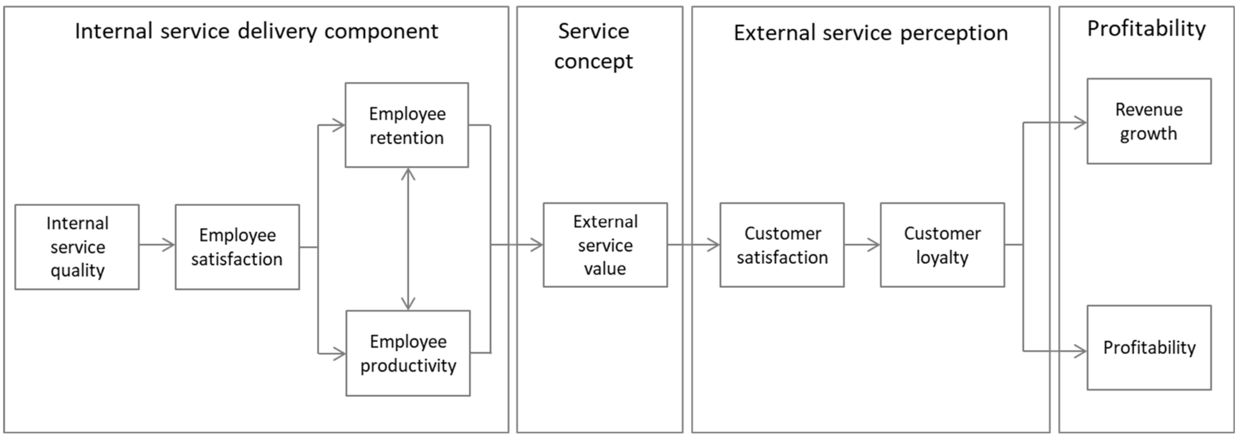
While the service-dominant emphasized the co-creation of value with respect to the external customer (Vargo and Lusch 2004), little attention has been paid to other stakeholders as co-creators of value, such as the internal customer (Grace and Lo Iacono 2015a; Ramaswamy and Gouillart 2010). One reason for this might be that the concepts of internal customer-supplier relationships and internal service quality were in their prime in the 1990s (Butz Jr. and Goodstein 1996; Conduit and Mavondo 2001; Farner, Luthans, and Sommer 2001; Finn et al. 1996; Hallowell, Schlesinger, and Zornitsky 1996; Hauser, Simester, and Wernerfelt 1996; Marshall, Baker, and Finn 1998; Mohr-Jackson 1991; Nagel and Cilliers 1990; Pfau, Detzel, and Geller 1991). In contrast, the concept of co-creation is a relatively new approach that came up beginning of the 2000s (Grönroos 2012; Hatch and Schultz 2010; Ind, Iglesias, and Schultz 2013; Lambert and Enz 2012; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008).

By reviewing existing literature on internal customer-supplier relationships, most of the publications listed above reflect the "value-in-exchange" logic. By this logic, value is created by successive, transactional exchanges. This is particularly evident in the article of Finn et al. (1996, p. 37), saying " our approach is to view internal customer service as a two-way exchange process between individuals in different functional departments of a firm, in which the provider is charged with responding to the needs of his/her internal customer." Nevertheless, it is argued that these two-way exchanges of internal customers and suppliers are likely to result in co-creation, when both partners establish mutual trust and understanding, manage to align expectations, and jointly develop and revise value propositions (Ballantyne and Varey 2006; Lambert and Enz 2012).

As mentioned before, internal customer-relationships are distinctive, since both actors are part of the same social system. For example, they may work under similar conditions, may share similar values, trust each other since they are colleagues who have known each other for many years and have already collaborated in several projects. It would seem that co-creation among "colleagues" happens much easier than among employees and their external customer. However, as shown by the following Section 2.2.3 cross-functional alignment can be a challenge, especially in large and diversified companies. Internal customers and suppliers may also act at different levels of the hierarchy or may have conflicting goals due to their different roles within the organization. In any case, there are internal and external relationships in which co-creation is a more favorable concept rather than the value-in-exchange concept. This depends on the partners' roles and the degree of their alignment (Ballantyne and Varey 2006; Clements 2009).

To understand the value contribution of internal support functions in a wider context, the process of value creation is explained along the service-profit chain, as it is understood in TQM. It is displayed in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Value creation along the service-profit chain



Based on Heskett et al. (1994, p. 120)

This service-profit chain links the internal value creation process with the external value creation process. Internal value is created when services delivered to internal customers raise internal service quality and leads to satisfied, productive and loyal employees. External value is created when profit and growth are stimulated by satisfied and loyal customers who have been provided with high quality services (Heskett et al. 1994, 2008; Sharif 2009; Yee et al. 2009). As in business-to-business relationships, value generated in internal customer-relationships can be classified into economic or social dimensions (Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh 1987; Gassenheimer, Houston, and Davis 1998; Grönroos 2011a). Economic value relates to the firm's performance, output or final offerings and is measurable in most cases. For example, internal services provided by support functions may enhance productivity and process efficiency, reduce costs or create new cases of product innovation (Vandermerwe and Gilbert 1991). In contrast, social value reflects the value generated through interpersonal interactions. It is difficult to quantify because it depends on the subjective perceptions of both partners. Examples for social value are trust, commitment, loyalty, perceived support and guidance and legitimacy (Doney and Cannon 1997; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Wilson 1998).

Although social value is hard to capture, it directly influences the generation of economic value. This is shown in a simplified way by the service profit chain (Figure 5). Employee satisfaction and loyalty, determined by internal customer-supplier interactions, can raise perceived service quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty, ultimately leading to organizational profitability (Yee et al. 2009). The social value of relationships is emphasized in various articles on relationship marketing (Barnes, Fox, and Morris 2004; Berry 1995; Ravald and Grönroos 1996).

In summary, support functions tend to co-create value during their social interactions with their internal customers. The value created by support functions can be characterized as having a social and economic component. The social component of value (e.g. trust, commitment, perceived support) is highly subjective and hard to measure. The economic component refers to the value facilitation task (support task) of the support functions that ultimately generates economic value for the firm (e.g. revenue growth and profitability). However, it is difficult to associate the specific economic value the internal support functions contributes and therefore is difficult to measure.

2.2.3 Alignment as a prerequisite of creating value in cross-functional relationships

This section deals with the need of internal support function to align with other organizational units in order to create value.

Economically successful organizations are both highly differentiated and well-integrated (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). While differentiation refers to the organization's segmentation into its subsystems for developing specialized attributes, "integration is defined as the process of achieving unity of effort among the various subsystems in the accomplishment of the organization's task" (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967, p. 4). A high need for internal alignment has been identified for organizational units whose activities are highly interdependent with the activities of other organizational units. This is applies for internal support functions. As stated by Pardo, Ivens, and Wilson (2013, p. 1076), “Their mere existence depends upon their interaction with other units because their tasks are highly transversal or cross-functional.”

Various authors have addressed the concept of alignment, which has led to different understandings and types of alignment. For instance, Barki and Pinsonneault (2005) distinguish “operational integration” and “functional integration” by referring to Porter’s (1985) classification of primary and support activities in the firm’s value chain. While operational integration deals with “the integration of successive stages within the primary process chain (workflow) of a firm,” functional integration refers to “the integration of administrative or support activities of the process chain of the company” (Barki and Pinsonneault, 2005, p. 168). For example, functional integration can leverage inter-functional synergies and encourage product innovation performance (Barki and Pinsonneault 2005; De Luca and Atuahene-Gima 2007). Corsaro and Snehota (2011) refer to three different types of alignment: cognitive alignment, alignment of practices and alignment in goals. For example, cognitive alignment concerns the alignment between cognitive views or perception, such as a shared market view (Storbacka and Nenonen 2011). Cognitive alignment with respect to the actors’ perceptions and interpretations of the business context is critical to relational exchanges, because it facilitates communication and knowledge transfer (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998).

More recently, Pardo, Ivens, and Wilson (2013) explored seven dimensions of alignment they adapted from the works of Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) and March and Simon (1958). These dimensions serve to analyze the degree of differentiation between organizational units. They allow to conclude, for instance, how much a support function is aligned with other subunits they supply. Support functions that are aligned with their internal customers may be better able to create value for the firm since the “achieved unity of efforts” serves the accomplishment of the firm’s tasks (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967, p. 4). As Barki and Pinsonneault put it (2005, p. 172), the “integration of secondary process chain activities of a firm is likely to lead to greater organizational effectiveness.”

The proposed dimensions of internal alignment are summarized below.

- **Structural formalization:** Depending on their environment, subsystems in organizations develop different degrees of structure. Structure is defined by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967, p. 5) as “those aspects of behavior in organizations subject to pre-existing programs and controls.” A high degree of formalized structure (mechanistic) reflects uncertain and changing environments, a low degree of formalized structure (organic) reflects stable and certain environments (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967).

- **Orientation toward others:** To cope with their subsystem, members develop certain cognitive and affective orientations. They are reflected by the member's orientation towards either task accomplishment or social relationships. Subsystems of environments with moderate certainty will probably have more members with interpersonal orientations. In contrast, individuals will be more task-oriented in uncertain environments (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967).
- **Time orientation:** Reflects the time span of feedback from the sub-environment. Members of subsystems are either short-term or long-term oriented. For instance, a production subsystem may give prompt feedback, whereas R&D departments require a long-term orientation (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967).
- **Goal orientation:** Organizational units develop distinct goals to cope with their particular sub-environment. For example, marketing managers are concerned with customers and competitors, while manufacturing managers are concerned with production processes (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967).
- **Linguistic or semantic orientation:** Is related to the development of specific languages and semantic meanings in subsystems. Specialized languages may impair the relations between subunits (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967).
- **Motivational orientations:** E.g. towards achievements, power or social rewards (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). Motivations of subunits are reflected by the individual objectives of their members, for example, striving for financial performance, reputation or approval (Pardo, Ivens, and Wilson 2013).
- **Requisite integration:** Is related to the degree of a sub-unit's autonomy in operations and decision-making. Alignment of two subsystems is more difficult to achieve the greater the degree of requisite integration (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967; March and Simon 1958).

When analyzing the degree of differentiation between internal support functions and their internal customers along the proposed dimensions, it can be stated that there may be low levels of differentiation between support functions and other organizational units with a similar organizational set-up (e.g. other support functions). On the other hand, there might be high levels of differentiation when comparing internal support functions with operative units performing primary activities (e.g. sales). For example, a sales department maybe driven by financial performance and may have a more short-term schedule, while internal support functions strive for power or social rewards and tend toward long-term orientation. It can be concluded that support functions need to find ways to overcome negative gaps of alignment with particular internal customers to create value for the firm.

> Barki and Pinsonneault (2005, p. 170) say: "greater integration reflects increased cooperation and communication among the different parts of the firm and as such reflects a higher level of order or organization. Thus, it is reasonable to think that if an organization wants to increase the extent to which its different parts are responsive to each other and work together as a coordinated whole, some effort will be needed."

Different measures have been discussed in literature to facilitate integration. They include, for instance, management hierarchy, direct inter-unit contact, management control systems, inter-unit committees and task forces or integrative organizational units (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967; Mintzberg 1979). Other authors have discussed supervision, planning, mutual adjustment, and different forms of standardization such as skills and knowledge standardization and work standardization as possible ways to overcome inter-departmental discrepancies (Barki and Pinsonneault 2005; Glouberman and Mintzberg 2001).

Another alignment framework proposed by Snow et al. (1986) relies on support for and participation instead of measures based on hierarchical power that force organizational units to adhere. These alignment processes comprises, for example, efforts to develop shared interests, values, beliefs activities and goals. Snow et al. (1986) proposed four different types of alignment processes that were adopted by Pardo, Ivens, and Wilson (2013) for the integration of new marketing units within the pre-existing organization. They can relevant to achieve greater integration of internal support functions. They are briefly described in Table 3.

Table 3: Types of frame alignment processes

Types of frame alignment processes	Descriptions
Frame bridging	- Refers to the alignment of people and organizational units - Links congruent but structurally unconnected frames through information diffusion - Individuals that share similar interests, but lack a common organizational base are brought together through networks or means of communication
Frame amplification	- Intends to clarify and reinforce selected values or beliefs to create a common basis of identification - Deals with providing specific information, articulating and expressing certain values to mobilize pre-existing preference structures
Frame extension	- Enlarge frameworks by adhering to the values and engaging in the interests and programs of potential adherents - Goes beyond frame amplification, since it includes direct participation in movement activities
Frame transformation	- Is the most radical alignment process, since it redefines the framework to respond to potential adherents - This includes ignoring old meanings and understandings and set up new values and rituals to attain support

In summary, support functions create value for the firm if they are aligned with their internal customers. Support functions that differentiate strongly from their internal customers, for instance in their goal orientation, should consider alignment practices to overcome these gaps.

2.3 Organizational embedding and roles of internal support functions

This section deals with the organizational embedding of internal support functions and the specific roles they adopt due to their structural configuration. Particular emphasis is placed on centrally organized support functions, since they are object of investigation in the action-oriented case study in Chapter 5.

2.3.1 Organizational embedding of internal support functions

Organizational forms and structures provide a hierarchical framework and guidance to all organizational members on how tasks are distributed, delegated and coordinated to achieve organizational goals (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). Generally, there are two ways to structure internal support functions in divisionalized firms. They can be concentrated in headquarters, dispersed to the divisions or both.

> Citing Mintzberg (1979, p. 392): "The location of support services – their concentration in headquarters or dispersal to the divisions – is a major design issue for the Divisionalized Form. Services that must be geared to the needs of single divisions, those that must be located in physically convenient places, and those that are relatively easy to duplicate – as in the case of a market research group, a cafeteria, and a public relations unit, respectively – are typically dispersed to the divisions (and are sometimes duplicated at headquarters). But coordinated services that must be offered across the range of divisions, or those that must be provided at the common strategic apex, are concentrated in single units at headquarters."

In summary, support functions that serve more local needs are dispersed to the divisions. Their tasks can be designated as "secondary tasks of the divisions." Support functions that are concentrated at the top perform "secondary tasks of the executive management." They include tasks such as supporting and advising top management in decision making, coordinating and monitoring operative business activities with formal authority (governance) and promoting information exchange among business units (Frese, v. Werder, and Maly 1993). Support functions can exclusively support top management (e.g. the strategic group management), or the divisions (e.g. the controlling department of the division). In fact, secondary tasks of the top management and secondary tasks of the divisions are often assigned to one unit. This can be an efficient way to bundle and centralize competencies. However, these functions may find it hard to balance interests coming from both directions (Frese, v. Werder, and Maly 1993; Kieser and Kubicek 1992).

In conclusion, support functions grouped at headquarter have a larger distance to their internal customers at divisional level. They are physically and emotionally far away from the operational business. This involves the danger that they get disconnected from their internal customers and face difficulties to respond flexibly to operative changes (Arbeitskreis Dr. Krähe der Schmalenbach-Gesellschaft 1952).

This distance can also cause stereotyping. Corporate headquarter functions are likely to be confronted with stereotyping, since they may represent a high-status group within the organization (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Reade 2001; Wieseke et al. 2012). Stereotypes are oversimplified views and beliefs about the characteristics and attributes of groups and the behaviors of their members (Hilton and von Hippel 1996). Although stereotypes facilitate information processing since they refer to knowledge that is already stored (Macrae, Milne, and Bodenhausen 1994), they tend to be exaggerated and overgeneralized (Krueger et al. 2008; Swim 1994). Stereotyping is closely linked to the social identification theory (Costarelli and Callà 2007; De Cremer 2001). People identify with groups by categorizing themselves into in-group members and out-group members. Thus, stereotyping is a process of (negatively) judging the out-group by comparing it to the in-group. While dissociating themselves from other groups, people identify with the group they belong to and which they perceive as a source of self-esteem (Caprariello, Cuddy, and Fiske 2009; Sluss and Ashforth 2008). Citing Ashforth and Mael (1989, p. 30) "a low-status group (such as a noncritical staff function or cadre of middle managers) may go to great lengths to differentiate itself from a high-status comparison group (such as critical line function or senior management)." Headquarter functions are potential target groups for stereotyping since they might be perceived, due to their specific organizational embedding, authority, roles and tasks, as an elite group (Wieseke et al. 2012). Negative stereotypes might cause severe problems for organizations or functions, such as reducing employer attractiveness (Enns, Thomas W., and Prasad 2006) or difficulties to gain legitimacy (Tyler 2006).

2.3.2 Roles of centralized support functions

According to their specific organizational embedding and tasks, centralized support functions adopt certain roles. This section deals with the specific roles of centralized support functions.

Roles are "organized sets of behaviors" (Mintzberg 1975, p. 54) or "behavior patterns" (Biddle 1986, p. 67). In role theory, individuals are members of "social positions" with expectations of their own role and the roles of others. Accordingly, roles indicate the individual's relationships within a specific social context (Biddle 1986; Steimann 2000; Winship and Mandel 1983). For instance, Mintzberg (1979) identified five roles associated with the headquarter function. They are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Roles of headquarter functions

Roles	**Descriptions**
Entrepreneur	Sets up strategies, manages the strategic portfolio and has the power to set up or close divisions
Resource allocator	Allocates financial resources amongst the divisions
Controller	Sets up key performance indicators and measures to check if financial targets have been reached by the divisions
Recruiter	Selects appropriate division manager and ensures if they are able to run businesses
Supervisor	Stays in close contact with the divisions to anticipate and solve problems and monitor performance
Supporter	Provides support and services to the divisions

These roles indicate that headquarter functions can take on different roles. Some of them (e.g. supervisor vs. supporter) can be conflicting.

A related but even more detailed role classification was proposed by Eisenstat (1990) in Frese, v. Werder, and Maly (1993). As illustrated in Table 5, he assigned twelve distinctive roles overall to the "corporate staff."

Table 5: Central functions and their roles

Relationships types / Role types	Top management and division	Division and division	Central function and division	Company and environment
Regulatory role	**Corporate guardian** Monitors compliance with company guidelines	**Referee** Ensures alignment between divisions	**Input control** Ensures that information from the divisions is prepared and provided adequately	**Auditor** Ensures that external regulations and requirements are met
Informational role	**Translator** Mediates between top management and divisions with respect to management expectations and guidelines	**Learning catalyst** Enables knowledge sharing and innovation management	**Marketer** Promotes internal services offered by the corporate staff	**Scanner/ spokesperson** Gathers external information and represents the company externally
Functional service role	**Implementer** Supports top management to implement programs at divisional level	**Systems creation** Facilitates integration of divisions through the creation of infrastructures and systems	**Administrative services** Provides administrative services to the divisions	**Professional services** Provides services that relate to the company as a whole

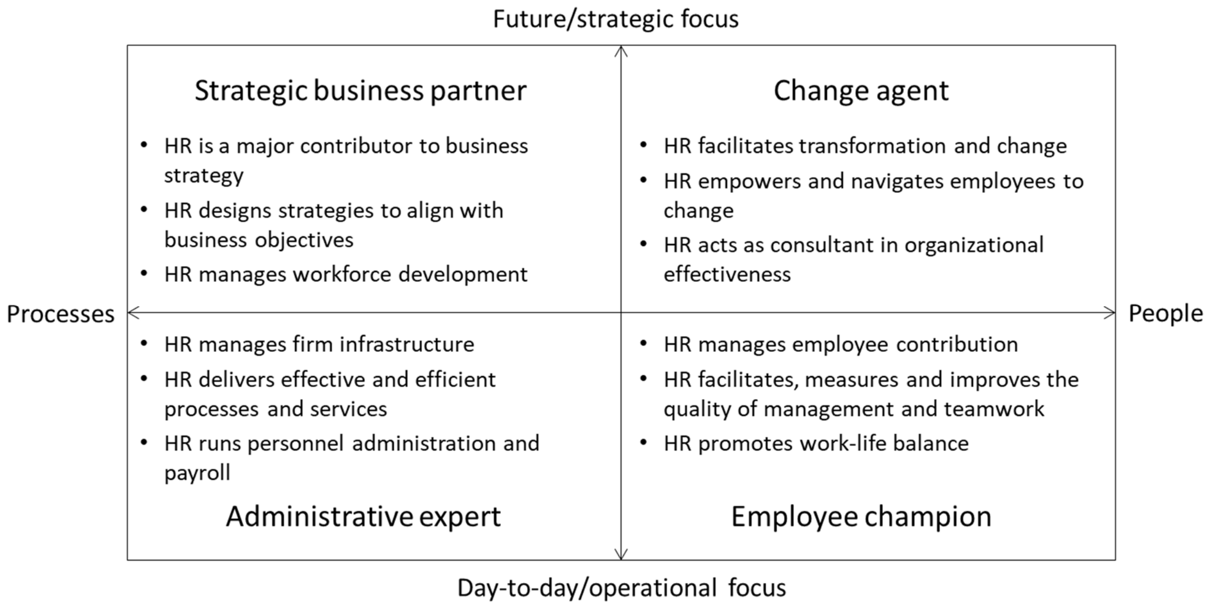
The x-axis displays four types of relationships that reflect the specific constellation in which the central unit takes on its role. The y-axis indicates the role types. The regulatory role is associated with meeting and influencing external and internal requirement. The informational role deals with the exchange and allocation of information. The functional service role refers to the provision of internal services. As an example, the central function adopts the role of the corporate guardian when monitoring compliance with company guidelines on behalf of top management. However, when providing administrative or professional services to the divisions or the company as a whole, it adopts the role of the service supplier. These roles can be conflicting.

In addition, employees in central functions often have to act as both expert and manager (Arbeitskreis Dr. Krähe der Schmalenbach-Gesellschaft 1952). While the role of the expert is associated with highly specialized tasks and a high expertise, the role of the manager represents the strategically acting generalist (Glaister 2014). The role of expert and manager maybe conflicting as well.

Roles have also been extensively discussed in the HR literature, as reflected by numerous publications and studies (Alonso et al. 2015; Beatty and Schneier 1997; Beck and Bastians 2011, 2013; Beck, Schubert, and Sparr 2009; Eisenstat 1996; Esser and Schelenz 2011; Hayward 2006; Pritchard 2010). For instance, Eisenstat (1996) emphasized three roles of HR department: the role of agents and advisors to corporate top management, the role of managing relationships between the firm, and the role of providing services to the operating units.

The role debate was further encouraged by Ulrich (1997). He identified four major roles of the HR Department. According to his “HR Business Partner Model” (Figure 6), the HR activities are classified along the y-axis into an operational or strategic focus and along the x-axis into a process or people focus, resulting in four major HR roles: administrative expert, strategic business partner, change agent and employee champion.

Figure 6: The HR business partner model



Based on Ulrich (1997, p. 24)

Ulrich’s model has been widely adopted as well as broadly discussed. A couple of authors see the role of the strategic business partner as the ultimate, most desirable role in the HR development, since it is associated with a high degree of strategic relevance and business impact (Beatty and Schneier 1997; Vosburgh 2007). Ulrich himself rejects this viewpoint. As a typical support function, HR usually has to cope with a wide range of different tasks reflected by all four roles (Ulrich and Brockbank 2005). In large companies, HR is often split into a strategic and administrative department. The administrative function is often outsourced, also for the reason for avoiding conflicting roles (Charan 2014; Glaister 2014).

In summary, the all three role classifications models of Mintzberg (1979) and Eisenstat (1990) and Ulrich (1997) reveal that support functions organized at headquarters tend to fulfill multiple roles. Some of them can be conflicting.

Role conflict or role ambiguity are well researched constructs in organizational behavior and known to be negatively related to motivation and job performance (Amyx, Sharma, and Alford 2014; Boles and Babin 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne 1998; Sullivan and Bhagat 1992). Role ambiguity is a perceived lack of information and clarity about expectations, behaviors, tasks, etc. associated with a particular role. Role ambiguity is a lack of role clarity, whereas role conflict denotes negative feelings and tensions when an individual faces multiple and conflicting roles. These different expectations, requirements and tasks associated with the roles create a lack of compatibility (Ivancevich and Donnelly Jr. 1974; Onyemah 2008; Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman 1970). Conflicting roles do not only affect their role owners, they may cause ambiguity and misperceptions among stakeholders as well.

For example, the HR department tends to be perceived as an administrative expert, "competent at the administrativia of pay, benefits and retirements" rather than producing "real" value as a strategic business partner (Hammonds 2005, p. 43). Due to their role as administrative expert, HR is challenged with being internally legitimized and accepted as a valuable business function (Beck and Bastians 2013; Beck, Schubert, and Sparr 2009; Cappelli 2015; Jessl 2010). Adverse effects resulting from role conflicts can be reduced but not totally avoided (Timmins 1985). For instance, branding has been proposed by several practical publications as a measure to manage conflicting roles of HR Department (Beck 2010; Beck and Bastians 2013; Caudron 1999; Esser and Schelenz 2011).

2.4 Managing social acceptance: the concept of organizational legitimacy

This section deals with the concept of organizational legitimacy. It explores some generic strategies to manage legitimacy and underlines the importance of legitimacy for internal support functions.

2.4.1 Organizational legitimacy as a key concept in organizational theory

Organizational legitimacy is one of the key concepts in organizational theory, political science and sociology since it plays a pivotal role in the development and survival of social systems such as organizations (Bitektine 2011; Tost 2011; Weatherford 1992). For instance, Suchman (1995, p. 574) defined legitimacy as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs and definitions." In other words, organizational legitimacy is achieved when the perceived organization's actions and behaviors correspond to the value system of the social group in which the organization operates. For instance, Oliver (1991, p. 160) referred to legitimacy as "social fitness." Citing Elsbach and Sutton (1992, p. 700), "Legitimacy is conferred when stakeholders - that is, internal and external audiences affected by organizational outcomes - endorse and support an organization's goals and activities." Legitimacy is not a resource owned by an organization; moreover, it is a "psychological property" (Tyler 2006, p. 375), temporarily borrowed from the organization's stakeholders (Massey 2001). It determines the access to resources such as capital, personnel, power and influence, which are critical to the organization's development and survival (Dowling and Pfeffer 1975; Park et al. 2012; Pfeffer and Salancik 2003; Rao 1994; Tost 2011). Additionally, it encourages individuals to voluntarily follow organizational rules and policies (Tyler 2006; Tyler and Blader 2005). For this reason, identification and commitment are closely linked to the employee's perception of organizational legitimacy (Tyler 1997).

Legitimacy has been discussed in various fields of study including institutional theory (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Meyer and Rowan 1977; Oliver 1999; Zucker 1987), resource dependency theory (Ashforth and Gibbs 1990; Dowling and Pfeffer 1975; Pfeffer and Salancik 2003) or agency theory (Woodward, Edwards, and Birkin 1996). By focusing on organizational legitimacy, Suchman (1995) extracted two distinctive approaches: the strategic approach and the institutional approach. The institutional approach maintains that organizational legitimacy is constructed and determined by the organization's external environment (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Reast et al. 2013). This perspective is also called "passive view," since legitimacy lies beyond the influence of the organization (Roundy 2010). In contrast, authors adopting the managerial approach engage in exploring and elaborating organizational legitimation strategies (Dowling and Pfeffer 1975; Elsbach and Sutton 1992; Ruef and Scott 1998). Legitimacy from this strategic perspective can be strategically managed by organizations (Humphreys and Brown 2002). Although both viewpoints complement each other (Elsbach and Sutton 1992; Suchman 1995), the following section focuses on managerial viewpoint by describing how organizations can proactively influence their legitimacy.

2.4.2 Generic strategies to manage organizational legitimacy

According to the managerial approach, organizational legitimacy is a result of initiatives and actions undertaken by firms or the prevailing norms and values shaped by other actors of the social system (Ashforth and Gibbs 1990; Dowling and Pfeffer 1975; Schlenker 1980). For instance, Dowling and Pfeffer (1975) proposed three different ways to attain legitimacy.

First, organizations can adjust their behaviors to be in line with the predominant understanding of legitimacy. This is what Ashforth and Gibbs (1990, p. 178) called "substantive management." It includes real organizational change in goals, structures and processes. For instance, organizations may improve their role performance by creating shareholder value, high quality products and secure jobs. Alternatively, they may strive for coercive isomorphism, a process of homogenization to conform to existing expectations (DiMaggio and Powell 1983).

The second option proposed by Dowling and Pfeffer (1975) is to expand the definitions of legitimacy by means of communication. For instance, organizations can manipulate their environment by creating new audiences or establishing a new set of values and beliefs (Suchman 1995). Other authors rely on symbolic management strategies to portray consistency within the social value system (Ashforth and Gibbs 1990; Brown 1994; Elsbach 1994; Richardson 1985). Organizational symbols are observable features of the organization that provide meaning and a frame of reference to the organization's members (Richardson 1985). Various types of symbols exists, including company products or logos (Daft 1983; Feldman and March 1981). The symbolic actions of organizations to manipulate the perception of legitimacy is associated with term "impression management" (Bansal and Clelland 2004; Cho, Michelon, and Patten 2012). For instance, firms engage in espousing corporate social responsibility (Roeck and Delobbe 2012; Zheng, Luo, and Maksimov 2015) or offering excuses, justifications or denials (Elsbach 1994; Salancik and Meindl 1984). Regardless, the choice of legitimation practices may depend on the concrete purpose, whether organizations seek to gain, maintain or repair legitimacy (Ashforth and Gibbs 1990; Suchman 1995). The distinction between symbolic legitimation strategies, based on impression management theories (Goffman 1956; Schlenker 1980), and substantive legitimation strategies, based on institutional theories (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Meyer and Rowan 1977), is broadly accepted (Dowling and Pfeffer 1975; Elsbach 1994; Richardson 1985; Suchman 1995).

As a third legitimation option, Dowling and Pfeffer (1975) suggested creating associations with symbols, institutions or values that exude a great degree of legitimacy. For instance, new ventures can achieve legitimacy when they are associated with more established firms that stakeholders are more confident about (Rao, Chandy, and Prabhu 2008). Higgins and Gulati (2006) argue that young firms can obtain legitimacy and thus affecting investor decisions by signaling the endorsement of powerful investment banks and lead underwriters. In addition to what Higgins and Gulati call "endorsement legitimacy," organizations may further benefit from role legitimacy. This legitimation strategy deals with using key leadership roles, such as the one of the CEO or CFO as a signal to evoke credibility and professionalism (Higgins and Gulati 2006; Homburg et al. 2014).

All in all, there is a general consensus among authors that communication is a key mechanism of legitimacy management (Elsbach 1994; Massey 2001; Roundy 2010; Suchman 1995). Typical communication measures, such as storytelling, are applied to increase the acceptance and validity of the stakeholders (Humphreys and Brown 2002; Roundy 2010). Some authors have also emphasized the explicit role of (internal) marketing in gaining (internal) approval (Gabriel 2003; Gardner, Anand, and Morris 2008). Further, the deployment of legitimation strategies have been also discussed with respect to brands (Kates 2004; Liu, Eng, and Sekhon 2014).

2.4.3 The critical role of legitimacy for internal support functions

The fact that legitimacy is a fundamental topic for internals support functions becomes apparent in this section.

With reference to Eisenstat (1990), centralized support functions need to fulfill two criteria to cope successfully with their tasks. First, they must be visible and perceivable. Second, they must be accepted and legitimized by their stakeholders. Even if they are visible as a department, their performance (service) is intangible and thus difficult to perceive (Menon 2012; Park et al. 2012; Rust et al. 2004).

Several articles reveal that support functions such as marketing (Bolton 2004; O'Sullivan and Abela 2007; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005) or HR (Beck and Bastians 2013; Eisenstat 1996; Hammonds 2005) face difficulties to justify their contribution to the firm's value creation. These difficulties stem from the fact that their activities are hard to link to financial performance (Bolton 2004), often prove effective only in the long run (Dekimpe and Hanssens 1995), and are difficult to isolate from the activities of other departments (Bonoma and Clark 1988). As these functions may only have the right to exist if they add perceivable value (Reckenfelderbäumer 2001), but their value contribution is hard to quantify (Bolton 2004), legitimacy becomes an even more crucial concept (Park et al. 2012).

Departments operate within the social framework of their company. Thus, a department's internal legitimacy is formed at multiple organizational levels and depends on whether other actors of the same system perceive the department as desirable and accountable (Park et al. 2012; Suchman 1995). Organizational units achieve legitimacy, for example, if they succeed in adopting corporate structures, policies and strategies, act in accordance with the commonly shared corporate value system and are committed to the corporate vision (Drori and Honig 2013; Kostova and Roth 2002; Kostova and Zaheer 1999).

Legitimacy management is crucial because a lack of perceived productivity can weaken the function's credibility, damage its reputation and even call into question its very existence (Rust et al. 2004). In addition, poor communication of value contribution may result in budget cuts, which limit the support function's scope of actions as well as its power and influence (Kumar and Shah 2009; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). Support functions can strengthen their internal strategic role if they are able to communicate their value contribution to top management (Srivastava, Shervani, and Fahey 1998). For instance, O'Sullivan and Abela (2007) provide evidence that the marketing department's accountability is strongly linked to the CEO's satisfaction with the marketing department. This has also effects on the perception of other departments. For instance, Park et al. (2012) demonstrate that the internally perceived legitimacy of the marketing department determines the willingness of other functions to share knowledge and collaborate with the department. Collaboration and knowledge sharing across functional boundaries are fundamental to create new knowledge within the firm and increase the firm's effectiveness (Achrol 1991; De Luca and Atuahene-Gima 2007; Homburg, Workman Jr., and Jensen 2000). Internal legitimacy strategies appear to be adapted from classical concepts of managing external legitimacy and including typical marketing and communication measures (Drori and Honig 2013; Park et al. 2012).

2.5 Conclusion

2.5.1 Challenges for internal support functions

Based on previously examining the specific characteristics of internal, centralized support functions, this section articulates five major and interrelated challenges these functions are confronted with. They are summarized in the subsequent paragraphs.

Challenge 1: Subordinate position in the value chain impacting visibility

Internal support functions perform secondary support activities with indirect value contribution. In contrast, primary functions such as manufacturing or sales (in manufacturing firms) deliver direct and more visible and measurable value to the firm (e.g. number of manufactured and sold products).

While internal support functions are more concerned with serving the internal customer, primary functions focus on meeting the needs of their external customers. By this they enjoy a greater visibility externally as well as internally. Internal support functions enable primary functions to create value along the value chain. They are a part of the value chain as well, yet their performance is not directly associated with the firm's profitability so they tend to lack internal visibility.

Challenge 2: Visibility in the case of intangible internal services

Internal support functions are concerned with delivering internal services to other organizational sub-units of the firm. One challenge confronting these functions arises from the specific characteristics of services and the involvement of the internal customer in the service delivery process.

Services by nature are intangible, unique, context specific and high in experience and credence qualities. Internal services are delivered during relational interactions of the support function with their internal customers. The service quality highly depends on the customer's perceived service experience. Thus, it can be hardly measured by objective criteria. In addition, in internal customer-supplier relationships the internal customer tends to co-create value during the service interactions. As a result, support functions are responsible for performing specific tasks and services, but are not able to fully control their outcomes. It is therefore difficult to associate the specific economic value the internal support function contributes to the firm. In summary, the value delivered by internal support functions is hardly visible and measurable.

Challenge 3: Internal alignment as a precondition for value creation and legitimacy

The activities of support functions are highly interdependent with the activities of other organizational units of the firm. Alignment has been identified as a necessary prerequisite for internal support functions to interact successfully with other functions and thereby create value for the firm. Support functions that differentiate strongly from their customers, for instance in their goal orientation, may lack internal alignment. They must undertake efforts to overcome these discrepancies to ensure value creation and to be legitimized by its stakeholders.

Challenge 4: Impact of distance and multiple role perception on legitimacy

Another challenge of internal support functions may arise due to their organizational embedding and the multiple roles they fulfill.

Support functions centralized at headquarter have a larger distance to their internal customers at divisional level. This may provoke stereotyping because internal customers may perceive support functions as a high-status group within the organization. It is also this organizational distance between the support function and their customers that can complicate internal alignment.

In addition, support functions tend to fulfill multiple roles. For instance, they switch between the regulatory role, informational role and service delivery role. As a result, employees need to cope with multiple, sometimes conflicting roles. These conflicting roles can also provoke misperceptions and misunderstandings among stakeholders. All these factors impact the perception of the internal support function and its legitimacy.

Challenge 5: Structured communication measures as prerequisite to establish visibility and legitimacy

Communication measures have been described as a key mechanism in legitimacy management. They can been seen a necessary, without postulating sufficient, input factor to counter negative associations with the internal support function and to establish a positive visibility and legitimation of the department. This is especially the case in situations of ambiguity and negative stereotyping as described above. Here structured communications can contribute to target false or unclear representation.

Furthermore, communication has been identified to be key in terms of generating internal service quality, aligning with other organizational units and creating legitimacy. The challenge for internal support functions lies additionally in the fact that they generally do not have expert communication resources – and are dependent either on the expert communication department for communication measures or they must establish an own regime under the constraint of limited resources. As such they often do know how to, don't have to resources to do execute or are dependent on outside resources to establish structured communication measures.

2.5.2 Necessity to establish internal legitimacy

The challenges previously mentioned seem to result in one major challenge called internal legitimacy. Legitimacy is of importance to internal support functions, since their resource allocation and budget is defined by internal stakeholders. The competitive mechanism within the organization requires departments to "justify" their budgets and access to personnel. Ultimately also their influence also on the agenda of the organization. Organizational sub-units such as internal support functions are legitimized when their actions, behaviors and values correspond to expectations of the organizational members. In other words, their internal acceptance depends on the sum of subjective stakeholder perceptions. Since the performance of internal support functions is, due to service intangibility, difficult to perceive, specify and measure, they may face difficulties "to justify" their existence. Besides the fact that their daily work activities are hard to grasp for those who are not part of the service delivery process, internal support functions tend to struggle with legitimacy for the reason that they do not belong to the organization's primary functions. In order to gain, enhance or maintain legitimacy, internal support functions can apply marketing and communication measures to increase the visibility and tangibility of their performance.

3 Prerequisites for a departmental branding model

Marketing and branding are two areas of research that principally address challenges similar to those derived in Chapter 2. Marketing on the one hand can be considered generally as an applicable approach to manage all different kinds of relational interactions with the goal to create value for all involved actors (Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008). Branding on the other hand can be seen as a specialized form of marketing or as a bundling of specialized marketing competencies with the goal to influence and steer the perception of the brand, and as such generate brand equity (Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005).

The chapter traces the evolution of marketing and branding to demonstrate that both concepts have gradually broadened over the past decades and evolved from a good-centered and restrictive logic to a more general and inclusive concept, known as “the service-dominant logic.” This broadening is the basis to transfer existing elements and concepts to a this new area of the internal department. By investigating both streams the preconditions of an own departmental branding model are discussed.

Therefore this chapter answers the research question:

RQ2: What are the prerequisites for a departmental branding model

3.1 The evolutionary broadening of marketing

This section presents a condensed recapitulation of the evolution of the marketing literature from a very restricted goods-dominant logic to a much broader frame of service-dominant logic. Thereby, the different “eras” that refer to the most important conceptualizations of marketing to identify developments affecting the major changes are used to order the discussion.

3.1.1 Summary of changes in the interpretations of the marketing concept

The marketing discipline has undergone various different levels of development over time. Every level of development represents a different conceptualization of the marketing concept with different fundamental ideas and propositions (Gummesson 1987; Keith 1960; Moorman and Rust 1999; Webster Jr. 1992, 2005). For example, Wilkie and Moore (2003) distinguish what they label as “The ‘4 Eras’ of Marketing Thought.” They are summarized in Table 6 and explained in the following paragraphs.

Table 6: The four "eras" of marketing

Marketing "eras"	Timeline	Fundamental ideas and propositions
Pre-marketing	Before 1900	- No distinguishing field of study
I. Foundation of the field	1900 – 1920	- Marketing becomes institutional - Focus on marketing as distribution
II. Formalization of the field	1920 – 1950	- Development of first foundations: the "principles of marketing" - Establishment of first marketing knowledge infrastructure
III. A paradigm shift - marketing, management, and the sciences	1950 – 1980	- Evolution of marketing into a more managerial function - First crucial discussions on broadening the scope of marketing
IV. The shift intensifies – a fragmentation of the mainstream	1980 – Present	- High degree of specialization in marketing theories, new areas of research, methods and concepts indicate the fragmentation of marketing

3.1.1.1 Pre-marketing and Era I. Foundation of the field

Beginning with "Pre-marketing" before 1900, marketing practices had already been apparent but were not yet a recognized field of study and research. During the first era, known as "Founding the field" between 1900 and 1920, economists tried to understand market mechanisms and how to best produce a large number of products quickly and effectively (Wilkie and Moore 2003). During that period of time, marketing was focused on the efforts of economic institution (institutional approach) (Arndt 1981; Breyer 1934) and its functions ("functional approach") (Weld 1917) that exchange commodities ("commodity approach") (Copeland 1920) to increase distribution (Shaw 1912). The managerial perspective remained completely unconsidered in this era (Webster Jr. 1992).

3.1.1.2 Era II. Formalization of the field

The second era from 1920 to 1950 called "Formalizing the field" was characterized by the increasing availability of marketing literature due to the emergence of professional journals, e.g. the Journal of Retailing and associations such as the American Association of Marketing (AMA). This advancing marketing infrastructure triggered a wave of economic, social and political discussions about the role of marketing in society. These discussions were the basis of the first generally acknowledged foundations of marketing, also known as the "principles of marketing" (McCarthy 1960). In addition, more attention had been drawn to the role of the customer (Copeland 1923). Innovations such as the refrigerator and washing machine entering the market, as well as the broad availability of mass-produced and convenient packaged products in retail stores, empowered the consumers to choose from a diverse and wide range of products. As a result, new forms of advertising and pricing were necessary to respond to the changing circumstances (Wilkie and Moore 2003). In this era, marketing developed in the fields of sales support and product-related brand management activities in consumer goods companies (Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005).

3.1.1.3 Era III. A paradigm shift – marketing, management, and the sciences

The third era "A paradigm shift in the marketing mainstream – marketing management and sciences" dated between 1950 and 1980 and reflected the evolution of marketing into a managerial function (Webster Jr. 1992). The customer-oriented "marketing concept" formulated by management scholar Peter Drucker in the 1950s evolved to comprise key strategic decisions in market segmentation and targeting, product management, pricing, communication, product positioning, branding and distribution channels (Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). The managerial marketing approach was also indicated by the American Marketing Association (1948, p. 209) that defined marketing as "The performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producer to consumer or user." Scientists tried to put themselves into the position of a (marketing) manager to offer and discuss marketing solutions that were tailored to their needs. This paradigm shift was based upon new challenges such as the exploding mass market and the increasing digitization of the workplace. As a response to the increasing market pressure, the field of consumer research was on the rise, enriched by a great variety of upcoming quantitative and qualitative empirical methods. Consumer research investigating consumer attitudes and their purchase behavior required insight into the management and behavioral sciences that substantially expanded the field of marketing (Wilkie and Moore 2003). In 1969, first crucial discussions were initiated by Kotler Levy and Luck on broadening the scope of marketing, which formed the basis for a mindset that goes beyond inciting the customer to consume products and services while encouraging many scientists to apply the initial idea of marketing to other areas as well (Kotler and Levy 1969a; b; Levy and Kotler 1969; Luck 1969).

3.1.1.4 Era IV. The shift intensifies – a fragmentation of the mainstream

The latest era described by Wilkie and Moore (2003) ranges from 1980 to present time and is named "The shift intensifies – a fragmentation of the mainstream." The growing globalization, the emergence of the internet and the rapidly increasing digitization of the media facilitated the interchange among academic researchers and practitioners and resulted in an agglomeration of specialized journals and articles to the different facets of marketing (Webster Jr. 2005).

This era is characterized by a high degree of specialization in marketing theories, methods and concepts indicating the fragmentation of marketing. The marketing function is no longer the “center of excellence” in which core marketing skills and competencies including brand management, market research and customer segmentation are bundled (Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). The shift towards a managerial perspective of marketing led to marketing spreading across and outside the organization and gave rise to several ascendant areas such as relationship marketing, service marketing, service and corporate branding (Balmer 2001a). Especially the emergence of service marketing as a subdiscipline of marketing made apparent how the predominant goods-centric logic of marketing at that time was inadequate for dealing with services. A new service-dominant logic of marketing established itself in the early 2000’s as the predominant logic in marketing. This logic acknowledges services rather than goods as the fundamental unit of exchange in relationships among marketing actors and paved the way for marketing to be of a more comprehensive and inclusive logic that provides a richer foundation for the further development of the marketing thought and practice (Vargo and Lusch 2004).

Even though other marketing scholars (Bartels 1974; Gamble et al. 2011; Keith 1960; Shaw and Jones 2005; Vargo and Lusch 2004) may not divide the historic phases of the evolution of the marketing concept into precisely the same four eras as suggested by Wilkie and Moore (2003), the fact that what practitioners and academics refer to as “marketing” is not completely a stable concept is broadly accepted. One of the major evolutions in this context was the discussion about the core domain of marketing.

3.1.2 Selected marketing approaches indicating the process of broadening

In the following section, selected marketing concepts are presented that reflect the broadening process of marketing to present day.

3.1.2.1 From a functional to a managerial understanding of marketing

From its early roots as an academic field of research, marketing functions and institutions were at the core of marketing thought (Arndt 1981; Rosenbloom 2013; Vanderblue 1921). The “functionalist paradigm,” as it is labeled by Achrol and Kotler (2012), can be traced back to Shaw's (1912) article “Some Problems in Market Distribution.” Shaw first addressed “the functions of the middleman” by referring to risk sharing, transportation of goods, financing the operations, selling and communications, assembling, assorting and re-shipping. Later, Weld (1917) argued that these functions are the "functions of marketing" rather than the "functions of the middleman." To conclude, marketing from its early understanding refers to all business activities performed by marketing actors (Arndt 1981; Webster Jr. 1992).

With the emergence of the marketing concept in the mid of the 20th century, marketing became "a corporate state of mind" (Felton 1959, p. 55), a "philosophy of business management" (McNamara 1972, p. 51) that placed the customer at the heart of all corporate activities (Houston 1986; Levitt 1960). One of the first articles that reflected the shift to the marketing management paradigm (Achrol and Kotler 2012), also known as the "managerial approach" (Webster Jr. 1992), was from Keith (1960) called "The Marketing Revolution." Keith (1960, p. 38) described in different eras how the firm's focus shifted from production to sales and from sales to marketing as an integrated and consumer-oriented business approach: "We are moving from a company which has the marketing concept to a marketing company." Levitt (1960, p. 50) emphasized that "a truly marketing-minded firm tries to create value-satisfying goods and services that consumers will want to buy."

Although the marketing concept had been often referred to as the ultimate marketing management philosophy, it was also frequently criticized in the past (Barksdale and Darden 1971; Houston 1986; McNamara 1972). For instance, Kaldor (1971) claimed that it devotes too much attention to the market and ignores the organization's own resources, in particular organizational creativity required to set up market strategies. From Kaldor's point of view, the market alone is not able to identify its own needs, much less the corresponding products that might fulfill these needs. Tauber (1974, p. 26) agreed with Kaldor: "It is the genius of the innovator that he recognizes a need before it is widely perceived." Other authors argued that the marketing concept is nothing more than a business philosophy and lacks a framework for implementation (Barksdale and Darden 1971; Bell and Emory 1971; Day and Montgomery 1999). This criticism gave rise to the development of a more practically oriented approach called "market orientation" (Gheysari et al. 2012; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Lichtenthal and Wilson 1992) and resulted into various academic reports on how to incorporate and measure customer focus at all organizational levels (Narver and Slater 1990; Ruekert 1992; Shapiro 1988).

In summary, the shift from the functional to the managerial paradigm of marketing can be considered as the first manifestation of the broadening process. Marketing, once the task of certain functions to increase sales, expanded to a firm-wide responsibility towards its customers (Felton 1959). In the second half of the 20th century, a new depth of understanding paved the way for new applications of marketing outside the classical domain of consumer or industrial goods. This evolution is also at the heart of the research this thesis develops.

3.1.2.2 Evolving generic perspective of the marketing concept

In this section the development of the so-called "generic concept of marketing" is presented. Until the late 1960s, the interpretation of marketing as a management concept had been restricted to profit-maximization by stimulating the external customer (Kotler 2005). Marketing, from this classical perspective, contains activities such as product development, price management, promotion and distribution activities, as also reflected by McCarthy's (1960) broadly taught concept of the "four P's" of marketing. But according to Kotler and Levy (1969a, p. 10), marketing "goes considerably beyond the selling of toothpaste, soap, and steel." Indeed, these authors pioneered the broadening of the marketing concept by proposing to include, for example, political parties, non-profit organizations, colleges or nations into the marketing paradigm. They criticized that, in prior interpretations, no attempt had been made to apply the tenet of marketing to other contexts while pointing at the undiscovered potential of expanding the frame: "[M]arketing will either take on a broader social meaning or remain a narrowly defined business activity" (Kotler and Levy 1969a, p. 10).

However, some marketing experts expressed some concerns in terms of redefining the essence of marketing (Bartels 1974; Enis 1973; Luck 1969; Tucker 1974). As one of their major critics, Luck (1969) stated that the notion of marketing is tied to market transactions between buyers and sellers in a business environment. He insisted that marketing activities are characterized by the intention of buying or selling a product or service and the broadening concept would obviously abandon this path. Almost at the same time that the broadening concept was intensively debated, another approach emerged that was referred to as "the deepening concept." Enis (1973) agreed with Luck (1969) on the vague description of the broadening concept and draws attention to deeper elaboration of marketing thoughts aiming to improve its comprehensiveness as well as its practical and theoretical usefulness and applicability. Over the years, the understanding of the deepening concept has become more concrete and is now associated with a stronger integration of human, social and ecological aspects into the marketing discipline (Dawson 1969; Meffert 2000). Apart from critical voices and minor setbacks, the generic concept of marketing became the dominant paradigm of its time (Graham 1993; Nickels 1974).

Now the initial ideas of broadening marketing horizons have come to fruition. New concepts such as social marketing, health marketing, cultural marketing or place marketing, derived from the traditional marketing concept, have evolved into independent scientific disciplines beyond the classical business area (Kotler and Zaltman 1971). This is reflected in the existence of several specialized academic journals (Cherrier and Gurrieri 2014; Eshuis, Braun, and Klijn 2013; Kavaratzis 2004; Lim and Ting 2012; Miller and Pitaluga 2001) and textbooks (Andreasen and Kotler 2007; Lee and Kotler 2015; Lees-Marshment 2014). The broadening movement is still continuing for good reasons. First, it provides solutions for non-profit institutions (Kotler 1979; Modi and Mishra 2010) as well as for private persons (McDonald 2002; Saenger, Thomas, and Johnson 2013). Second, expanding into other non-commercial contexts can generate new insights that may enrich commercial marketing practices or studies in return. For example, expanding into the field of psychology has provided crucial insight about consumer behaviors (Plassmann et al. 2015; Wells 2014). Third, since marketing is accessible for a larger audience, it gains more consideration and appreciation from different stakeholder groups. And finally, the broadened view on marketing offers more opportunities for practitioners and researchers to deal with various issues and approaches ranging from non-commercial to the commercial sector (Kotler 2005).

In the course of redefining marketing, Kotler (1972) proposed transactions as the core concept of the marketing discipline. Kotler (1972 p. 48) defined transactions as “the exchange of values between two parties” and thereby laid the foundation for a new conceptualization of marketing that became broadly accepted as “the exchange paradigm” (Achrol and Kotler 2012; Bagozzi 1975, 1978; Houston and Gassenheimer 1987; Hunt 1976; Kiel and Lusch 1992; Sheth and Uslay 2007). By developing the generic concept of marketing, Kotler (1972) differentiated three stages of marketing consciousness. They assist in understanding the broadening process of marketing. The first level of marketing consciousness includes the awareness that marketing is concerned with market transactions and thus is the subject of business (managerial approach). However, these market transactions are still regarded in their traditional, restrictive sense and occur only if the following conditions are met (Houston and Gassenheimer 1987; Kotler 1972, 1984, p. 8):

(1) Transactions require at least two parties (buyer and seller)
(2) There must be a scarcity of goods.
(3) One party must own something…
(4) which is desirable for the other party.
(5) The consuming party must offer a kind of payment in return…
(6) which is accepted by the seller.

During the second level of marketing consciousness, payment is no longer considered as a required pre-requisite to transactions. Instead, products are defined as something that delivers value and not as something that has to be paid for. In level two, market transactions are translated into organization-client transactions. They are carried out as long as any kind of organization, be it profit or non-profit, has a customer. The third level of marketing consciousness broadens the frame of marketing by not only including customers, but all of the public into the scope of marketing. For instance, marketing becomes relevant when convincing other organizational members of an idea. In this regard, marketing is loosely defined as any transaction between two parties. Transactions are not limited to goods, services and the exchange of money. Moreover, they include intangibles such as feelings or time. For instance, a person playing tennis exchanges his time for having fun and playing sports. Kotler finally equates marketing with the task of creating, stimulating and adding value to transactions. The "typology of marketing" displayed in Table 7 summarizes Kotler's (1972) thoughts about the broadening concept.

Table 7: Kotler's typology of marketing

Typologies	Explanation	Types	Examples
Marketer	Organization that carries out marketing	Business organization	Corporations
		Political organization	Political parties, trade unions
		Social organization	Welfare agencies
		Religious Organization	Churches
		Cultural organization	Museums
		Knowledge organizations	Universities
Product	Object that is marketed	Goods	Cars
		Services	Coiffeur
		Organizations	Corporations, governments
		Persons	Celebrities
		Places	Cities, states
		Ideas	Anti-smoking
Target-market	Public with potential interest and impact on the marketer	Input publics	Supporters, employees, suppliers
		Output publics	Agents, consumers
		Sanctioning publics	Government, competitors, special publics, general publics

The first typology is labeled "marketer" and refers to the type of organization that applies marketing activities. This includes business and non-business organizations, such as political or cultural organizations. The category referred to as "product" reveals that the object to be marketed must not necessarily be a good or a service, but can be places or ideas as well. Finally, the "target market" indicates three different groups that may be targeted by the organization for their potential impact: input publics, output publics and sanctioning publics.

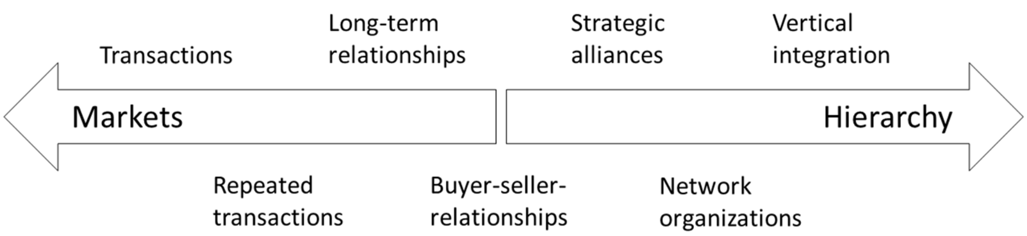
In summary, the generic concept of marketing was a crucial evolutionary step in the history of marketing since it unchained marketing from its restrictive understanding and made it available to non-commercial purposes as well. As Kotler's typology shows (Table 7), the modern understanding of marketing includes the exchange of value between various kinds of marketers and target markets. The object to be marketed is no longer limited to classical consumer goods.

3.1.2.3 Increasing focus on relationships in marketing

The increasing focus on relationships in marketing marks another milestone in the evolution of the marketing concept. During the 1980s, rapid technological changes and evolving conditions of international trade had prompted companies to reconsider their organizational structures and strategies (Achrol 1991; Miles and Snow 1986). To cope with environmental changes, organizations started to substitute traditional bureaucratic organizations with more flexible forms of organizations that are based on intra- or inter-organizational relationships. These internal and external interconnections resulted in new organizational structures called “network organizations” (Coulson-Thomas 1991; Thorelli 1986). For instance, Achrol and Kotler (1999, p. 148) defined network organization as “an interdependent coalition of task- or skill-specialized economic entities (independent firms or autonomous organizational units) that operates without hierarchical control but is embedded, by dense lateral connections, mutuality, and reciprocity, in a shared value system that defines ‘membership’ roles and responsibilities.” Networks have been acknowledged as new organizational forms that range between markets and hierarchies (Miles and Snow 1986; Powell 1990; Thorelli 1986; Webster Jr. 1992).

The market-hierarchy spectrum based on Williamson (1975, 1991) differentiates markets and hierarchy as two basic institutional control mechanisms to govern transactions. From a transaction cost perspective, transactions are dependent on their degree of frequency, uncertainty and asset specificity. They are either externalized and take place between economic actors on the marketplace, or internalized and occur in the hierarchically organized firm. However, this dichotomous distinction between markets and hierarchy was called into question by many authors (Bradach and Eccles 1989; Goldberg 1980; Powell 1990; Thorelli 1986; White 1981) and has lost its validity due to the fact that firms started to dissolve their corporate boundaries by increasingly engaging in multiple forms of inter-firm relationships (MacMillan and Farmer 1979). According to Powell (1990), markets, hierarchies and networks are three different models that serve to explain in what way transactions can be arranged in today’s economic environments. Certainly, some authors used the market-hierarchy continuum to show different types of marketing relationships ranging between both poles (Thorelli 1986; Webster Jr. 1992). The continuum is displayed in Figure 7.

Figure 7: The continuum of marketing relationships



Based on Webster Jr. (1992, p. 5)

In each type of relationship, marketing fulfills a different purpose. This is explained as follows: As Kotler (1972) referred to in his "consciousness one," market-based transactions had been reflected by the traditional microeconomic profit-maximization paradigm prevalent until the second half of the 19th century. Thus, transaction marketing (Jackson 1985) deals with maximizing sales volume rather than developing relationships. Social processes between people do not matter since all transactions are guided by the price (Li and Nicholls 2000). Moving along the continuum, repeated transactions are likely to result in long-term relationships such as buyer-seller relationships. These relationships are entered into when both partners are convinced that reciprocal exchange and communication will enable them to accomplish their goals (Palmer and Bejou 1994). Many publications have arisen on buyer-seller relationships since the 1970s when organizations started to perceive the advantages of such coalitions in increasingly changing environments (Cannon and Perreault Jr. 1999; Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh 1987; Jelinek 2014; Sheth 1976; Weigand 1973; Wilson 1995). Even though firms have shown a clear tendency towards developing ongoing relationships in recent times, under certain circumstances, the transactional approach may fit better. Table 8 displays the marketing strategy continuum of Grönroos (1991), which assists in finding the right strategic position between both poles of transactional or relationship marketing.

Table 8: The marketing strategy continuum

Dimensions	Transactional marketing	Relationship marketing
Time perspective	Short-term focus	Long-term focus
Dominating marketing function	Marketing mix	Interactive marketing
Price elasticity	Customers tend to be more sensitive to price	Customers tend to be less sensitive to price
Dominating quality dimension	Quality of output is dominating	Quality of interactions grows in importance
Measurement of customer satisfaction	Monitoring market share	Managing the customer base
Customer information system	Ad hoc customer satisfaction surveys	Real-time customer feedback system
Interdependency between marketing, operations and personnel	Interface of no or limited strategic importance	Interface of substantial strategic importance
The ole of internal marketing	No or limited importance to success	Substantial strategic importance to success
The product continuum	Consumer packaged goods ←→ Consumer durables ←→	Industrial goods ←→ Services

Based on Grönroos (1991, p. 9)

For instance, firms offering consumer mass produced packaged goods may tend to use transactional marketing, since price is more relevant than customer contact. In contrast, service suppliers will probably prefer a relationship marketing strategy, as they may benefit more from long-term interactions. As the continuum demonstrates, marketing is substantially different in relationships than in pure transactions. For example, internal marketing practices grow in significance the more firms seek relationships (Grönroos 1991). Internal marketing will be addressed in more detail in Section 3.1.2.4.

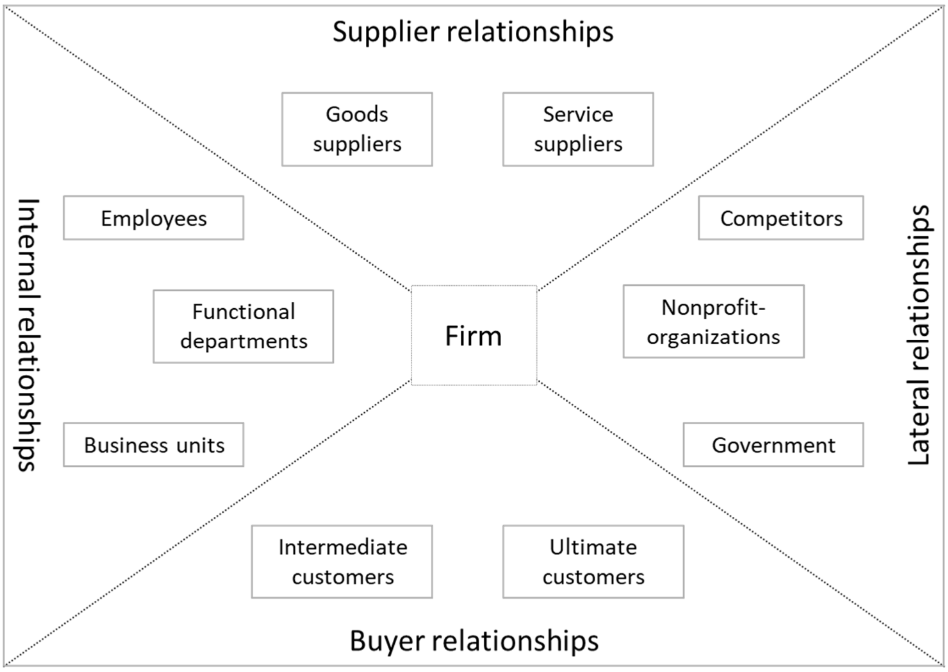
Referring back to Webster Jr.'s (1992) classification of marketing relationships (Figure 7), strategic alliances are forms of collaborations in which both partners share capital and resources to accomplish goals that they might find difficult to achieve by their own (Gulati 1998). Firms engage in alliances for different reasons, for instance, to access new markets (Kogut 1991), develop new products (Kotabe and Swan 1995) or to boost organizational learning (Doz 1996). In any case, these news forms of marketing strategies have been increasingly taken into account to ensure and improve companies' competitiveness in dynamically changing environments (Osland and Yaprak 1995). These coalitions are even more hierarchical than customer-supplier relationships because they establish a sort of a new venture that underlies bureaucratic control mechanisms (Webster Jr. 1992). There are many different types of strategic alliances, such as joint ventures, franchising, licensing or distributor agreements (Cavusgil 1998). They appear, for example, between firms and their competitors (Garella and Peitz 2007; Luo, Rindfleisch, and Tse 2007) or vendors and buyers (Lazzarini, Claro, and Mesquita 2008; Prasetyo, Luong, and Lee 2010).

Moving further on the continuum (Figure 7), a network is composed of various actors tied together by reciprocal exchanges of resources and values (Iacobucci and Hopkins 1992). There are multiple forms of networks that can be distinguished by their structural embeddedness (Granovetter 1985). For instance, Achrol and Kotler (1999) identified four types of networks: internal, vertical, intermarket and opportunity networks. Snow et al. (1992) differentiated internal, stable and dynamic networks. There have also been different opinions on the central concept of networks over time. For instance, Benson (1975) affirmed that networks are concerned with the distribution of money and authority, whereas Thorelli (1986) stated that networks allocate power, influence and trust. Morgan and Hunt (1994) emphasized trust and commitment to be central in networks. Besides this multitude of opinions on what networks are and what they serve for, marketing literature in the 1990s increasingly included network theory (Anderson, Håkansson, and Johanson 1994; Gadde and Mattsson 1987; Iacobucci and Hopkins 1992) by moving away from transactional approaches without completely rejecting them (Lefaix-Durand and Kozak 2009; Li and Nicholls 2000).

Thus, marketing in network organizations is concerned with developing and maintaining inter-organizational and internal network relationships (Arndt 1983; Ballantyne 1997) and ensures that all network partners are aware of markets needs and competing offerings (Webster Jr. 1992). These responsive, flexible and complex network structures, composed of highly specialized, independent entities linked to each other by their interactions, seem to be only a few steps away from being vertically integrated into the firm's hierarchy. In fact, the reason that they are not completely internalized is that they do not underlie any hierarchical control, even though they might act in shared value systems (Achrol and Kotler 1999; Coulson-Thomas 1991; Webster Jr. 1992).

A different perspective on marketing relationships was chosen by Morgan and Hunt (1994) and is displayed in Figure 8. In comparison to Webster Jr. (1992), they emphasized four major types of relational exchanges from a firm's point of view, namely supplier, lateral, buyer and internal relationships.

Figure 8: Relational exchanges in relationship marketing



Based on Morgan and Hunt (1994, p. 21)

Supplier relationships summarize long-term transactions between the firm and their goods or service suppliers. Also known under the term manufacturer-distributor/supplier relationships, they take place at different levels of the value chain (Anderson and Narus 1990; Kalwani and Narayandas 1995). In contrast, lateral relationships are divided into relationships with competitors (Garella and Peitz 2007), non-profit organizations (Sagawa and Segal 2000) or governmental institutions (Coen 1999). For example, co-marketing alliances are undertaken by competitors that mutually develop, produce or sell their products in order to benefit from the other's distinct skills and knowledge or to achieve economies of scale (Bucklin and Sengupta 1993). As previously explained, buyer relationships, also known as buyer-seller relationships refer to the interactions of the company with their ultimate or intermediate customers (Palmer and Bejou 1994). Finally, internal relationships occur between firms and its employees (Tsui et al. 1997), functional departments (Ruekert and Walker Jr. 1987), business units (Gummesson 1987; Miles and Snow 1986) or other divisions or subsidiaries (Porter 1987). They are of major interest in the internal marketing literature (Arndt 1983; Barnes, Fox, and Morris 2004) and are also in the focus of this thesis (see Section 2.2).

In summary, relationships have become accepted as generic governance forms for transactions (Mattsson 1997), by embedding them into a paradigm that regards business environments increasingly as networks of multiple organizations engaging in long-term interactions (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Thorelli 1986). Relationship marketing puts people and social processes into the center of investigation: "The focus shifts from products and firms as units of analysis to people, organizations, and the social processes that bind actors together in ongoing relationships" (Webster Jr. 1992, p. 10). While previous approaches adhere to the strategy of adding product features or supporting services in order to increase value, the relationship marketing approach considers relational aspects, such as trust, loyalty and continuity as important drivers of value (Ravald and Grönroos 1996).

3.1.2.4 Increasing focus on internal marketing

First discussions to internal marketing can be traced back to Berry et al. (1976, p. 4) who said: "Before investing in consumer education, point-of-sale information, and other consumer programs, however, retailers must develop their organizational capability for responding to consumerism." The prerequisite for becoming responsive to customers is to first develop an understanding for internal formal and informal roles, structures and mechanisms (Berry et al. 1976; Foreman and Money 1995). Based upon this, the role of employees had to be increasingly reconsidered and the assumption came up that treating them like internal customers might increase service quality and the satisfaction of the external customer (Feldman 1991; Hallowell, Schlesinger, and Zornitsky 1996; Kuei 1999). Actually, this approach to quality stems from the total quality management philosophy and was adapted from marketers (Finn et al. 1996; Mohr-Jackson 1991). In the 1980s, when the notion of the internal customer was introduced (Bouranta, Chitiris, and Paravantis 2009; Davis 1991; Gummesson 1987), numerous circumstances promoted the need for action in the field of consumer orientation like consumerism, company growth, mass merchandising and competitive pressure, as well as the difficulties of delivering high quality services, forced managers to rethink strategies and acknowledge employees as critical success factors (Berry, Hensel, and Burke 1976). A range of empirical studies have given evidence to the impact of internal marketing on service quality (Aburoub, Hersh, and Aladwan 2011; Tsai and Tang 2008; Yang 2010) and business performance (Hwang and Chi 2005; Zaman et al. 2012).

Internal marketing is basically about activating internal resources to serve the external customer at its best. Therefore, it is key in service industries (Foreman and Money 1995) like banking (Kelemen and Papasolomou 2007; Aburoub et al. 2011; Shelash Al-Hawary et al. 2013), healthcare (Peltier et al. 2006; Yang 2010) or tourism (Hwang and Chi 2005; Abzari et al. 2011), but relevant to every type of organization (Roberts-Lombard 2010). Piercy and Morgan (1991) see internal marketing as an element of strategic marketing and thus as a logical complement to all external marketing activities.

They criticize that for many years the focus had invariably been on the external environment, ignoring that the internal market must be taken into account when strategies are internally implemented. This broader view of internal marketing, which differs from the initial opinion in the respect that internal marketing is solely relevant in service sectors where employees have direct customer contact, is also shared by George (1990, p. 63): “Internal marketing focuses on achieving effective internal exchanges between the organization and its employee groups as a prerequisite for successful exchanges with external markets.” He regarded internal marketing as a holistic management process that aims to raise employee’s awareness towards company’s activities and enhance overall service orientation through employee training programs.

Since an employee’s performance highly depends on his competencies, behaviors, motivation and job satisfaction, internal marketing includes measures derived from human resource management (Peltier et al. 2006; (Shelash Al-Hawary et al. 2013). Employee empowerment, training and communication are some typical measures which seem to be very promising in this context (ELSamen and Alshurideh 2012). Team building sessions can strengthen the relationships between managers and employees, keeping in mind the idea of treating employees as customers (Roberts-Lombard 2010). Typical marketing instruments of internal marketing are internal newsletters, internal advertising campaigns, awards and recognitions (Joseph 1996; Peltier et al. 2006; Roberts-Lombard 2010).

Overall four complementary views on internal marketing can be identified (Arndt 1983; Hwang and Chi 2005):

- The idea behind internal marketing is to see jobs as products and to treat employees as internal customers.
- Internal marketing makes internal exchange processes between organizations and employees efficient, and therefore is a precondition for successful external market activities.
- Similar to external marketing, internal marketing comprises marketing strategies and techniques to establish customer responsiveness.
- Internal marketing should be aligned with human resource management in order to equip employees with respective knowledge, skills and motivation.

Internal marketing may be interchangeably used with internal market orientation (Lings and Greenley 2005). However, internal market orientation is more accepted as the underlying philosophy of internal marketing (Gounaris 2006; Lings 2004; Lings and Greenley 2005). Internal market orientation emerged as an equivalent to the concept of market orientation and called for greater attention to be paid to the internal customer as an integral part of the entire value chain (Conduit and Mavondo 2001; Gounaris 2006; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater 1990; Tsai and Chi 2015).

In summary, the concept of internal marketing, initially developed for specific business needs to increase perceived service quality, has transformed into a holistic management process to advance internal exchanges. It is described by Rafiq and Ahmed (1993, p. 220) as "a part of wider movement within marketing led by Kotler (…) to broaden the activities and concept of marketing." The marketing concept was extended by a broader understanding of the customer, mainly shaped by the total quality management philosophy (Mohr-Jackson 1991).

3.1.2.5 Growing acceptance of services marketing as a marketing subdiscipline

In the past decades, service industries have grown in importance in the economy (Baron, Warnaby, and Hunter-Jones 2014; George and Barksdale 1974). But the prevailing goods-marketing didn't offer any solutions on how to handle service specifics such as intangibility, simultaneity of production and consumption, and lack of ownership (Grönroos 1982; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985). Both academics and practitioners have long realized the necessity to broaden the scope of marketing and develop new concepts for service firms (Lovelock 1983). Between the 1970s and 1990s, services marketing became accepted as an academic sub-field of marketing (Berry and Parasuraman 1993).

Fisk et al. (1993) identified three stages reflecting the legitimation process of services marketing. During the first stage (pre-1980s), scholars took up discussions about how much services marketing differs from goods marketing (Grönroos 1978; Shostack 1977). For instance, Judd (1964) derived service-specific implications for marketing from his attempt to redefine services. In addition, Rathmell (1966) tried to work out marketing characteristics of services. For example, he referred to the role of the customer, who is more dependent on the supplier in the consumption of services than in the consumption of goods. The second stage in the 1980s was characterized by a growing body of literature about services marketing (Bateson 1989; Gummesson 1980; Lovelock 1983; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985) and the first edition of the Journal of Services Marketing in 1987 (Martin 2012). By the 1990s, services marketing was broadly legitimized as established field within the marketing discipline (Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Fisk, Brown, and Bitner 1993).

By referring back to the specific characteristics of services addressed in Section 2.1.3, services marketing is strongly shaped by the fact that service delivery is associated with a process rather than with an outcome (Grönroos 1998). Consequently, the customers' service experience highly depends on the interactions and the relationships with the service supplier. That is why services marketing is closely related to relationship marketing and internal marketing (Baron, Warnaby, and Hunter-Jones 2014; Foreman and Money 1995; Gummesson 1987; Rafiq and Ahmed 1993; Weber 2015). Thus, successful services marketing should include internal marketing measures that create highly satisfied employees, who are motivated and willing to serve the external customer as best as they can (Grönroos 1978).

In conclusion, services marketing emerged as a result of sharp criticism on the traditional marketing management (Skålén 2009; Skålén, Fellesson, and Fougère 2006) that lacked appropriate principles, terminologies and tools to be applied to the services (Shostack 1977). The service-oriented marketing approach is part of a substantial rethinking in marketing and provides the backdrop for the era of the service-dominant logic that endures to this day (Baron, Warnaby, and Hunter-Jones 2014).

3.1.2.6 The service-dominant logic as the prevailing marketing concept

As the previous chapter demonstrates, for over 40 years marketing literature has engaged in services research. During that period, most attention has been paid to investigating the distinct nature of services and services marketing. Over the years, the focus of "services" (plural) has switched to a focus of "service" (singular) by introducing a fundamental shift in marketing (Baron, Warnaby, and Hunter-Jones 2014). The service-dominant logic (S-D logic), based on the works of Vargo and Lusch (Lusch, Vargo, and O'Brien 2007; Vargo 2011; Vargo and Lusch 2004, 2008; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008), is widely recognized as one of the major recent evolutions in marketing (Ballantyne and Varey 2008; Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Hilton and Hughes 2013; Terblanche 2014). It defines service as the application of knowledge and skills, summarized as competences, that are then transferred from one entity to another (Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008). Service becomes the principal unit of exchange, which is, in contrast to goods, not static and not discrete. As an operant resource, service is highly intangible, infinite and dynamic, and is embedded in the process of exchange (Vargo and Lusch 2004).

This logic has led to a fundamental change in the way value creation is seen. Value is neither embedded in output nor determined by the organization any more. Instead, it is defined by and co-created during service exchanges with the customer (Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008). Since the emergence of the S-D logic, considerable interest has risen among researchers to further examine and develop the concept of value co-creation (Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Edvardsson, Tronvoll, and Gruber 2011; C.K. Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004a), for instance in B2B marketing (Lambert and Enz 2012), internal marketing (Grace and Lo Iacono 2015b) or brand building (Ind, Iglesias, and Schultz 2013). The characteristics of the S-D logic become even more evident when comparing them to the ones of the classical goods-dominant logic (G-D logic). They are adopted from Vargo and Lusch (2004) and Vargo et al. (2008) and displayed in Table 9.

Table 9: Goods-dominant logic versus service-dominant logic

	G-D logic	**S-D-logic**
Value driver	"value-in-exchange"	"value-in-use"
Creator of value	Firm, often with input from firms in a supply chain	Firm, network partners, and customers
Process of value creation	Firms embed value in goods or services, value is "added"	Firms propose value through market offerings, customers continue value-creation process through use
Purpose of value	Increase wealth for the firm	Increase adaptability, survivability, and system wellbeing through service (applied knowledge and skills) of others
Measurement of value	The amount of nominal value, price received in exchange	The adaptability and survivability of the beneficiary system
Determination and meaning of value	Determined by producer	Perceived and determined by consumer on the basis of "value-in-use"
Resources used	Primarily operand resources	Primarily operant resources, sometimes transferred by embedding them in operand resources-goods
Role of firm	Production and distribution of value	Offering and co-creating value, providing service
Role of goods	Units of output; operand resources embedded with value	Transmitters of operant resources (embedded knowledge); used by operant resources such as customers as appliances in the value-creation process
Role of the customer	Using value, consuming; recipient of goods	Customer as co-creator of value, operant resource

The major difference of both concepts is the basis of exchange. The G-D logic focuses primarily on the exchange of "operand" resources. These are physical and tangible resources or production factors used and transformed to achieve certain effects. In contrast, the S-D logic deals with the exchange of intangible "operant" resources such as knowledge and skills, that serve to act on operand resources. Thus, operant resources are the means to produce effects on operand resources (Constantin and Lusch 1994; Vargo and Lusch 2004). According to the G-D logic, value is created by transforming raw material into products, delivering these products to a customer, and receiving money in exchange. In contrast, the S-D logic supports the value-in-use meaning. From this perspective, value is mutually created by supplier and customer. Both actors are co-creators of the same output. Their roles are not distinct (Vargo and Lusch 2008; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008). While the G-D logic sees value creation taking place between firms in a supply chain, the S-D logic understands value creation occurring between firms and their multiple stakeholders such as network partners, customers, employees, etc.

With the emergence of the S-D logic, the meaning of value creation has undergone a shift from "exchange" to "use" (Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; C.K. Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004a; Terblanche 2014). From a service system perspective, no distinction is made between customers and suppliers. Rather, all economic and social actors within a system are considered as resource integrators, producing value that contributes to the system's overall well-being. Thus, referring to the system approach, value creation is associated with the improvement of the system's well-being, determined by its ability to adapt to and to fit in its environment (Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008).

Having its roots in the resourced-based view (Conner and Prahalad 1996; Hunt 2000; Srivastava, Fahey, and Christensen 2001) and the core competency theory (Day 1994; Prahalad and Hamel 1990), the S-D logic views marketing as a learning process by which the identification and development of core competencies provide a potential competitive advantage. In this sense, it is a major task of service-oriented marketing to create and maintain network relations that are beneficial to the social and economic exchange of operant resources (Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Vargo and Lusch 2004). The S-D logic is grounded in exchange paradigms (Bagozzi 1975; Hunt 1976; Kiel and Lusch 1992) and relationship marketing approaches (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Peterson 1995), including network theory (Powell 1990; Snow, Miles, and Coleman 1992).

However, the S-D logic requires a deep understanding of and responsiveness to market requirements (Day 1994) and customer needs (Slater and Narver 1995). It goes far beyond customer orientation, and in doing so, sheds new light on the customer's role in marketing exchanges (Archpru Akaka and Chandler 2011; Terblanche 2014). During the past decades the customer has become increasingly involved in the production of value, as reflected by former concepts on customer participation (Kelley, Donnelly Jr., and Skinner 1990; Lovelock and Young 1979; Mills, Chase, and Margulies 1983) and the growing amount of publications about value co-creation (Baron and Warnaby 2011; Bharti, Agrawal, and Sharma 2015; Lambert and Enz 2012). Citing Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004b), "[T]he role of the consumer in the industrial system has changed from isolated to connected, from unaware to informed, from passive to active." This is reflected by other evolving social roles associated with consumers, such as "partial employees" (Kelley et al. 1990), "working consumer" (Cova and Dalli 2009) and "prosumer" (Seran (Potra) and Izvercian 2014), and numerous articles on customer empowerment (Camacho, De Jong, and Stremersch 2014; Pranic and Roehl 2012). In the process of co-creation, both customer and supplier integrate and apply their resources to exchange service that offer value-in-use. Within those reciprocal relationships of co-creation, both partners operate at an equal level (Baron et al. 2010; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008).

The new service-centered marketing logic has provoked different reactions among marketing experts, ranging from enthusiasm (Ballantyne and Varey 2008; Bolton et al. 2004) to skepticism (Achrol and Kotler 2006; Ambler 2006; O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2011; Schembri 2006). For instance, O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy (2011) refer to the service-dominant logic as a "backward step" since it classifies every business as a service provider and thus draws on a vague and meaningless definition of service and service organization. From their point of view, a definition of a service organization is appropriate when it would be opposable to a non-service-organization.

In spite of the criticism, the service-dominant logic has fundamentally broadened and reframed marketing. It builds upon a holistic and inclusive concept of service, applicable to all kinds of marketing offerings, as it refers to the interactive "process of doing something for someone" (Ballantyne and Varey 2008, p. 11). This radical change in perspective, indicated by the shift from a goods-centered to a service-centered logic, acknowledges service as the fundamental basis of exchange and goods as a service appliance (Lusch and Vargo 2006; Vargo and Lusch 2004). Hence, this broadened view involves "actors" rather than just customers because service exchanges take place among many different actors during multiple processes of interactions (Chandler and Lusch 2015; Sampson 2012).

3.1.3 Implications from marketing for the departmental context

The preceding sections described the eras of marketing as well as highlighting specific stages in marketing. It is this evolution of marketing that has established the prerequisite conditions to transfer marketing elements to the context of an internal department's visibility and legitimacy. From the manifestation of marketing to a managerial perspective, away from a goods-centric to a generic understanding, the evolving understanding that relationships in every direction create value, be they lateral or external, the expanding consideration that employees are an important object of marketing themselves, seeing marketing of services as an object and establishing a critical understanding of co-creation of value in the service-dominant logic – these developments have established the foundation for a transfer to the departmental context.

The relevance of these developments become apparent when taking the context of the internal support function as a department, as described in Chapter 2. With the department's necessity for better visibility and legitimacy to compete in its own market environment it is faced with a number of challenges which lie in the area and context of this broadened understanding of marketing. The department's management in the outset is faced with a managerial challenge. As a marketer for business organizations – in this case the support function, it is dependent on lateral relationships to peer departments to create value that hinges on primary functions being able to rely and trust on the support function. And finally, internal support functions have an enduring need to motivate employees as an object for internal marketing while giving consideration to the fact that internal support functions deliver services to peer departments in co-creation with their customers. In summary, with the evolution of broadening the necessary basis for transfer to the departmental context have been established. Elements from marketing can contribute to address the internal department's need for visibility and legitimacy.

3.2 The evolutionary broadening of branding

With the evolution of marketing, branding has established itself as an own research stream in the marketing discipline (Balmer 2001a; Louro and Cunha 2001; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). This section investigates the evolution of branding by dividing it into its major eras. Further, it proposes a contemporary understanding of branding that allows a new application of branding in the context of this thesis.

3.2.1 Early references to the notions and meanings of "brand" and "branding"

Brands have existed since the dawn of civilization but have not held exactly the same meaning throughout time. The first so-called "proto brands" dated between 2250 BCE and 300 BCE fulfilled at least one of the subsequent criteria (Moore and Reid 2008):

- Providing information about the origin of the product by utilizing a visible sign, symbol or its own characteristically unique shape
- Pursuing marketing purposes such as sorting or storage
- Reducing risk and uncertainty of the consumer by simultaneously raising quality perception

Branding was a quite common trade practice of earlier civilizations (Sarkar and Singh 2005). For instance, at the time of the Greeks and Romans, signs engraved in stone pointed consumers to the way to the retailer (Riezebos et al. 2003). Roman trademarks have been identified on various products and material such as cheese, wine, knives, glassware, gold and silver (Paster 1969). In mediaeval times, craftsmen and merchants organized in guilds used trademarks as evidence of origin to facilitate the detection of false products and to ensure a monopoly on trade in its craft (Schechter 1925).

The origin of the term "brand" is not totally clear. Perhaps it emerged in the Middle Age as a derivation of the old Norse word "brandr." It can be translated into torch, burning or sword (Ferguson 1864) and is assumed to have been spread by the Vikings before it was adopted in everyday English (Riezebos, Kist, and Kootstra 2003). The word "brand" may also stem from the Old Germanic "brinn-an" (to burn) that described either the act, means or result of burning (Stern 2006). In any case, the term "branding" appeared in the 15th century to describe the act of marking livestock with a "brand," thereby ensuring that it could be assigned to its owner or respective organization (Oxford English Dictionary Online 2015). This understanding of the terminology is still present today (The Louisiana Department of Agriculture and Forestry 2015).

3.2.2 The evolving brand logic along the eras of the brand

This section describes the evolution of the brand's fundamental ideas and propositions by categorizing it into four eras adopted from Merz, He, and Vargo (2009). Although other classifications and paradigms of the concept of the brand exist in literature (Bastos and Levy 2012; Burmann, Halaszovich, and Hemmann 2012; Hampf and Lindberg-Repo 2011; Louro and Cunha 2001; Low and Fullerton 1994; Moore and Reid 2008; Riezebos, Kist, and Kootstra 2003; Roper and Parker 2006), the classification by Merz, He, and Vargo (2009) is selected because it investigates the evolution of branding along the dimensions used by Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka (2008) (see Table 9) to indicate the evolution of marketing from a goods-centric logic towards a service-centric logic (see Chapter 3.1.2.6). This allows for a better understanding of the broadening of branding in the context of the evolution of marketing.

The brand eras as identified by Merz, He, and Vargo (2009) are summarized in Table 10 and briefly explained in the subsequent sections.

Table 10: The four eras of the brand

Eras of the brand	Timeline	Fundamental ideas and propositions
Individual goods-focus brand era	1900 – 1930	*Brands as identifiers:* - Brands serve as means of identification and recognition - Brand value is embedded in physical goods and created when goods are sold (output orientation) - Brands are operand resources create value-in-exchange - Customers remain passive in the brand value creation process
Value-focus brand era	1930 – 1990	*Brands as functional images:*

- Functional value-focus branding - Symbolic value-focus branding		- The creation of unique brand images is key due to competitive pressure - Functional brands satisfy externally generated consumer needs - Brands are part of the external market offerings - Brands are operand resources create value-in-exchange (output orientation) - Customer is a passive actor in the value creation process *Brands as symbolic images:* - With the increasing similarity of products in terms of their functional benefits, brands are composed to fulfill internally generated consumption needs - Brands are more and more detached from market offerings and acknowledged as operant resources - Brand value is created through the sale of goods (output orientation) - Value is generated in exchange without active participation of the customer
Relationship-focus brand era - Customer-firm relationship focus - Customer-brand relationship focus - Firm-Brand Relationship Focus	1990 – 2000	*Brands as knowledge:* - Brand value is not embedded in physical goods anymore; its creation takes place in the minds of customer - Brands represent the consumer's knowledge - Consumers constitute operant resources - Brand value refers to the customers' perception of a brand's value-in-use *Brands as relationship partner:* - The brand's personality forms dyadic relationships with the consumer - Value is created during the process of relational interaction *Brands as promise:* - Internal customers are identified as important co-creators of brand value and operant resources
Stakeholder-focus brand era	2000 – present	*Brands as dynamic and social process:* - Not only customers but all stakeholders constitute operant resources - Brand value co-creation process is a continuous, social and highly dynamic and interactive process between the firm, the brand and all stakeholders

3.2.2.1 Individual goods-focus brand era (1900 - 1930)

Although brands had existed many years before, the brand concept entered marketing literature in the early 1900s (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009). By the beginning of industrialization in the mid-19th century, goods which had been manufactured by hand were now mass-produced in factories (Stern 2006). During the individual goods-focus brand era, an increasing number of products and brands entered the market. To stay ahead of competition, firms used brands to designate ownership and help customers to identify and recognize the manufacturer and his goods (Copeland 1923; Harvard Business Review 1925). Brands served as pure identifiers attached to the product. Consequently, brand value was seen as being embedded in the physical goods and as being created when goods are sold in a transactional way (output orientation). The brand was targeted towards the customer without involving him into the process of value creation (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009).

3.2.2.2 The value-focus era (1930 - 1990)

The value-focus brand era stands for a shift from brands as identifiers to brands as created perceptions. The communication of a clearly defined brand image was believed to enhance competitive advantage by enabling customers to differentiate the brand from competitive brands. Researches started to investigate brands first from their functional and later from their from symbolic benefits. By this, they began to see brands as an extension of the firm's goods (Martineau 1958; Tyler 1957). The focus on the functional benefits such as packaging, price and warrantees should ensure that potential customers perceive brands as means to satisfy their utilitarian needs.

In the mid-1950s, marketing scholars realized that customers were becoming less able to differentiate brands in terms of their functional benefits due to the fact that goods were becoming increasingly similar in this aspect. They soon learned that customers do not only search for functional brand benefits, but also for brands fulfilling internally generated, symbolic needs such as self-enhancement, social position, group membership or ego-identification (Gardner and Levy 1955; Park, Jaworski, and Maclnnis 1986).

For instance, the thoughts of Levy (1959, p. 118): "People buy things not only for what they can do. But also for what they mean." indicated the evolution of branding in this era towards a greater interest in understanding the relationship between symbolic needs and consumption. Although brand value was still determined through value-in-exchange, brand scholars started to take a different perspective of brand value not being more closely tied only to the product (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009).

3.2.2.3 The relationship-focus brand era (1990 - 2000)

Two major developments had a large influence in this era: the growing importance of corporate branding and the expansion in the perspective of branding to multiple relationships between the customer and the firm, between the customer and the brand, and between the firm and brand.

With the broadening of the branding concept and the growing importance of branding at corporate level, researchers in the 1980s and 1990s started to explore the concept of corporate brand identity (Abratt 1989; Balmer 1995; de Chernatony 1999; Harris and de Chernatony 2001). While previous product-centric branding approaches focused on visual symbolism and image formation concepts (Bird, Channon, and Ehrenberg 1970; Park, Jaworski, and Maclnnis 1986; Tyler 1957), the brand identity approach became the predominant concept for corporate branding as it better appreciated the need for a greater focus within the organization. In contrast to the former product and line branding, corporate branding required a more holistic framework that considers the co-ordination of internal and external activities, necessary to ensure cohesion and consistency in the delivery (Harris and de Chernatony 2001). Employees were acknowledged as critical interfaces between the brand's internal and external environments, since they represent the brand and carry brand messages to the customers (Balmer and Wilkinson 1991).

Based on the advances in marketing theory towards the concept of relationship marketing (see Section 3.1.2.3) as manifested by the integration of the customer into the company's business processes (Gummesson 1987; McKenna 1991; Riley and de Chernatony 2000; Sheth and Parvatiyar 1995), brands were increasingly accepted as relationship partners (Aggarwal 2004; Blackston 1992; Fournier 1998; Ji 2002). This brand era puts the internal and external customer at the heart of the creation of brand value, reflected by a shift in brand equity measurement from a goods-based view (Ailawadi, Neslin, and Lehmann 2003; Simon and Sullivan 1993) to a customer-based view (Keller and Lehmann 2006; Punj and Hillyer 2004). Brand scholars in this era started to investigate the role of the customer in the process of value creation. Aspects of co-creation and the notion of internal and external customers became dominant. With this also the argumentation shifted from brand value being created by a value-in-exchange logic to a value-in-use perspective as perceived by the customer (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1999; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009).

Merz, He, and Vargo (2009) identified three different types of relationships the relationship-focus brand era was concerned with: the relationship between the customer and the firm, between the customer and the brand and finally, between the firm and brand. They are briefly addressed in the following.

3.2.2.3.1 The customer-firm relationship focus

The customer-firm relationship focus was concerned with the question on how brand information provokes brand value in the customer's mind (Keller 1993). As opposed to the previous era, brand value was then considered to be entirely detached from the product and arising through relational interactions between the corporation and its customers (Lazzarini, Claro, and Mesquita 2008; Peterson 1995). Consequently, customers' brand decisions were not solely based on the perceived functional or symbolic brand value. Moreover, they were increasingly determined by relational aspects and thus became far more complex (Ravald and Grönroos 1996). This era represents a step forward in terms of the involvement of the customer into the process of value creation (Grönroos 2012). Customers were considered as co-creators of brand equity and brand value was embedded in the customers' perception and knowledge of the brand. A range of different brand equity models emerged during the 1990s highlighting the increased importance brands play as an operant resources in marketing strategy (Aaker 1996a; de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1999; Kapferer 2008) (see Section 4.5.1).

3.2.2.3.2 The customer-brand relationship focus

In the late 1990s, brands were increasingly seen as relationship partners (Fournier 1998; Kaltcheva and Weitz 1999; Webster 2000). Scientists realized that brands serve consumers as means of self-expression, self-definition and social integration (Escalas and Bettman 2005; Kim, Han, and Park 2001; Swaminathan, Page, and Gürhan-Canli 2007). For instance, Aaker (1997) investigated the symbolic use of brands by developing a theoretical framework of the brand personality dimensions. She proposed that brands have personality characteristics like humans and the more congruent they are, the greater the preference for the brand. In this sense, brand value is co-created through affective customer-brand relationships and is either determined through usage or consumption of the brand or pure perception of the brand (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009).

3.2.2.3.3 The firm-brand relationship focus

During the 1990s and early 2000s, employees were first acknowledged as "carriers of the brand's promise," who contribute to the construction process of strong corporate brands (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, and Crothers 2002; King 1991; Mitchell 1999; Vallaster 2004). The growing importance of the employee in the process of branding becomes evident, for instance, by the emergence of the service branding concept. Service branding is designated by Berry (2000, p. 128) as the "cornerstone of service marketing" and emerged as a response to an increasing need to shift from the narrow product branding concept to a more inclusive and broader concept that considers the specific characteristics of services (Berry 2000; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009). Service branding deals with supporting customers to better understand complex service offerings, reinforcing a unique customer experience, and enabling staff to create strong and trustful relationships with their customers (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1999). It acknowledges the firm's employees rather than the firm's products as the principal drivers of customer value (Berry 2000). For example, Moorthi (2002) suggested a comprehensive approach to service branding by applying Aaker's (1996a) brand identity framework to the 7Ps of services marketing and the economic classification of goods.

To conclude, it was this focus on employees as co-creators of the brand value (Grace and Lo Iacono 2015b; King 1991; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009) that aided the brand to become accepted as an integral part of firm (Dunn and Davis 2003) connecting all employees by providing a mutual platform for communication and exchange (Causon 2004).

3.2.2.4 The stakeholder-focus brand era (2000 - today)

The current era began in the 2000s and is designated by Merz, He, and Vargo (2009) as the "stakeholder-focus brand era." With the transition from the relationship era to the stakeholder era, dyadic relationships were expanded to network relationships with all stakeholders. This includes brand value as produced dynamically by social interactions within the entire network and embedded in the minds of the brand's stakeholders rather than embedded in the products (Ballantyne and Aitken 2007).

For instance, literature on brand communities highlights the changing nature of the brand and calls for a new paradigm that fits with the current digital age era (Cova and White 2010; Quinton 2013). Brand communities are defined by Muniz and O'Guinn (2001, p. 412) as "a specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relations among admirers of a brand." They are formed by its members and their relationships with each other on the basis of shared experiences, commonalities and mutual identification (McAlexander, Schouten, and Koenig 2002). From a brand community perspective, brands are defined as highly intangible, social objects that are mutually created by their community members. Accordingly, brand value is viewed as the brand community's product of co-creation based on the exchanges, discussions and interpretations of brand-related information (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). The brand is an intangible and social construction, and its value is located in the minds of its stakeholders (Ballantyne and Aitken 2007).

It is in this recent era when literature on branding started to align with the service-dominant logic (Ballantyne and Aitken 2007; Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006; Christodoulides 2008; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009; Payne et al. 2009). This became possible, similarly to the developments in the evolution of marketing, through the service stream of research which had highlighted the relevance of the customer experience as part of creating brand value (Berry 2000; Riley and de Chernatony 2000).

Based on the way Vargo and Lusch (2004) used the term "service marketing" to express the emerging service-centric logic as the reoriented philosophy in marketing, Brodie, Whittome, and Brush (2009) introduced the term "service brand" to refer to this broader perspective of branding. This is not meant to describe the process of branding services, but rather the service brand is understood as "relationship builder" that comes alive through the dynamic and social interactions of multiple stakeholders involved in the process of branding (Brodie, Whittome, and Brush 2009; Firat and Venkatesh 1995; Payne et al. 2009). This new understanding views the service brand as the holistic and integrative concept that is superordinate to the concept of goods or services branding (Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006).

During the broadening in this era two different developments have become apparent. First, branding has evolved ever deeper into the corporate level and understanding. New approaches emerged within the corporate context. They have become sub-disciplines of corporate branding. Second, completely new fields of branding emerged completely separated from the corporate context.

To the newly emerging fields in the corporate context internal branding is an example that focuses on measures aligning employees with the corporate brand values and encouraging and enabling them to elevate themselves to brand ambassadors (Asha and Jyothi 2013; Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Wilson 2009; Raj and Jyothi 2011). And within the internal branding context, for example, brand-specific leadership approaches focus on how leaders can support employees to create brand-building behaviors (Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2011; Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005). Another example is given through employer branding that developed into an own stream of research within the context of corporate branding. Employer branding aims to position the firm as an attractive employer. It strives to positively differentiate employers in the employment market and increase the efficiency in recruiting and retaining talented resources (Ambler and Barrow 1996; Cascio 2014; Vatsa 2016; Wilden, Gudergan, and Lings 2010).

These developments contribute also to an understanding of branding, not as a singular definition or approach to have the biggest impact, but instead as broader understanding. For instance, Collins, Crespin-Mazet, and Goglio-Primard (2011, p. 69) state:

> "The unifying power of the brand seems all the more important when it leaves room for multiple interpretations and translations by its various audiences. If it is too narrowly and

> strictly defined, the brand may limit the ability of agents to translate it into their own environment and, consequently, to identify with and implement it."

Also the emergence of completely new fields of branding is part of the current era and continues to grow. Examples are nation branding (Fan 2010; Herstein and Berger 2013), city branding (Crombie 2011; Kavaratzis 2004; Parkerson and Saunders 2005), political branding (Marsh and Fawcett 2011; Pich and Dean 2015) and the branding of public institutions branding such as art museums and universities (Judson et al. 2009; Pusa and Uusitalo 2014).

3.2.3 Implications from branding for the departmental context

The preceding sections have shown how branding has experienced similar to marketing a broadening of the concept. The evolution through which branding has transpired has established the prerequisites for a transfer to the context of departments and internal support functions. Starting from a narrow product only view, expanding to further product attributes, then to the symbolic nature and value the initial stages of branding recognized to create value for the customer – but without the customer being an actor or co-creator. The following relationship focus era with its shifting view to a customer-based measurement of brand equity for the customer put the internal and external customer at the heart of the creation of brand and thereby re-aligned the branding logic from a value-in-exchange logic to a value-in-use perspective as perceived by the customer. It is in this era that corporate branding as an important stream of branding emerged. The stakeholder era builds on the relationship era and puts further in focus the co-creation of brand equity in an even wider sense of community and multiple stakeholders. It is in thus current era in which the concept of branding evolved deeper into the corporate level and into completely new areas.

At this point it is important to mention two particular phenomena by comparing the broadening of branding and marketing. Firstly, it would seem that while branding similarly broadens as marketing has from goods- to a service- understanding it would seem to hinge always a step behind marketing – i.e. that marketing's broadening would seem to lead and that of branding would follow. See, for example, the later expansion of branding to a relationship era than marketing. Secondly, and in contrast, however it is with the emergence of the relationship era that branding has established itself in the corporate arena in its own right with corporate branding and may even been seen here as leading. While both disciplines have experienced broadening and deepening, it is possible to conclude that branding has evolved as a specific approach to steer company positioning and perception as well as to create a sense of relationship to the company via the brand. This development in branding becomes especially prevalent in the field of corporate branding.

In reference to the challenges of internal support functions as described in Chapter 2, branding has evolved into fields that may address the departments need for visibility and legitimacy. The internal-support functions by its nature a service-orientated department can rely on a value-in-use perspective to create brand equity, thus improving its legitimacy and visibility. It also the aspect of the co-creation process in internal support functions that coincides with branding's evolvement to see brand equity built on co-creation with not only the customer but also with the employees as stakeholders. Corporate branding in particular provides a number of specific elements that would seem to be of relevance to the departmental context. From its similar context at this introductory level, corporate branding lends itself as an object of focus to be transferred to the departmental context. This is further analyzed in next section of this thesis.

In summary, with the evolution of broadening in branding the necessary basis for transfer to the departmental context have been established. Elements from branding can contribute to address the internal department's need for visibility and legitimacy. Branding, especially corporate branding, based on the apparent closeness, to a department, and its dominance in the corporate and organizational setting lends itself as the primary object of transfer to the needs of internal support functions.

3.3 Transfer to the departmental context

This section transfers current understandings of branding to the departmental context. Firstly, examples of transfer in existing literature are presented and compared. From the patterns of these transfer examples, conclusions are drawn what criteria a transfer should be subject to. Subsequently, the corporate branding approach is transferred to the subject of organizational sub-units in the last section of this chapter. This new approach is called "departmental branding."

3.3.1 Examples of transfer in literature

Branding has permeated into several other fields beyond the classical consumer goods branding, as shown by recent examples (Berry 2000; Boo, Busser, and Baloglu 2009; Christodoulides 2008; Hemsley-Brown et al. 2016). This section firstly takes three exemplary areas of previous research in the broadening of branding to identify commonalities and differences for the transfer of branding that serve the further sections of this chapter. Transfer examples from product to service and from corporate branding to other objects such as were analyzed in the assumption that the transfer from service- and corporate branding is particularly relevant for this thesis.

3.3.1.1 The transfer of product branding to services

Spurred by previous assumptions that classical marketing and branding techniques might not be entirely applicable to services (Turley and Moore 1995; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985), de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1999) suggested how the concept of the brand, developed in relation to physical good, should be adjusted to comply with service characteristics. To explore the special challenges faced by service branding, they analyzed literature and then discussed their findings during in-depth interviews with leading brand consultants. Based on this, they derived service branding principles that underline possible differences in emphasis when applying branding techniques in the service context.

By investigating the applicability of the brand definition for goods and services, de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1999) found that the concept of the brand is basically the same for products and services when brands are viewed through an output perspective (de Chernatony 1993). The output perspective draws on brands as a result of branding activities, namely as the associations, meanings and experiences that reside in the customers' minds (Martineau 1958; Pitcher 1985). As an example, Fan (2010, p. 98) uses an output-related definition for nation brands by defining them as "the mental image of the country held by foreign people."

In contrast, the input-related perspective views brands as the creation or product of the manufacturer or supplier (de Chernatony 1993). Input-related brand definitions emphasize input factors such as brand identity elements, such as logo, name, personality or other brand attributes that are defined by brand managers (Aaker 1989; Faust and Eilertson 1994). However, the fact that neither a pure output-related, nor a pure input-related perspective entirely addresses the complex mechanisms of brands, has encouraged a number of authors to adopt a process-based perspective that links managers' branding activities with customer's perceptions (Camp 1996; Morrall 1995; Saunders and Watters 1993).

By referring to this process-related perspective and the findings of their study, de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1999) concluded that the meaning of brands at the conceptual level tend to be the same between products and services since brands were often associated with the perceptions in customers' minds (output perspective). However, at the operational level, when branding is put into practice (input perspective), there are vital differences between product and service branding principles. In fact, this is not a new observation, as reflected by former discussions about product and service marketing principles (Fitzgerald 1988; Gummesson 1980; Shostack 1977). For instance, Grönroos (1978) is convinced that classical marketing mix models are not entirely applicable to companies in service industries. He pointed out that due to the service's inseparability of production and consumption, the planning of marketing variables must be more integrated compared to the traditional marketing mix. In addition, the customer is more accountable for the delivered service quality, as he actively takes part in shaping the service offerings. Finally, Grönroos (1978) stressed that a favorable corporate image is vital to transform intangible service offerings into concrete, accessible and attractive service offerings.

Based on these insides from previous service marketing discussions, de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1999) recommended that services marketing and branding execution techniques should focus on building relationships with customers. To achieve this, firms must invest in staff recruitment, training and internal communications. In addition, they advised to build a strong corporate brand and make it relevant to employees. Further studies within the same area of research underline the role of internal branding practices to ensure that the brand identity and the brand positioning is aligned with employee behaviors (Causon 2004; King and Grace 2008; Sirianni et al. 2013).

To conclude, de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1999) proposed an effective method in order to transfer a classical goods branding concept to a service context. They made clear that is necessary to consider both, the conceptual level and the operational level, in order to check whether the principles of branding are valid in the new context. To formulate new branding principles, they identified differences and similarities between goods and services and based on this, derived service branding principles.

3.3.1.2 The transfer of product branding to geographical entities

A marketing practice that has recently gained significant interest among academics and practitioners is branding geographical entities. In that field a variety of subdisciplines have emerged, including city branding (Kavaratzis 2004, 2009; Trueman, Klemm, and Giroud 2004), destination branding (Blain, Levy, and Ritchie 2005; Hankinson 2007), nation branding (Fan 2010; Fetscherin and Marmier 2010), place branding (Hanna and Rowley 2008) and country branding (Herstein and Berger 2013; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002).

For example, Kotler and Gertner (2002) were among the pioneers exploring the nature of country brands. They wanted to know whether a country can be a brand and branding a measure to promote a country's image, attractiveness and products. In the first section of their paper, they refer to brands in general as means to differentiate products, create social and emotional value, spread value promises, speed up customers' information processing and learning, and enhance the perceived utility and desirability of a product. They agree with Lassar, Mittal, and Sharma (1995) that brand equity embraces multiple dimensions, such as performance, identification, social image and trustworthiness.

In the further course of their paper, Kotler and Gertner (2002) provide numerous examples of how country images have contributed to influence people's purchasing, investing, changing residence or travelling decisions. As an example, customers are more willing to buy products from industrialized nations. Products labeled with "made in Germany" or "made in Switzerland" tend to be regarded as high quality products (Wang and Lamb 1983).

Kotler and Gertner (2002) conclude that countries, beyond serving as brand names, can be seen as products competing for tourists, businesses, investments and talented people. In order to stay competitive, countries should invest in conscious country branding and create an image that is close to reality, believable, appealing and distinctive. Necessary steps in the creation of a strong country brand strategy comprise:

- determining the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities and threats of the country,
- then, choosing a unique set of brand characteristics to create a competitive and distinct brand,
- developing and implementing consistent branding activities,
- and finally, ensuring that the "product" is reliable and delivers the brand promise.

In conclusion, Kotler and Gertner (2002) developed a country branding approach by treating and analyzing countries as special kinds of products. They achieve a conceptual understanding for country brands by enumerating various examples and contexts in which the characteristics of country brands become apparent. Based on this, they derive a conceptual framework on how to establish and manage country brands.

3.3.1.3 The transfer of corporate branding to geographical entities

Another example of transference in the field of destination branding is provided by Hankinson (2007). He investigated the relevance and potential contribution of recent branding theory to the management of destination brands. By comparing destination brands with mainstream product and service brands, he explored six characteristics of destination brands that constitute the basis for the development of a new branding framework for destinations. They include, for instance, that place brand are always co-created by multiple public or private organizations and that they tend to be simultaneously consumed by different consumers for different purposes.

When reviewing emerging corporate brand literature in a second step, Hankinson (2007) discovered that destination brands and corporate brands share sufficient similarities to transfer a corporate branding approach to destination brands. Both type of brands need to communicate with their multiple stakeholders, should be managed at a high organizational level and require a strong internal coordination and cooperation to be successfully established. Based on this, he derived five guiding principles for destination branding. They underscore a strong, visionary leadership style, a brand-oriented organizational culture, departmental co-ordination and process alignment, consistent communications across a wide range of stakeholders, and strong and compatible partnerships.

In contrast to Kotler and Gertner (2002) who created a country branding framework by referring to practical examples and contexts, Hankinson took advantage of existing and emerging corporate branding literature in order to derive a country branding approach. A similar approach was used by Fan (2010) for nation branding. Corporate branding techniques have been also applied for cities (Ashworth and Kavaratzis 2009; Kavaratzis 2009; Trueman and Cornerlius 2006). For example, Trueman et al. (2004) were able, through the means of Balmer and colleagues' AC^{2}ID test of corporate identity management (Balmer and Greyser 2002; Balmer and Soenen 1999; Balmer 2001b), to detect inconsistencies between Bradford's brand identity communicated by the local government and the stakeholders' perceptions of Bradford.

3.3.1.4 Conclusion

The examples described in this chapter deliver a number of methodical insights for the transfer of an existing branding concept to the new field of departmental branding. Firstly, all three examples take on an approach to investigate similarities and differences between the existing reference object and the new object in focus. For the purpose of this thesis this approach of comparison can be adopted. Secondly, the three examples show different research methods and methods of transfer, from interviews over to practical experience and literature research. Here it remains open which research method is appropriate. In summary, it appears there is no single best method of transfer and for each new broadening of the discipline the context factors associated with the research approach require a customized approach of transfer.

3.3.2 Departmental branding – a corporate branding based differentiation

Corporate branding has been cited in the earlier sections of this chapter as lending itself as the main object of transfer for a definition of departmental branding. This section investigates this transfer by firstly distinguishing clearly the nature of corporate branding in comparison to product branding. Then, using the same dimensions of comparison, a transfer is made from corporate to departmental branding.

3.3.2.1 Key differences between product and corporate branding

In the selection of an appropriate brand approach it is possible to take a dichotomy of brand approaches as a starting point to then derive which approach may be better suited for transfer to the departmental branding context. As extensively shown in their study, Balmer and Gray (2003) demonstrated the key distinguishing elements between product and corporate branding. They are displayed in Table 11 and summarized below.

Table 11: Product branding versus corporate branding

	Product branding	**Corporate branding**
Management responsibility	Brand manager	Chief executive
Functional responsibility	Marketing	Most/all departments
General responsibility	Marketing personnel	All personnel
Disciplinary roots	Marketing	Multidisciplinary
Brand gestation	Short	Medium to long
Stakeholder focus	Consumers	Multiple stakeholders
Values	Contrived	Real
Communications channels	The marketing communications mix	Total corporate communications - Primary: performance of products and services; organizational policies; behavior of CEO and senior management; experience of personnel and discourse by personnel - Secondary: marketing and other forms of controlled communication - Tertiary: word of mouth
Dimensions requiring alignment	- Brand values (covenant) - Product performance	- Brand values (covenant) - Identity (corporate attributes/sub cultures) - Corporate strategy - Vision (as held by the CEO and senior management)
	- Communication - Experience/image and reputation - Consumer commitment	- Communication - Experience/image and reputation - Stakeholders commitment
	Environment (political, economic, ethical, social, technological)	Environment (political, economic, ethical, social, technological)

Based on Balmer and Gray (2003, p. 978)

In summary, there are three key differences Balmer and Gray (2003) highlight. The first is the nature from where the brand value is derived from. While for products they state the brand is "artificially" developed by marketers, for corporate brands it is built of factual happenings, history and people that build the value. Secondly, the role of employees is critically different. In corporate branding, employees acting as an interface of the brand's internal and external environment exert a great influence on how the corporate brand is perceived by its stakeholders. They transmit the brand's value and create the overall brand experience (Balmer and Wilkinson 1991). In product branding, this is only relevant for the respective product owners in the firm. Lastly, corporate branding is important for the company as a whole, while the importance of a product is generally restricted to the middle management that owns the responsibility of that product.

It is this limited scope of product branding that disqualifies it from being applied to the challenges of internal support functions, while the wider scope, stakeholder inclusive perspective of corporate branding, makes it even more clear as a transfer object to the context of an internal support function. Corporate branding is based on central concepts extracted from organizational theory, such as corporate identity, organizational culture, organization values (Abratt 1989; Fiol 1991; Hatch and Schultz 1997). They can be adopted for departmental branding because corporations and departments are organizations. For instance, Knox and Bickerton 2003 (p. 998) define the corporate brand as "the visual, verbal and behavioral expression of an organization's unique business model." Organization may refer to both corporation and department.

3.3.2.2 Key similarities and differences of corporate- and departmental branding

Before discussing the similarities and differences between the corporate branding approach and departmental branding, it is important to recollect the key similarities and key differences between corporations and departments.

Organizations are defined as "coalitions of groups and interests" (Pfeffer and Salancik 2003, p. 36), "systems of consciously coordinated activities" (Barnard 1968, p. 81), "pools of resources or corporative actors" or "social entities" (Kieser and Kubicek 1992, pp. 1, 4). Organizations arise when at least two people, pursuing the same goals in the long run, are willing to divide their labor in an efficient and effective manner; therefore, deciding to collaborate in formal structures (Barnard 1968). From a system theory approach, the organization is a subordinate unit of a larger system that itself consists of little subsystems, such as specialized departments (Barnard 1962). The organization and its subunits can be considered as a sort of self-contained, autonomous organization acting in its respective environment. For this reason, (Mintzberg 1979, p. 32) referred to organizational subunits as "mini organizations" or "organizations in an organization." Departments are "distinct subsystems" that perform specific tasks to the benefits of the corporation. While corporations are exposed to a larger and more heterogeneous external environment, departments are subject to the policies, rules and social norms of the corporation (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967, p. 3). In its foundation departments show similar but also distinct characteristics.

3.3.2.2.1 Key similarities

Management responsibility while resting with the corporate CEO in corporate branding, in the case of departmental branding the respective department head is responsible. While the leveling is different, both have the responsibility and necessity to include all employees in their respective span of control – all employees of the company or those of the department respectively. Similarly, the disciplinary roots are multidisciplinary. Departmental branding requires a multidisciplinary approach with organizational theory, human resources and marketing playing a pivotal role (Balmer and Gray 2003; King 1991). Another similarity is that corporate and departmental branding is directed towards multiple stakeholder inside and outside the company. Employees play a pivotal role in building and maintaining corporate brands, since they provide the interface between the internal and external environments and as such transmit the brand's values to the company's stakeholders (Balmer 1995; King 1991). This applies for departmental brands as well. Employees are important touchpoints for departmental brands, because they represent the department they are working for. The way they behave and treat colleagues from other departments is likely to be associated with the departmental brand. Lastly, both face a medium to long brand gestation, for it permeate through all stakeholders and be perceived in a coherent manner. Both corporate and departmental branding require stakeholder commitment for their legitimacy and value.

3.3.2.2.2 Key differences

In contrast to the similarities cited above between corporate- and departmental branding, there are a number of key differences – in particular in the stakeholder focus.

While corporate branding generally has a focus on the external customer's perception of the corporate brand, as indicated also by the customer brand equity concept (see Section 4.5.1.1), departmental branding mainly addresses internal customers. As outlined in Section 2.2.1, internal customer-supplier relationships differ in some respects from external customer-supplier relationships. This has several implications for departmental branding. To provide an example, internal customers are usually more dependent from their internal suppliers because as they cannot choose among different suppliers. This applies, for example, when the marketing department is assigned to a designated HR business partner who takes the role of the internal supplier when supporting the marketing department in recruiting new staff members. In this case, departmental branding measures should not aim at impressing internal customers through elaborately staged customer events, but rather at fostering the relationship between both partners, or at increasing service quality, for instance, by asking the marketing department for regular feedback.

Another difference is the source of their values – while both will derive their value orientation from real occurrences and factual situations, possibly even managers – an internal department is always subject to change, re-organization and possibly shift of focus to better serve the corporate goal. Thus, while a corporation may look back on over "a hundred year" history – many of the departments in the organization have evolved, changed, merged, or even deceased to exist. Furthermore, while the CEOs of a company may build on the "heritage" of the founding fathers of the company – and be their implicit "heirs," the head of a department is normally not as much glorified, and the predecessors are more quickly forgotten than remembered. While at this stage this is only a hypothesis it requires further investigation in this thesis for a research based answer from where then value – while being real – can come from for departmental branding.

Communication channels while seemingly similar in their application also demonstrate differences sparked by the nature of the department. While in today's organizations many corporations have dedicated departments for the communication needs for corporate branding, for example, communication departments, branding departments, investor relations and also sustainability officers to name a few – an individual department by its nature of being an expert function does not have these resources. Furthermore, it remains to be investigated for the departmental context – which of these are at all truly necessary, as for example an internal department has less interaction with external customers to establish its visibility and legitimacy.

3.3.3 Departmental branding – additional critical considerations

In order to distinguish departmental branding from corporate branding additional considerations are taken to further differentiate. These are discussed in relevance to the generic goals of branding and the differences from an input, output and process definition of the brand.

3.3.3.1 Differences with reference to the generic goals of branding

This section discusses to what extent the generic goals of corporate and product branding in terms of gaining differentiation and brand preference are applicable to the departmental context.

Corporate branding, as branding in general has been developed through a number of different schools, seeing brands, for instance, as marks denoting ownership, image building devices, symbols associated with key values, means of identity construction, risk reduction and experience creation (Balmer and Gray 2003; Moore and Reid 2008; Schmitt 1999). Besides all these different utilities, the basic goal of branding to create differentiation and preference has remained unchanged. By drawing on the traditions of product branding, where branding was used to create preference for a product and service to boost sales, corporate branding aims to turn the corporation into a unique and preferred supplier of goods or services to remain competitive over the long term (Bastos and Levy 2012; Hulberg 2006; Knox and Bickerton 2003).

At the departmental level, differentiation from others is of similar importance, especially when market mechanisms are brought into the firm, for instance, by decentralizing pricing decisions to independently organized service units or profit centers (Gummesson 1987; Poppo 1995). As these departments compete with other internal or external service providers, they need to develop strategies in order to stay competitive (Cohen and Lachman 1988). Along with the cost leadership strategy, differentiation is a common way of gaining competitive advantage (Porter 2004) and branding is proposed within this thesis as a way of differentiating departments from other departments or external suppliers.

However, most departments of the firm tend to have a supplier monopoly and therefore are not exposed to competitive pressure in the classical sense (Davis 1991; Künzel 1999). Moreover, they compete for other scarce resources such as power, budget, personnel, top management awareness, recognition and legitimacy (Hybels 1995; Tyler 2006; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). To gain and retain access to these vital resources, they need to be visible and relevant for decision makers and other important stakeholders. Consequently, brand differentiation can be considered as an important goal of departmental branding because it contributes to create a distinct and meaningful and recognizable brand identity (He et al. 2016; Janonis, Dovalienė, and Virvilaitė 2007).

When comparing departmental brands with product and corporate brands, brand differentiation is used for different purposes. Product branding and corporate branding seek differentiation as a first step towards creating brand preference (Balmer and Gray 2003; Ebrahim et al. 2016). However, the concept of brand preference cannot be fully adopted for departmental branding, since most departments usually do not strive for preference in the sense that they aspire to become the preferred supplier among other departments.

Furthermore, and in contrast to corporate branding, utilizing branding to promote departmental differentiation can have negative effects as well. As an example, perceived differences between different groups, for instance, regarding their goal orientation and perception of reality can lead to intergroup conflicts and difficulties in achieving collaboration (March and Simon 1958; Ronken 1952). As discussed in Section 2.2.3, a high degree of departmental differentiation can raise the amount of efforts needed to achieve integration necessary for effective performance (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967).

3.3.3.2 Differences from an input, output and process definition of the brand

As previously outlined, brand definitions that follow a service-centric logic are more likely to fit into new contexts than traditional goods-centric definitions (Collins, Crespin-Mazet, and Goglio-Primard 2011). However, adopting a service-centric approach for defining brands also bears the risk of being unspecific and meaningless, as some researchers criticize (Achrol and Kotler 2006; Ambler 2006; O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2011; Schembri 2006). For instance, a service-centric understanding may view the departmental brand as the department's social and dynamic processes of co-creating value with their stakeholders. This definition is broad and flexible in its nature and thereby allows for various interpretations and translations by the brand's multiple stakeholders. But it also lacks a more concrete description of the specific nature of the departmental brand. In this regard, it is unclear, for instance, to what extent the concept of the departmental brand distinguishes from the concept of the corporate brand. However, these insights are important to further investigate and conceptualize departmental branding.

By drawing on de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley's (1999) approach to distinguish service from product brands (see 3.3.1.1), the departmental brand is analyzed and compared to product branding by taking into account three definitions of the brand: the input-, output- and process perspective.

The input perspective represents the organization's efforts of defining and establishing the brand. At this implementation level brand creators determine, for instance, a distinct brand personality, name and visual identity of the corporate brand (Faust and Eilertson 1994). With reference to the specific characteristics of internal support functions (Chapter 2), the department can be differentiated through, for instance, their specific organizational embedding, their distinct internal service offerings or their organizational roles. These elements are assumed to be specific for departmental brands, also for the reason that they have not been mentioned within corporate branding literature to be relevant for corporate brands (de Chernatony 1999; Kapferer 2008). Further investigations are necessary to identify the specific nature of departmental brands, and by this their sources of differentiation.

The output perspective views brands as the result of all branding activities, such as the associations, meanings and experiences that reside in the stakeholders' minds (Martineau 1958; Pitcher 1985). It refers to the total sum of all perceptions of the brand held by their multiple stakeholders (de Chernatony 1993). As already concluded by de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1999), the meaning of brands from an output-related definition of the brand tend to be the same for products and service brands. It is also assumed to be the same for corporate and departmental brands. However, the underlying purpose of branding is different, as discussed in the previous session. While corporate brands strive for brand preference and competitive advantages, departmental brands focus on gaining visibility and legitimacy. In this regard, further investigations are required to analyze to what extent corporate brand equity approaches apply for departmental brands.

The process perspective combines the input with the output perspective, so that the organization's branding activities and the stakeholders' perceptions appear as the two main boundaries of the brand construct (de Chernatony and Riley 1998). Although this input-output logic applies for corporate as for departmental brands, differences exist in terms of "where" branding takes place. While corporate branding try to attract mainly external customers of the firm, departmental branding focuses on internal customers. There may be further differences when it comes to the implementation of branding, for instance because departments operate with less resources than the corporation in its entirety.

3.3.4 Conclusion and limitations of the transfer to departmental branding

In the transfer to departmental branding it has been shown that other examples of transfer do not follow a common path. Instead, they are contextual and unique to each situation only lending the method of comparison between similarities and differences as a commonality in their approach. Corporate branding has been shown to have a number of dimensions with similarities and can lend itself as an object of transfer. Not lastly because of both being associated in organizational theory. Nevertheless, the dimensions show a number of clear differences in comparison to the departmental context. While both areas seek stakeholder commitment, departmental branding – as it is conceptualized in this thesis – would see the internal customers as the main subject of focus – not external customers; while both areas seek brand differentiation, departmental branding would not seek brand preference and competitive advantage over peer departments; and ultimately departments need to cope with few resources – be it budget or expertise – to establish their brand.

For the purpose of this thesis the delineation of departmental branding to corporate branding serves as a necessary foundation to then in a next step propose a definition of the departmental branding model. This is focus of the further research in this thesis in Chapter 4.

It may be suggested in further research to understand and derive a more complete and empirical derivation of departmental branding from also other streams of branding, possibly challenging some of the notions assumed in this thesis.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter has presented and discussed the prerequisites for a "departmental branding" model. By presenting the evolution of marketing and branding, how both concepts have broadened into numerous directions from product to service or from external to internal to cite a few, they serve as a foundational basis for the transfer of departmental branding. Here in particular the concept of services marketing is relevant for the understanding of this thesis as well, since internal support functions provide internal services. The service-dominant logic is also a crucial concept as it acknowledges marketing as a general and inclusive logic. This understanding from a goods-centric to a broader service-centric understanding is mirrored in the broadening of branding as explained. Hereby the relational aspect has become of more importance in branding in the recent past.

Without precluding important streams and concepts of marketing, branding was identified as an appropriate approach to address the challenges of internal departmental needs for visibility and legitimacy. On this basis, branding as the main object of focus for transfer was selected under the consideration of the service-dominant logic in marketing. The existing stream of corporate branding, as was demonstrated, could be applied as the specific object of focus to transfer to the context of the departmental brand. While departmental branding could be distinguished from corporate branding, it remains open to be defined and developed as a holistic concept. This is focus of Chapter 4.

4 Departmental branding – A model to increase visibility and legitimacy

4.1 Relevance and contribution of the model

Over the past decades, the broadening of branding gave rise to a range of new and interdisciplinary conceptualizations beyond traditional product branding. While there is a growing body of research, for instance, into the concepts of internal branding, employer branding, political party branding and city branding (Cascio 2014; King and Grace 2008; Parkerson and Saunders 2005; Pich, Armannsdottir, and Dean 2015), a field that has received little attention until now is how organizational sub-units can utilize and implement branding to pursue their purposes. Although some authors, mostly practitioners, have recognized the potential of building departmental brands, scientific research on departmental branding is still small in scale (Beck 2010; Benson and Kinsella 2017; Cheskis 2012; Esser and Schelenz 2011; Jessl 2010; Rahman and Areni 2010; Siems and Lackus 2010).

For instance, Siems and Lackus (2010, p. 32) stated:

> "[W]hat remains neglected is the understanding of internal customer-supplier relations and the relevance of branding in this relationship as an essential element of internal marketing (…). This is interesting – and important – because the sub-units themselves can represent the own brand and brand personalities: Internal services can be 'internal brands'."

Siems and Lackus further observed that the importance of employees representing their department often remains underestimated. Employees are predominantly seen as those individuals who represent the brand externally, although they represent the department in which they work, as well – internally and externally. Not only the role of the employees must be discussed, but also the nature of the departmental brand from an input, process and output definition as was outlined in Chapter 3. Consequently, this chapter attempts to fill this gap in research by proposing and discussing a generic branding concept for organizational sub-units. It addresses the research question:

RQ3: What are the elements and stages of a departmental branding model?

It investigates to a deeper extent the transfer of not only corporate branding but also that of its sub-disciplines such as internal- and employee branding. Firstly, the nature of departmental brands are defined in their brand identity. Then the role of the department's employees is defined in the process of employee branding. Then, the concept of departmental brand equity and the feedback to the departmental brand identity is defined.

The practical implications is to propose a systematic framework of departmental branding that intends to supports departmental leader to improve the visibility and legitimacy of their departments.

To explain the departmental branding model four themes are introduced, namely "creation of brand identity," "employee branding," and "creation of brand equity," and "feedback to brand identity." The structure is firstly explained and then the elements are outlined below before then being developed in the following sections of this chapter respectively.

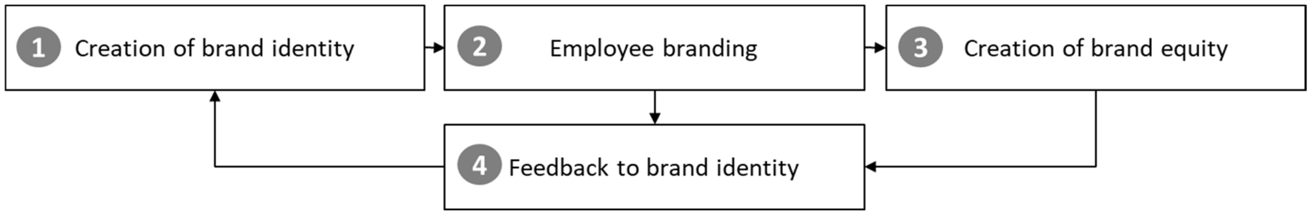
4.2 Structure for a departmental branding model

The structure for the departmental branding model follows a sequence that can be derived from different sources. Firstly, conceptual approaches in corporate branding literature advise brand creators to define the brand's core identity elements before they bring them in line with the employees' behavior (Harris and de Chernatony 2001; Janonis, Dovalienė, and Virvilaitė 2007). Brand identity is placed before employee branding in the model. Secondly, employee branding is acknowledged as a necessary step before branding activities are directed towards further target groups (Memon and Kolachi 2012; Miles and Mangold 2004). Thus, employee branding is placed before the creation of brand equity. The section of brand equity includes branding activities ensuring that the brand is successfully conveyed to the intended target group (brand awareness) and generates favorable associations with the department and trustful relationships between staff members (internal suppliers) and their internal customers (Van Durme, Brodie, and Redmore 2003). It is this awareness that influences visibility and the favorable associations that influence the legitimacy of a department.

Lastly, the creation of the brand identity, employee branding and the creation of brand equity are not isolated activities. Rather it is a continuous process. Referring to de Chernatony (1999), the brand building process is defined as a process of "gap reduction." The feedback of employees and internal customers is crucial to readjust the brand identity accordingly and lessen this gap. The continuous adjustment of the brand identity, this feedback loop to brand identity, build the last step in the model.

The proposed structure of departmental branding is visualized in Figure 9. The next sections briefly summarize the four steps of departmental branding, leading the reader through the structure and contents of this chapter.

Figure 9: Conceptual model of departmental branding



4.2.1 Creation of departmental brand identity

The process of departmental branding starts with the definition and creation of the departmental brand identity. The departmental brand identity comprises of brand identity elements that give meaning and purpose to the brand and that can be defined and influenced by its brand creators, such as visuals symbols, brand values or brand personality (de Chernatony 1999; Kapferer 2008). The conception of the brand identity is a strategic management task since the organization defines itself and what it strives for (Janonis, Dovalienė, and Virvilaitė 2007). By these means brand creators try to have an impact on the desired perceptions of the brand, the brand image. According to the brand identity approach, the brand image can be shaped by consistently transmitting the brand identity to the brand's stakeholders (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009; Harris and de Chernatony 2001). This requires that the departmental brand identity is appropriately defined and firmly anchored in the consciousness and behaviors of those who carry the brand messages, the department's employees (Chang, Chiang, and Han 2012; Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Wilson 2009).

Section 4.3 outlines the concept of brand identity by referring to the interplay between brand identity and brand image as well as to its relevance for departments. This is followed by an analysis of existing brand identity models which are then discussed for departmental brands. Based on this, brand identity constituents that are identified to be relevant for departmental brands are derived.

4.2.2 Employee branding

Citing O'Reilly III and Pfeffer (2000, p. 67),"The ability to execute strategy depends on a company's ability to attract and retain great people and, more important, to use their knowledge, wisdom, and insights. That is why unlocking the hidden value in your people is so crucial to success." This applies to branding as well. As with corporate branding, departmental branding starts from the inside out. Before communicating the brand to the outside world, internal brand building activities are a prerequisite to create an adequate basis (Wallström, Karlsson, and Salehi-Sangari 2008). After defining the elements of the brand identity, they need to be aligned with the attitudes and behaviors of the department's employees. Staff needs to be convinced, motivated and enabled in an ongoing process to deliver on the brand promise (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005). Employee branding, as this process is referred to in this thesis, is based upon the concept of internal branding that emerged in the 1990s as a means of strengthening the corporate brand. The internal branding approach strives to stimulate employees to adopt the brand values and express their brand loyalty across all relevant contact points of their stakeholders (Asha and Jyothi 2013; Mitchell 2002; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007). Especially in service environments employees are crucial interfaces between the brand and their stakeholders (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1999). This aspect is of particular importance in the departmental brand model since the internal customer relationships between department employee and customer create the business value for the department.

Section 4.4 analyzes concepts highlighting the employee's role in marketing and branding literature, and based on this, the term "departmental brand ambassador" is introduced. The concept of brand citizenship behavior as the outcome of the employee branding process is discussed. The determinants of brand citizenship behavior are discussed for departments as well the levers in the practical context.

4.2.3 Creation of departmental brand equity

The concept of brand equity has been discussed from different angles. While the traditional goods-centric view locates brand equity in the branded product and brand name (Yoo and Donthu 2001), the service-centric view regards brand equity as co-created through the interaction of multiple stakeholders (Jones 2005; Juntunen, Juntunen, and Juga 2011).

Within this thesis departmental brand equity relates to the effects branding activities have specifically on the department's internal customers. Here the application of communication mechanisms and utilizing the customer-supplier relationships increase the internal awareness and acceptance of the department and ultimately build trust to the departmental brand. It is the third step of the of the departmental branding process.

Section 4.5 firstly presents different concepts of brand equity and critically discusses their relevance for the departmental brand model. An empirical study is then conducted to measure the effectiveness of predictors for departmental branding in the context of an internal support function before deriving in conclusion levers for departmental brand equity.

4.2.4 Feedback to departmental brand identity

Finally, it is important to note that the three steps of departmental branding are not isolated activities. For instance, employees incorporate brand values while they are co-creating the brand identity (Dean et al. 2016). In this case, step 1 and step 2 are part of the same process. Furthermore, the creation of the departmental brand identity, employee branding and internal customer-directed branding are part of a continuous process. Referring to de Chernatony (1999), the brand building process is defined as a process of “gap reduction.” The feedback of employees and internal customers is crucial to adjust the brand identity and to improve future branding measures.

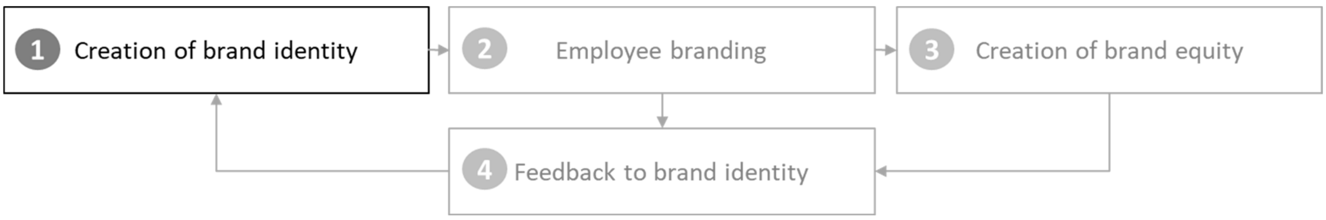
In Section 4.6 the final element of the departmental brand model is described. Firstly, the context for the feedback loop is described. Secondly, possible implications for the departmental context are discussed.

4.3 Creation of departmental brand identity

Brands are perceived according to their distinctive features determining their way of being, thinking and behaving (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Buil, Catalán, and Martínez 2016; He et al. 2016). These distinctive elements all together form the brand’s identity and can be managed in a way affecting perceptions, attitudes and behaviors towards the brand (Harris and de Chernatony 2001).

The definition of the brand identity is considered as the first crucial step when it comes to departmental branding. The brand identity represents the basic core of what will be later directed to the department’s staff (second step) before it is directed to the department’s customers in order to generate brand equity (third step), as displayed in Figure 10.

Figure 10: Creation of brand identity



This section begins by deriving benefits of adopting a brand identity approach for departments from the different strands of identity-related scholarship. Subsequently, the interplay between brand identity and brand image is presented and applied to departments. This is followed by an analysis of existing brand identity models which are then discussed for departmental brands. Based on this, brand identity constituents are identified to be relevant for departmental brands.

4.3.1 Benefits of adopting a brand identity approach for departments

With the reappraisal of marketing at corporate level, the concept of brand identity has been studied from different strands of identity-related scholarship. Insights from social and organizational identity have led to a variety of definitions and conceptual frameworks revealing the multidisciplinary and complex nature of the brand identity construct (Buil, Catalán, and Martínez 2016; Cornelissen, Haslam, and Balmer 2007; Dowling and Otubanjo 2011). In general, brand identity includes distinctive and relatively enduring features that determine the brand's way of being, thinking and behaving, and therefore give purpose, meaning and direction to the brand (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Buil, Catalán, and Martínez 2016; He et al. 2016). Brand identity concepts that have been influenced by organizational identity theory tend to portray brand identity as a form of group identity, expressed by a shared value system, competences, origin, vison, communication style and behaviors (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009). According to this view, the brand identity refers to a collective understanding of the organization's distinctive values and characteristics, constructed through the organization's symbolic language, behavior and culturally patterned practices (Cornelissen, Haslam, and Balmer 2007; Czarniawska and Wolff 1998; Hatch and Schultz 2003).

Brand identity frameworks adopting a social identity perspective emphasize the incorporation of the consumer's internalized knowledge structures in the development of the brand identity (Cornelissen, Haslam, and Balmer 2007; Kapferer 2008; da Silveira, Lages, and Simões 2013). The brand identity is not just determined by the brand's creators, instead, it is also built through the consumer's concept of the self, which is constructed through his perceived membership in the brand community (Haslam and Ellemers 2005; Tajfel and Turner 1979). Consequently, consumers using brands as a means of social classification and self-expression become active contributors to the brand identity (Aaker 1999; Bagozzi and Dholakia 2006; He et al. 2016).

Due to its interdisciplinary nature, the concept of brand identity allows to derive a range of benefits that apply for corporate brands as for departmental brands. First, it constitutes an effective approach to manage and differentiate brands. Brand identity frameworks were suggested, for instance, by Aaker (1996a), Balmer, Stuart, and Greyser (2009), de Chernatony (1999, 2010) and Kapferer (2008), and have been adopted for new fields and contexts including sustainability, politics and art, in which the application of branding concepts and frameworks is of growing interest (Pich and Dean 2015; Pusa and Uusitalo 2014; Stuart 2011). Another advantage lies in image and reputation building. This thesis assumes that a well-managed departmental brand identity can result in positive associations, attitudes and behaviors of different stakeholders (Buil, Catalán, and Martínez 2016).

A third major benefit of adopting the brand identity approach for departments is that the conception of a strong and distinctive departmental brand identity can provide a basis of identification for departmental members and their internal and external customers. Organizational identification is a special form of social identification and occurs when individuals define themselves in terms of their membership in a particular organization (Mael and Ashforth 1992). Members that find their organization distinct and attractive are likely to experience strong levels of organizational identification, since it provides them with opportunities of self-expression (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994). Organizational identification is linked to favorable outcomes and patterns of social interactions, including organizational member's satisfaction and intent to stay (Chatman 1991), organizational support (Mael and Ashforth 1992) sales performance, retention, advocacy (Finch et al. 2018) and group cooperation (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994). Behavioral outcomes of brand identification comprise, for example, brand loyalty, positive word of mouth (Kim, Han, and Park 2001), intentions to repurchase the brand (Kuenzel and Halliday 2008) and brand love (Alnawas and Altarifi 2015).

Finally, a well-positioned and unique brand identity enables departments to attract relevant internal customers with whom they can co-create value along the profit-service chain. When internal customers are able to identify the services they require to create value and these services match their needs, internal exchanges are more efficient, produce lower waste and costs, and are likely to increase external service quality (Finn et al. 1996). The brand identity directs relevant information to relevant target groups but also guides staff behaviors to deliver the brand promise. For instance, defining brand values, brand mission and departmental roles enables them to act in accordance with the intended brand identity (Kapferer 2008).

4.3.2 The dynamic construction of brand identity and image applied to departments

This section takes a closer look at the dynamic construction of brand identity and brand image from an identity-based understanding of the brand. It begins by providing general definitions of brand identity and brand image before it applies the brand identity approach to departments.

The understanding of the brand identity relies on a dynamic two-dimensional approach towards brands. The "inside-out" perspective recognizes brands as constructed and managed by its owners, creators or managers. The "outside-in" perspective considers brands as they are perceived by customers or other target groups (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009). As already stated by Abratt (1989, p. 69): "A company cannot directly change its image but it can change its identity." The brand identity approach is based on the assumption that the creation of the brand identity, its translation into specific employee brand behaviors and its communication result in desired image effects (Abratt 1989; Harris and de Chernatony 2001). The brand image is defined as the customers' mental construct shaped through the collection and processing of brand information and the perception and evaluation of employee behavior (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009; Park, Jaworski, and Maclnnis 1986).

The idea to impact on the brand image is closely linked to impression management theory rooted in social and behavioral sciences. It seeks to influence and control others' perceptions about a person, a group, and/or an organization by providing self-assessed beneficial information in social interactions (Dutton and Dukerich 1991; Goffman 1956; Tedeschi and Riess 1981). Information directed to intended target groups should be wisely selected and derived from the brand's central, enduring and distinctive character – its identity (Albert and Whetten 1985a). Since the brand image is a reflection of the brand identity, the conceptual process of branding begins with the establishment of the brand identity (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009).

While brand management in its early stages was geared towards the brand image held by the consumer (Park, Jaworski, and Maclnnis 1986; Tyler 1957), today it is widely agreed that brand image and brand identity cannot be considered isolated from each other (Stuart 2011). The construction of brand identity and brand image is a dynamic and iterative process rather than a static concept (Da Silveira, Lages, and Simões 2013). Different definitions and concepts of identity indicate that identity is viewed as both starting point and result of implemented branding and communication measures (Brown et al. 2006). In fact, organizational literature has focused on organizational identity as a collective and commonly-shared understanding of the organization's distinctive characteristics describing what members perceive, think and feel about their organization (Albert and Whetten 1985a). On the other hand, marketing literature has developed around the concept of corporate identity and emphasized the explicit role of management in the conceptualization of identity (Hatch and Schultz 1997). For instance, Balmer et. al (2009) differentiate six corporate identity types they recommend calibrating with each other in order to diagnose and resolve identity misalignments. They are briefly summarized in Table 12.

Table 12: Types of corporate identity

Identity type	Description	Time Frame	Perspective
Actual	Current understanding of corporate identity with respect to the defining characteristics of the corporation	Present	Internal
Communicated	Corporate identity transmitted through communications activities	Past/Present	Internal
Conceived	Images and reputations of the organization held by stakeholders	Past/Present	External
Covenanted	Underlying promise associated with the corporate name and/or logo	Past/Present	Internal/External
Ideal	Optimum strategic and future-oriented positioning of the organization	Future	Internal
Desired	Corporate leaders' vision for the organization's identity	Future	Internal

Balmer's classification demonstrates that the understanding of identity varies depending on the considered timeframe (past/present/future) and perspective (internal/external). This is in line with the attempt of Brown et al. (2006) to classify and describe key concepts and existing terminologies of corporate identity, image and reputation, as demonstrated by Table 13.

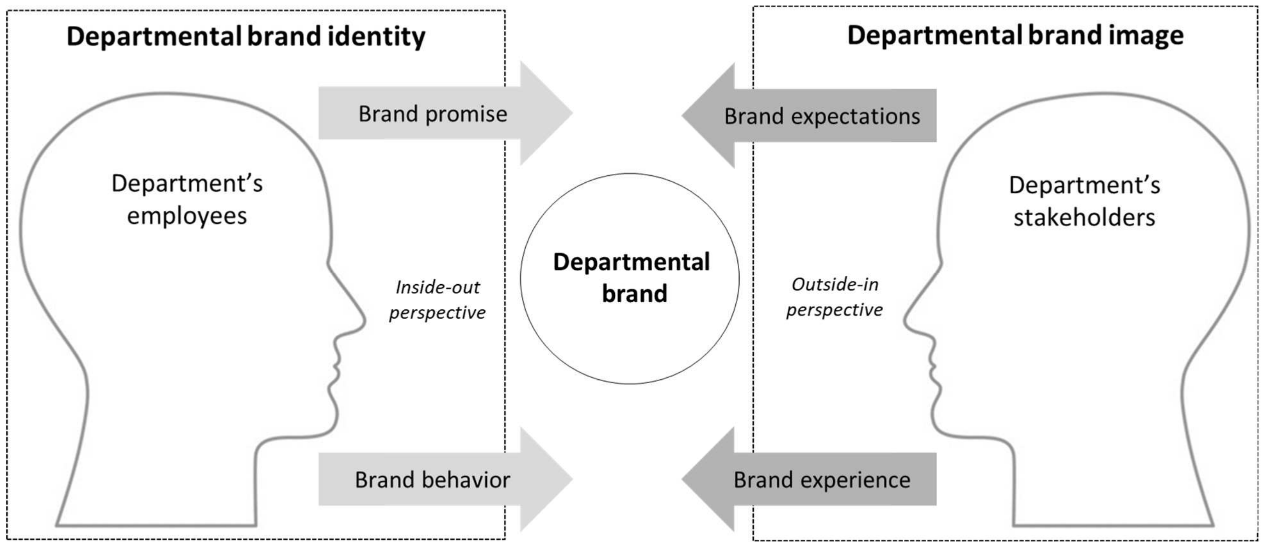
Table 13: Key organizational viewpoints

Concept	Description	Time Frame	Perspective
Identity	Mental associations about the organization held by organizational members	Present	Internal
Intended Image	Mental associations about the organization that organization leaders want important audiences to hold	Present/Future	Internal/External
Construed image	Mental associations that organization members believe others outside the organization hold about the organization	Present	Internal/External
Reputation	Mental associations about the organization actually held by others outside the organization	Present	External

Combining insights from organizational and marketing literature, this thesis assumes that the process of departmental branding starts with the management's definition of the departmental brand identity according to the desired and distinct departmental values and characteristics (Balmer, Stuart, and Greyser 2009). In the second step, the formulated identity is communicated towards the department's members in order to influence their perceptions and feelings about their department (Miles and Mangold 2004). The construction of the departmental brand identity is interpreted and evaluated by the departmental members based on existing cultural patterns of the department, work experiences and influences from the external environment. External influences include outsider's associations about the department that are absorbed back into the cultural system. More specifically, the organizational identity contains the symbolic meaning by which organizational images are created. In turn, organizational images have an influence on the internal processes of identity formation (Hatch and Schultz 1997).

The interdependency of departmental brand identity and departmental brand image is illustrated in Figure 11. The model was adopted from Burmann, Hegner, et al. (2009) and Burmann et al. (2012) referring to the construction of corporate brand identity and image. After the departmental brand identity has been aligned with the values and behaviors of the department's employees, the condensed core of the brand identity, referred to as brand promise, is communicated to the department's target groups (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009; Chong 2007). This occurs through the behaviors of the department's employees and by the means of mass media (Nandan 2005). The brand promise relates to the informal contract between the brand and its stakeholders and determines partially or fully the brand expectations of the organization's stakeholders (Balmer 2004). To ensure that the brand expectations of the department's target groups are in line with their brand experiences, employees must behave in a manner consistent with the brand promise (Brown et al. 2006). The consistency of the brand promise and brand behavior is known to result in customer satisfaction (Dunn and Davis 2003; Harris and de Chernatony 2001).

Figure 11: The brand identity approach applied to departments



Lastly, by evaluating and comparing departmental brand identity and departmental brand image, managers can identify possible gaps between intended and perceived brand positioning, and, if necessary, develop strategies to close them. For this reason, de Chernatony (1999) referred to the process of brand building as "gap reduction." Since feedback to the brand identity will influence managers to rethink and possibly adjust the brand identity or the means by which it is communicated, stakeholders can be considered as co-creators of the brand. Brand co-creation has recently emerged in literature as a concept that acknowledges the brand's stakeholders as co-creators of the brand (Nysveen and Pedersen 2014; Ramaswamy and Ozcan 2016). For instance, Dean et al. (2016) explored how employees co-create brand meaning through their brand experiences and social interactions with multiple stakeholders. By recognizing employees as "brand readers" and "brand authors," they become committed to enhance the brand at all touchpoints.

4.3.3 Existing brand identity models discussed for departmental brands

The previous section has provided insights on the interdependency of departmental brand identity and departmental brand image. This section is dedicated to identifying departmental brand identity constituents according to the logic of the brand identity approach. Namely first, brand identity constituents should have an impact on the departmental brand image. Second, departmental leaders must be able to partially or fully influence the constituents.

Table 14 presents three often-quoted brand identity frameworks (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009; Moorthi 2002). They are examined and discussed in the subsequent section in terms of their applicability to departmental brands.

Table 14: Existing definitions and dimension of the brand identity

Author	Definition of brand identity	Brand identity dimensions
Aaker (1996a, p. 68,78)	"Brand identity is a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain. These associations represent what the brand stands for and imply a promise to customers from the organization members."	<u>Four perspectives/twelve dimensions:</u> **Brand as a product:** product scope, product attributes, quality/value, uses, users, country of origin **Brand as a person:** brand personality, brand-customer relationships **Brand as an organization:** organizational attributes, local vs. global **Brand as a symbol:** visual imagery/ metaphors, brand heritage
Kapferer (2008 p. 183, 178)	"Brand identity provides the framework for overall brand coherence. It is a concept that serves to offset the limitations of positioning and to monitor the means of expression, the unity and durability of a brand."	<u>Six dimensions:</u> **Physique:** set of the brand's physical features evoked in people's minds **Relationship:** between the consumer and the brand **Reflection (of the consumer):** makes reference to the stereotypical user of the brand **Self-image:** the way consumers see themselves when they buy or use a brand **Culture:** system of values, source of inspiration and brand energy **Personality:** the set of human characteristics associated with the brands
de Chernatony (1999, 2010, p. 53)	"Brand identity is the distinctive or central idea of a brand and how the brand communicates this idea to its stakeholders."	<u>Six components:</u> **Vision:** provides a clear sense of direction **Culture:** determinant factor to achieve the vision **Positioning:** manifestation of the brand's functional values **Personality:** brings the brand's emotional values to life **Relationships:** with different stakeholders such as staff and customers **Presentations:** presentation styles as to reflect stakeholders' aspirations and self-images

4.3.3.1 Aaker's brand identity model

Within the "brand identity planning model" Aaker (1996a) advised brand strategists to consider brands from four perspectives: brand as a product, brand as a person, brand as an organization and brand as a symbol. Brand as a product refers to the product-related tangible or intangible attributes of the brand, such as product scope, product quality or link to a country or region. The brand as a person perspective deals with the personality aspects of the brand, such as honesty and reliability of a brand (Aaker 1997). It also includes the relationships between the brand and its customers. The brand as an organization perspective addresses the organizational attributes, such as quality, innovation, safety and culture, values and programs within the company. These attributes are more enduring and resistant to competition than product-related attributes. Lastly, brand as a symbol refers to all symbolic aspects of the brand, such as visual imagery, metaphors and brand heritage (Aaker 1996a).

As one of the first attempts to clarify the complex construct of brand identity, Aaker's proposed framework is based on the classical consumer goods branding approach. For instance, Moorthi (2002) criticized that it did not suggest a comprehensive approach for branding services. He proposed to expand Aaker's model by including a process dimension that acknowledges the customer as a co-producer of services. This service perspective is also key when it comes to departmental branding, since departments create value during service interactions with their customers (Grönroos 2011a). However, instead of adding a fifth perspective as proposed by Moorthi, the "brand as a product" perspective should be extended to products and services. In this sense, "brand as a product" may refer to the products (parts) and services that are offered by departments to their internal or external customers. In addition to this, the service aspect may be also covered by the "brand as a person" perspective, since it reflects the unique personality of the department transmitted, for instance, through staff behavior during interactions with internal customers. The third perspective "brand as an organization" can refer, for example, to the department's roles and organizational embedding within the company. Finally, "brand as a symbol" may represent the department's origins and its visual expression.

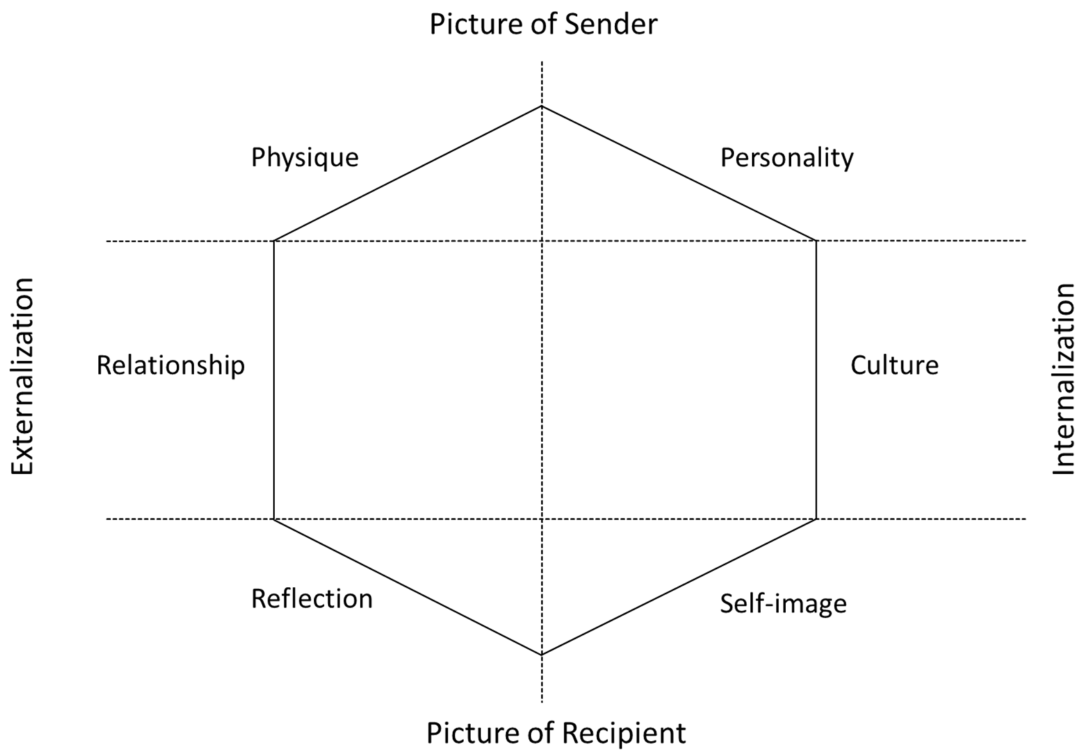
In fact, the brand's heritage has been identified by numerous branding experts as an important dimension of the corporate brand, because it adds differentiation, authenticity and credibility to the brand (Aaker 2004; Ballantyne, Warren, and Nobbs 2006; Urde, Greyser, and Balmer 2007). It can be also useful in terms of employer branding. For instance, staff may feel pride to work for a department with a unique story (Santos, Burghausen, and Balmer 2016). The brand's heritage can be an important and impactful brand identity element given that the department has a strong heritage. It therefore should be considered as a constituent of the departmental brand identity.

To conclude, Aaker's brand identity system seems to provide a solid framework for developing departmental brand identities. It covers relevant perspectives provided that the product perspective includes products and services. Little adjustments might be also necessary in terms of the brand identity dimensions Aaker proposed for each perspective. For instance, he linked the dimensions "organizational attributes" and "local/global" to the brand as an organization perspective. With regard to departments and their specific characteristics, the brand as an organization perspective may rather include dimensions such as departmental roles and organizational embedding.

4.3.3.2 Kapferer's brand identity prism

According to Kapferer (2008), the brand identity has six facets that are arranged in what he calls the "hexagonal brand identity prism." It is shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Kapferer's brand identity prism



Based on Kapferer (2008, p. 183)

The identity prism is more complex than Aaker's brand identity framework, since the brand's key facets are grouped along two dimensions. The first horizontal dimension refers to what the brand is to the outside word it interacts with (externalization) and what it means to the inside word (internalization). The physique, relationship and reflection dimensions form the brand's outward expression and comprise the visible facets of the brand. In contrast, the personality, culture and self-image dimensions refer to the brand's inward expressions and are less visible because they are incorporated within the brand's spirit.

The second, vertical dimension includes the sender and receiver perspective. This classification is based on Kapferer's assumption that behind any type of communication there is a sender and a recipient. In this regard, the sender is the brand itself, i.e. the persons who "bear" the brand name, such as employees representing the brand. According to this logic, the sender conveys the brand's physical specificities and qualities, the "physique" and the brand's human characteristics, the "personality." Beyond this, Kapferer holds that the brand's identity is also shaped by the customer's reflections and self-image represented by the recipient's perspective. This is in line with other authors who designated brands as means of self-expression and self-construction (Chernev, Hamilton, and Gal 2011; Escalas and Bettman 2005; Hartmann and Apaolaza-Ibáñez 2012). Brands are "symbolic resources for the construction of the identity" (Elliott and Wattanasuwan 1998, p. 131), and when used as such, they reflect their consumers and their societal values and ideologies (Holt 2003; Shepherd, Chartrand, and Fitzsimons 2015). Aaker (1997) called this image transferred from the brand users to the brand "user imagery."

It is widely acknowledged that brand consumers have an impact on internal processes of identity formation (Hatch and Schultz 1997), and therefore are often designated as "co-creators" of the brand (Nysveen and Pedersen 2014; Ramaswamy and Ozcan 2016). However, the integration of the receiver's perspective (brand image) into the concept of brand identity tends to create confusion. For instance, Pich and Dean (2015, p. 1356), who examined the applicability of Kapferer's brand identity prism to political branding, claim: "It is unclear whether the brand identity prism exclusively addresses the concept of 'brand identity' or addresses both 'brand identity' and 'brand image' as the framework refers to the external/receiver." They conclude that they had little difficulty in applying the physique, culture or personality dimensions to political brands. In contrast, the relationship, reflection and self-image dimensions are problematic given that they are complex, envisaged instead of observed and difficult to manipulate for the brand creator. Nandan (2005) who examined the identity-image relation from a communications perspective, argues that brand identity and brand image are related but distinct concepts. Whereas the brand identity stems from the source or company and is created through managerial activities before it is sent to the intended target groups, the brand image results from the perceptions of the target audience. Although Kapferer is principally right that both brand identity and brand image need to be taken into account when depicting the complex nature of brands, his model may lack practical applicability when including the outsider's perspective into the concept of brand identity.

In accordance with Pich and Dean (2015) and Nandan (2005), this thesis recommends to separate the concept of brand image from the concept of brand identity when developing a conceptual framework that intends to assist brand creators to determine constituents of departmental brand identity.

4.3.3.3 De Chernatony's brand identity model

Another brand identity framework that relies on Kapferer's hexagonal identity prism model but focuses on the corporate brand identity was proposed by de Chernatony (1999, 2010). It contains six brand identity components: brand vision, brand culture, brand positioning, brand personality, brand relationships and brand presentation. As de Chernatony's model was conceptualized for corporate brands, it is assumed to be highly relevant in terms of deriving suitable brand identity constituents for departmental brands. It is therefore discussed more profoundly than the previously presented identity frameworks of Aaker and Kapferer.

4.3.3.3.1 Brand vision

According to de Chernatony (1999) the brand vision is a critical identity element because it encompasses the brand's core purpose and values, providing a sense of direction needed to grow the brand. The vision expresses the company's or brand's desirable state in an ambitious and motivating way (James and Lahti 2011). Collins and Porras (1996) developed a framework that helps to understand the nature of vision. Accordingly, a vision can be composed of two major elements. The first element called "core ideology" describes what the organization or brand stands for (core values) and why it exists (core purpose). The core values are the organization's shared perceptions and guiding principles. Collins and Porras recommend firms to implement not more than five core values, otherwise they would run risk of diluting the brand identity and confusing the stakeholders. Furthermore, the core purpose should consist of concise sentences defined in a meaningful and motivational manner. The second vision-building element is called "envisioned future." It consists of an "audacious goal formulation," which gives an impression of the aspired state of the brand or organization and the "vivid description," which is a vibrant and capturing expression aiming to promote people's imagination of the audacious goal. A vision starts with the formulation of the core ideology, a guiding philosophy of basic principles, values and tenets, which is then translated into an expressive, forward-looking goal formulation, called the envisioned future. It can be formulated on all organizational levels, as long as it remains consistent with the overall corporate vision (Collins and Porras 1991).

The vision is supposed to be a fundamental component of the departmental brand identity since it provides meaning and direction to the staff and motivates and inspires them to implement the department's goals (Lowe, Lynch, and Lowe 2014). Even though the department's vision needs to comply with the superior corporate vision, it can be determined by the department's management.

The following questions adopted from de Chernatony (2010) may assist to create a unique departmental brand vision:

- What are the core values of the departmental brand?
- What is the purpose of the departmental brand?
- What desired future does the departmental brand wish to bring about?

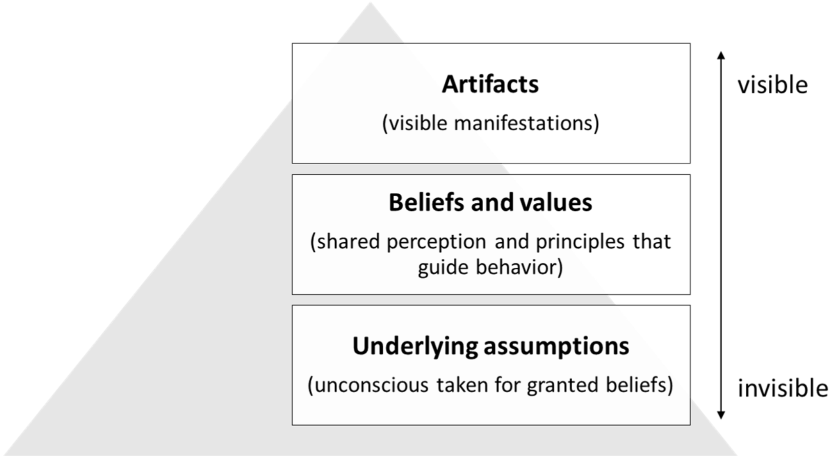
4.3.3.3.2 Brand culture

Another component of the corporate brand identity proposed by de Chernatony (1999) is the brand culture. The concept of brand culture as conceptualized by de Chernatony stems from previous concepts on corporate and organizational culture that have attracted a broad number of scientists with different research interests. It therefore has been subject to different interpretations (Baker 1980; Barney 1986a; Fiol 1991; Pettigrew 1979; Wilkins and Ouchi 1983). The terms "organizational culture" and "corporate culture" are often used interchangeably. However, while organizational culture is generally more employee-centered and focuses on internal aspects, corporate culture has a more open external, customer and stakeholder focus (Pioch and Gerhard 2014).

Definitions on corporate or organizational culture can be clustered into two main paradigms – the functionalist or integration paradigm and interpretative or differentiation paradigm (de Chernatony 1999; Fiol 1991; O'Reilly and Chatman 1996; Pioch and Gerhard 2014; Smircich 1983). The functionalist paradigm regards culture as something an organization "has," a variable that can be determined by management (Baker 1980). From this perspective, organizations are seen as social instruments that produce goods, services, and distinctive cultural artifacts as by-products (Louis 1981). In contrast, the interpretative paradigm conceptualizes culture as a root metaphor and something an organization "is." Culture is treated as an independent variable, as it is believed to be rooted in the patterns of attitudes and behaviors of organizational members. Taking this view, organizations are seen as expressive forms and manifestations of human consciousness (Smircich 1983).

According to de Chernatony (1999) both frameworks of culture bear implications for corporate brand management. As one of the key proponent of the functionalist school, Schein (1984, 2004) described culture by using a three-component model, as shown in Figure 13. His culture model illustrates to which degree a culture becomes tangible and which elements remain concealed although they have a profound impact on organizational behaviors.

Figure 13: The three levels of culture



The most superficial level of culture is the "artifacts" level. It refers to the visible manifestations of the organization, such as languages, observable rituals, clothing and organizational structures. The second, more implicit level of culture includes the "espoused beliefs and values." They occur when a group undergoes a learning process and develops a shared perception about the problem solving process. In other words, shared values are engrained in the shared perceptions and principles that guide the group's behavior (Schein 2004). Shared values and norms may be also described as a "social control system," setting expectations about appropriate attitudes and behavior for members of the organization (O'Reilly and Chatman 1996). The third element of culture is the "underlying assumptions" that result from shared values and beliefs based on a deeply internalized learning process. Since those thoughts, feeling and perceptions occur unconsciously and are often taken for granted, they are difficult to become aware of and to be changed (Schein 2004).

The impact of organizational culture on organizational performance has been well studied in the past decades (Barney 1986a; Kotter and Heskett 1992; Sørensen 2002; Wilkins and Ouchi 1983). Culture can provide a brand with sustainable competitive advantage, given that it is valuable, rare and imperfectly imitable and consistently perceived across all levels (Barney 1986a; de Chernatony 1999, 2001). From a functionalist perspective, brand management should ensure that visible artifacts are coherent with the organization's real nature, rooted in the organization's values and fundamental beliefs. Audits can help to evaluate whether there are gaps between the desired brand values and the three components of culture and changes are needed (Baker 1980). The functionalist paradigm is also adopted by branding literature, as it has many attractions for brand managers in terms of aligning brand cultures with brand values or other aspects of the brand (Holmberg and Strannegård 2015; Schembri and Latimer 2016). For instance, Mosley (2007) recommends to align culture with the desired brand experiences through the means of a distinctive leadership style and people processes.

On the other hand, the interpretative paradigm can assist brand managers to look beyond possible lacks of communication about the corporation's espoused culture. It can help to identify action-related, symbolic-related, or ideological-related inconsistencies within the organizational culture(s). In this regard, culture is not a mechanism for managers to influence values, assumptions and behaviors, but rather something they should be attentive to. Since large organizations tend to develop subcultures besides those which are evident in the corporate culture, implications for corporate brand management may focus on understanding subcultures and explaining diversity in values and assumptions to senior management and all staff (de Chernatony 1999; Schein 2003). In fact, corporate culture is a system of many subcultures rather than one large homogeneous entity (Li and Jones 2010). Tushman and O'Reilly (1996) claimed that different organizational sub-units perform better if they develop specific cultures that boost their individual spirit. For example, a research and development department may benefit from a culture of promoting creativity while a manufacturing department can raise productivity with a culture of efficiency. This leads to the assumption that departmental culture matters when conceptualizing the departmental brand identity.

Depending from which perspective the concept is regarded, it may either form the context within which the brand identity is established, or constitute a proponent of the brand identity that can be manipulated through managerial actions. For instance, Hatch and Schultz (1997), who tried to decode the relationship between organizational culture, identity and image, referred to organizational culture as a symbolic context for the development of the organizational identity. From their viewpoint, organizational identity is rooted in the local meanings and organizational symbols, and therefore is embedded in the organizational culture. However, interpretations such as those provided by organizational literature differ from the marketing perspective. Marketing has been more concerned with the strategic and visual aspects of the corporate identity while emphasizing the explicit role of management and leadership in its formulation (Abratt 1989; Balmer 1995). Accordingly, organizational culture has been treated as a management induced variable rather than the context within which identity is established. For instance, Downey (1986) referred to corporate identity as the source of the company's culture and Dowling (1993) assumed that that the formulation of the corporate vision has direct impact on the organizational culture.

This thesis appreciates both streams of research by assuming that organizational culture is reflected in mainly unconscious and deeply rooted sources of values and beliefs of the organization's employees, but can be managed and changed through managerial initiatives (Fiol 1991). The cultural context can influence the way how actions are perceived and interpreted (Hatch and Schultz 1997), but actions may also influence employees' inner beliefs and pattern of attitudes and behaviors (Mosley 2007; Schein 1984). In accordance with de Chernatony (1999), the department's culture is considered as an important element of the departmental brand identity, since it can be partially influenced by the department's management. It also provides the symbolic context within which the defined identity is internally interpreted. Furthermore, it is argued that the departmental culture, in contrast to the corporate culture that itself consists of different sub-cultures, is easier to manage (Fiol 1991). Leadership is key to cultural change and can be executed more directly and effectively in smaller sub-organizations (Schein 2004).

Even though organizational sub-units may have distinct characteristics, they also contain elements similar to the culture of the subordinate system – the corporation (Albert and Whetten 1985a). This requires that departmental branding measures should reinforce a culture that is compatible with the desired corporate culture. Consistency also matters in terms of desired departmental values and prevailing departmental culture. For instance, Hatch and Schultz (2003) advise that desired brand values, as incorporated in the vision statement, should resonate tacit meanings and values organizational members hold to create an authentic brand.

4.3.3.3.3 Brand positioning

A further dimension of the corporate brand identity proposed by de Chernatony (1999) is the brand's positioning. The concept of positioning was introduced in marketing over 50 years ago as a reaction to the unique selling point paradigm (Uggla 2015). While the focus during the product era was on advertising unique and distinctive product attributes and benefits, from the 1970s onwards, positioning became more and more accepted as a way to occupy a distinctive place in the minds of consumers (Bhat and Reddy 1998; Dibb and Simkin 1991; Urde and Koch 2014). Today, a variety of definitions and wide-ranging application of the positioning concept underline its relevance. Urde and Koch (2014) extract two principal conceptualizations and applications of the positioning concept from literature. The concept they refer to as "brand-oriented positioning" reflects the inside-out perspective and emphasizes brand identity as the basis of positioning (de Chernatony 2009; Kapferer 2008; Riezebos and Grinten 2012). This concept focuses on fulfilling customer needs within the boundaries of the brand identity. On the other hand, "market-oriented positioning" reflects an outside-in, market-driven perspective. Its strategic focus lies in positioning the brand to satisfy market-based needs and wants (Jaworski, Kohli, and Sahay 2000; Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Shapiro 1988). Although both concepts appear to be different strategic options, they are complementary, synergistic and hard to be handled separately (Hooley and Greenley 2005; Urde, Baumgarth, and Merrilees 2013). According to Urde and Koch (2014), the challenge in brand management is to determine the extent to which an organization should be guided by its identity or respond to the needs and wants of its stakeholders.

When it comes to departmental branding both positioning concepts apply. With reference to the brand-oriented positioning approach, the department's brand identity constituents determine the overall positioning of the departmental brand. When taking a market-oriented perspective, the communication of the department's brand identity constituents can be regarded as customer-directed value proposition. As such, forwarding appealing brand information may assist, for example, to attract new staff. However, this can also be achieved by adopting a brand-oriented positioning approach. In this regard, the department begins with defining its brand identity before it is then communicated to potential employees. In summary, both positioning concepts are relevant in terms of departmental branding as they reflect the basic mechanisms of brand identity and brand image as explained in Section 4.3.2. The preferred positioning concept however may depend on the individual starting point and emphasis of the branding project (Urde, Baumgarth, and Merrilees 2013).

According to de Chernatony (1999) brand positioning is a component of the brand identity and serves to distinguish the brand from other brands by defining a particular set of distinct capabilities. In addition, it allows to check coherency between intended positioning of the brand and defined brand vision and values. Although this thesis acknowledges brand positioning as an important branding measure as it supports to maintain consistency among defined and communicated aspects of the brand and is useful at departmental level as at corporate level, it is not considered as a separate brand identity component. As discussed above, the brand identity is a possible source of and starting point for differentiation and positioning. When defining the brand identity, managers should be aware of the department's distinctive resources and how they can best respond to the needs and wants of the market. According to the brand identity approach on which this thesis builds, branding already implies both positioning perspectives – inside-out and outside-in (see Section 4.3.2) (Burmann, Hegner, and Riley 2009). There is no need to put further emphasis on this by declaring brand positioning as a departmental brand constituent.

4.3.3.3.4 Brand personality

The brand personality describes the set of human characteristics assigned to a brand. Consumers tend to project human personality traits onto brands and try to maintain relationships with brands that appear congruent with their self-image (Aaker 1997; Klipfel, Barclay, and Bockorny 2014). Brands are means of self-expression when their identity delivers social value and emulates the consumer's self-concept. The brand's capability of mirroring the consumer's own identity is called "brand identity expressiveness" and resembles the concept of social identification (Chernev, Hamilton, and Gal 2011; Xie, Batra, and Peng 2015). The degree of self-congruity indicates the compatibility of brand and consumer. A high degree of compatibility can lead to brand preference (Branaghan and Hildebrand 2011; Sirgy 1982). Although the brand personality can be determined by management, there is evidence that it is also reflected by the employee's personality and behaviors representing the brand (Berry 2000; Wentzel 2009). Therefore, managers need to ensure that the defined brand personality is in line with the defined brand values and consistently conveyed by employees and communications (Harris and de Chernatony 2001).

At departmental level, the formulation of the desired departmental brand personality may facilitate brand positioning as it supports information search and processing while addressing the brand's emotional characteristics (Aaker 1997). In addition, it can support staff to reflect on their attitudes and behaviors when interacting with internal customers. As revealed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) and Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1988), internal customer-relationships play a critical role when it comes to a gap between service quality specifications and actual delivered service, i.e. when employees are not able or willing to perform the service as specified. To engage employees to deliver the required level of service quality, service quality dimensions such as reliability, responsiveness, competence, understanding or courtesy (Reynoso and Moores 1995) can be translated into the desired brand personality. This thesis acknowledges brand personality as an optional constituent of the departmental brand identity. It can assist brand managers to focus on behavioral-related aspects of the brand identity critical to perform branding at departmental level. Service quality is proposed as a separate brand identity constituent in Section 4.3.4 due to its significant relevance for departmental branding.

4.3.3.3.5 Brand relationships

The brand's relationships was identified by de Chernatony (1999) as another element of the brand identity. Relationships involve reciprocal exchanges between active partners, such as customers and brands. As customers tend to assign personality qualities to brand objects (Aaker 1997), they acknowledge brands as vital members of the relationship dyad (Fournier 1998). The brand is crucial when it comes to developing and strengthening customer relationships and creating customer experiences. In turn, customers' brand experiences can strengthen the brand identity (Jankovic 2012). Employees representing the brand can evolve the brand's relationships as long as their interactions with brand customers are consistent (Harris and de Chernatony 2001).

These mechanisms are valid at departmental level as well. There are three important types of relationships that are supposed to affect the departmental brand and vice versa. First, the relationship between the department's brand and staff can lead to extra-role behaviors towards the brand. This construct is known under the term "brand citizenship behavior" and enhances the brand identity (Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Shaari, Salleh, and Hussin 2012). The second type of relationship refers to the leader-staff relationship. Literature on internal branding emphasizes the important role of leadership in turning staff into brand ambassadors (Miles and Mangold 2004; Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2011). Departments need to cultivate a leadership style that is line with the serve-centric logic and promotes the staff's ability to co-create the departmental brand (Nie, Shirahada, and Kosaka 2013). The third type of relationship that shapes the departmental brand identity is the one between the departmental brand and its internal customers. Internal customers co-create the brand's identity either through their relationships with the department's staff or through mass media (Dean et al. 2016; Nandan 2005). For instance, online communities, networks, events and other platforms can be set up to actively involve stakeholders in the brand creation process (Grönroos 2012; Ind, Iglesias, and Schultz 2013; Terblanche 2014). Consequently, brand relationships is considered as an important constituent of the departmental brand identity.

4.3.3.3.6 Brand presentation

Finally, de Chernatony (1999) mentioned the brand's presentation as an element of brand identity. Visual elements of the brand identity such as logos, brand name, colors, shapes and styles are popular stimuli to attract consumers (Phillips, McQuarrie, and Griffin 2014). For instance, the logo is frequently the first element of the brand the customer perceives. It serves to capture awareness and facilitate recognition (Cian, Krishna, and Elder 2014). Tangible clues are especially important in the service context since they support customers to cope more easily with the service's intangibility (George and Berry 1981; Onkvisit and Shaw 1989).

Besides the fact that visual brand elements serve as a vehicle for recognition and differentiation, they are also useful in terms of creating favorable brand associations (Miller and Kahn 2005; Zaichkowsky 2010). Several studies in psychology, design, art and advertising confirm that visual and verbal brand elements influence perception due to their symbolic connotations (Gorn et al. 1997; Hoegg, Alba, and

Dahl 2010; Jiang et al. 2016; Karjalainen 2007; van Rompay, Pruyn, and Tieke 2009). Although brand meanings are not a literal part of the brand's appearance, they are reflected, for instance, by the characteristics associated with the brand (Aaker 1997; van Rompay, Pruyn, and Tieke 2009). Research has demonstrated that symbolic meanings are important with respect to brand image perceptions and consumer decision makings (Bloch 1995; Childers and Jass 2002; Karjalainen 2007). More specifically, customers tend to select brands with certain meanings that are in line with an aspect of their self-concept (Escalas and Bettman 2005). The fact that individuals use and communicate brand meanings to define themselves (Levy 1959; Schembri, Merrilees, and Kristiansen 2010) or categorize themselves into certain social groups (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994), underlines the importance of creating a meaningful and visual brand identity.

When referring to the departmental context, labeling organizational sub-units tends to be difficult since corporate design guidelines usually prohibit using other brand visuals besides corporate or product brand names and logos in order to avoid cannibalization effects. For instance, a Siemens circular says: "Dual names and dual marks basically are not permissible. In addition to the name Siemens and the SIEMENS mark, no other names and marks may be used" (Siemens AG 2011, p. 1). Nevertheless, besides using logos, there are other ways to visualize departmental brands without violating company policies, for instance, by applying illustration, icons or imagery. However, it must be ensured that these visual brand elements are consistent with the desired brand meaning and can be adjusted to the respective communication channels or campaigns (Phillips, McQuarrie, and Griffin 2014).

Depending on the specific case, the department's visual expression can impact the perception and recognition of the departmental brand. For this reason, it is considered as an important element of the departmental brand identity.

4.3.4 Brand identity constituents specific for departmental brands

In addition to the brand identity constituents adopted from existing brand identity frameworks, this section proposes five further elements that are supposed to be specific for departmental brands. They refer to the department's particular service, service quality, embedding and roles.

4.3.4.1 Brand service

Organizational units are specialized entities entrusted with distinct tasks and responsibilities. The overall business purpose is broken down at the departmental level into specific purposes (Barnard

1968). As a result, each organizational unit is charged with distinctive tasks and integrated with other sub-units of the system to ensure effective performance. A task can be defined as the cycle of transforming input into output by involving design, production and distribution of goods or services (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). Products and services were identified in previous brand identity models as relevant sources and constituents of the brand identity. For example, Aaker (1996a) suggested to consider brands from a product-related perspective. Moorthi (2002) proposed to expand Aaker's model by including a service dimension. Citing Kapferer (2008 p. 190), "The product is the first source of brand identity. A brand indeed reveals its plan and its uniqueness through the products (or services) it chooses to endorse."

This thesis suggests the department's distinct service that results from assigned tasks and responsibilities as critical constituent of the departmental brand identity. In this context and from a service-dominant perspective (see Chapter 3), service refers to the department's interactions with customers to enable value creation in the company (Grönroos 2011a). It is the department's application of knowledge and skills embedded in the process of exchange during customer interactions. The department's goods or products play a subordinated role. They are rather distribution mechanisms for service provision, whereas service constitutes the principal unit of exchange (Vargo and Lusch 2004; Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka 2008).

Service is supposed to build the departmental brand's core, because it accounts for the unique set of skills, competencies, strengths and resources justifying the department's very existence. It is the starting point and reason for interaction in the sense that customers and suppliers start to co-operate to accomplish their expectations in terms of creating value (Gremler, Bitner, and Evans 1995). For instance, the IT department may approach the strategic marketing department because it expects to gain expertise on future customer demands they require to create appropriate software solutions. However, value creation in internal customer-supplier relationships assumes that partners are aware of each other's service offerings. The identification of service as a crucial element of the departmental brand identity is the first step, yet requires further communication efforts to get visible throughout the organization. Departmental brand-focused communication is addressed in Section 4.5.3.

4.3.4.2 Brand service quality

While departmental service refers to the service offerings based on the department's specific tasks and responsibilities within the organization, departmental service quality refers to the quality aspects of the service delivery process. By referring to Chapter 2 of this thesis, service quality can be specified by comparing customer expectations with actual service performance (Parasuraman and Zeithaml

1994; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985). For instance, Reynoso and Moores (1995) explored overall ten internal service quality dimensions: helpfulness, promptness, communication, tangibles, professionalism, reliability, confidentiality, flexibility, preparedness, consideration. In contrast to goods, services tend to be produced and consumed simultaneously. Due to this, service quality highly depends on the way exchange partners collaborate and interact with each other (Fredendall, Hopkins, and Bhonsle 2005; Zeithaml 1991).

Service quality is considered as an important identity element of departmental brands because it indicates how customers experience and perceive the process of service delivery. This thesis assumes that the departmental brand image, namely the customer's perception of the brand, is not only influenced by what kind of service is delivered, but largely by how service is delivered based on the underlying relationship between customer and supplier. Brand relationships have been already identified as a relevant brand identity constituent in the previous section.

4.3.4.3 Brand embedding

How brands are deployed, structured and related to each other highly affects the way consumers perceive the company and its products (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000a; Laforet 2015). Brand architecture refers to the formal process and outcome of organizing brand portfolios and define how brands and brand names are established at each organizational level (Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen 2001). Coherent and effective brand architectures serve companies to cope with pressures and complexities, such as channel dynamics and market fragmentation, and can leverage the brands' impact by creating clarity and synergies (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000a; Laforet 2015). By specifying brand roles and defining relationships to other brands, brand architecture design has an impact on the perception of the brand identity (Muylle, Dawar, and Rangarajan 2012). For example, Virgin uses a branded house architecture. Virgin is the master brand and provides an umbrella for other sub-brands, such as Virgin Cola or Virgin Airlines operate on completely different markets. Virgin stands for high quality products and services, innovations, fun and entertainment. Due to spillover effects, Virgin's sub-brands are likely to be associated with similar attributes than the master brand (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000a).

When considering organizational sub-units as brands, the way they are structured and related to other departments of the same organization is supposed to have an impact on the perceived brand identity as well. Departmental brands are subordinate to the corporate umbrella brand and therefore may be attributed by externals with similar brand associations. However, from an internal viewpoint, each organizational unit subordinated to the corporate brand contains the DNA of the corporate brand. Due to this, possible spill-over effects from the corporate to the departmental brand is considered more as an external than an internal differentiating factor.

Nevertheless, each organizational entity operates in a unique combination of hierarchical structures and relationships, which turns the organizational embedding into a major component of the department's brand identity. For instance, Fiol (1991) indicated that the organization's structure is an important source of sub-unit identities, as it determines their unique and patterned behaviors. There is further evidence that sub-units with structurally differentiated roles also differ in the way they interpret organizational events and situations (Dearborn and Simon 1958; Walsh 1988). What people perceive as central, distinctive or enduring and how they behave varies depending on where they are located within the organization (Fiol 1991). This refers to the departmental structure, roles and the cultural context to which they are exposed. The existence of subcultures within the corporation has been verified by various authors (Li and Jones 2010; Schein 2004). They are reflected by the distinct clusters of understandings, values and behaviors of different functions within the corporation (Trice and Beyer 1993). The department's brand culture has been identified as an important constituent of the departmental brand identity in Section 4.3.3.3.2.

In fact, there are various ways to embed organizational entities into the firm's organigram (Mintzberg 1979). By referring to Chapter 2 of this thesis, service-providing departments may appear as centralized support functions, shared service centers or as center concepts (Frese, v. Werder, and Maly 1993; Pahl-Schönbein 2011). Each organizational form involves its own particularities that shape the identity of the departmental brand. For instance, a shared service center may reflect its service and cost-efficiency focus by corresponding brand values and personality traits (Pérez 2008; Schulman et al. 1999).

Departmental forms are mainly determined by a given organizational set-up. Consequently, departmental leaders may not be able to change them. Nonetheless, they should be aware that a certain organizational set-up creates specific associations which are not necessarily beneficial for the brand. As already addressed by Chapter 2, headquarter functions tend to be perceived as an elite group, and due to this, may struggle with stereotyping (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Reade 2001; Wieseke et al. 2012). Negative stereotypes might diminish the department's attractiveness for potential employees and may cause legitimacy issues (Enns, Thomas W., and Prasad 2006; Tyler 2006). In this case, aware managers can proactively initiate countermeasures to reduce risks while strengthening the department's accountability (Stewart 2009).

4.3.4.4 Brand roles

Due to their specific tasks, responsibilities and organizational embedding, departments tend to fulfill certain roles within the organization. Roles are organized patterns of behavior that provide information about relationships within a social context (Biddle 1986; Steimann 2000; Winship and Mandel 1983). From a structural-functionalist perspective, they are specified and result from the organizational setting (Katz and Kahn 1966). In contrast, the symbolic interactionism favors a more dynamic view and regards roles as something abstract until it is given life by the individual (Ashforth 2001; Biddle 1986; Fondas and Stewart 1994). In this regard, employees can engage in role negotiations to craft their jobs to make them meaningful (Wrzesniewski, Berg, and Dutton 2010). Both perspectives are supported here.

As indicated in Chapter 2, centralized support functions typically fulfill a number of different roles. For instance, when referring to the relationship between top management and business unit, they can act as corporate guardian, translator or implementer (Frese, v. Werder, and Maly 1993; Mintzberg 1979). Although organizational roles may arise from a given organizational set-up and assigned tasks and responsibilities, this thesis supports the symbolic interactionist viewpoint in the sense that roles can be negotiated and redefined (Sandhu and Kulik 2019). Examples exist in HR literature, such as in the works of Alonso et al. (2015), Beatty and Schneier (1997), Pritchard (2010) and Ulrich (1997). Most of them refer to the re-positioning of the HR generalist role to a more impactful strategic business partner role, as initially proposed by Ulrich (1997). Ulrich's role classification model has been described in more detail in Section 2.3.2.

Organizational roles are supposed to be a critical component of the department's brand identity as they significantly contribute in determining perceptions (Biddle 1986; Geller and Mazor 2011; Laforet 2015). For instance, functions that fulfill the role of the service provider might be associated with personality traits such as helpful, cooperative and friendly. On the other hand, the role of the corporate guardian might be associated with personality traits such as administrative, monitoring or careful. Roles are also relevant in terms of achieving legitimation within the firm. Perceived legitimacy strongly depends on the department's ability to develop desirable activities and communicate its value contribution to their target audiences. Both is reflected by their perceived roles, so that a lack of understanding about the department's role may lead to the assumption that the department creates costs without delivering quantifiable results (Park et al. 2012). For instance, a diminished marketing role within the organization may result in a lack of necessary connections crucial for building market orientation (Gebhardt, Carpenter, and Sherry 2006). To avoid that departments are diminished to a tactical function, they need to make themselves proactively accountable within the organization (Stewart 2009). Departments are influential when they have a well-defined, clear and shared understanding of their roles (Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005).

4.3.5 Concluding discussion

Overall 10 brand identity elements have been identified in the previous analysis of existing brand identity models and literature from different disciplines. These constituents have been selected assuming that they have an influence on the department's image and can be fully or partly manipulated by the department's management. The subsequent Table 15 summarizes the proposed brand identity constituents. In addition it provides a first estimation of the level of impact each brand identity element may have on the brand image. It further indicates the estimated level of managerial influence on the brand identity constituent.

Table 15: Proposed constituents of the departmental brand identity

Proposed departmental brand constituent	Underlying brand identity model	Estimated level of impact on brand image	Estimated level of managerial influence
Brand heritage	Aaker (1996a)	medium	low
Brand vision	de Chernatony (1999)	medium	high
Brand culture	de Chernatony (1999); Kapferer (2008)	high	medium
Brand personality	Aaker (1996a); de Chernatony (1999); Kapferer (2008)	high	high
Brand relationships	Aaker (1996a); de Chernatony (1999); Kapferer (2008)	high	high
Brand presentation	Aaker (1996a); de Chernatony (1999); Kapferer (2008)	low	high
Brand service	Aaker (1996a); Kapferer (2008); Moorthi (2002)	medium	medium
Brand service quality	-	high	high
Brand embedding	-	medium	low
Brand roles	-	high	medium

These estimations are based on the previous analysis. However, further research would be necessary to confirm the assumptions made for each of the brand identity constituents. This applies in particular for those brand constituents which have been identified as specific for departmental brands. They have been derived from literature but have not been explicitly measured in terms of their impact on the departmental brand image. In this context, it would be also helpful to differentiate brand identity constituents with a strong impact from those with a weak influence on the departmental brand identity. This will enable managers to set priorities and focus on the most impactful brand identity elements.

The relevance of each of the proposed brand identity constituent should also be checked on an individual case basis. As mentioned, the department's origins and history can have a huge impact on outsiders' perceptions, provided that they exist and are worth it to be mentioned (Urde, Greyser, and Balmer 2007). In some other cases, departments are more restricted in the use of symbols and logos representing their brand than others.

The estimated managerial influence intends to give clues about the extent to which managers are able to adjust the brand identity element. For instance, the department's embedding and service offerings are strongly predetermined by the way tasks are broken down and structured at departmental level (Barnard 1968). Although managers may have a limited influence in terms of changing the organizational design, they should be aware of outsiders' associations linked to the department's embedding and service, as this allows them to proactively introduce appropriate measures wherever they are necessary (Stewart 2009).

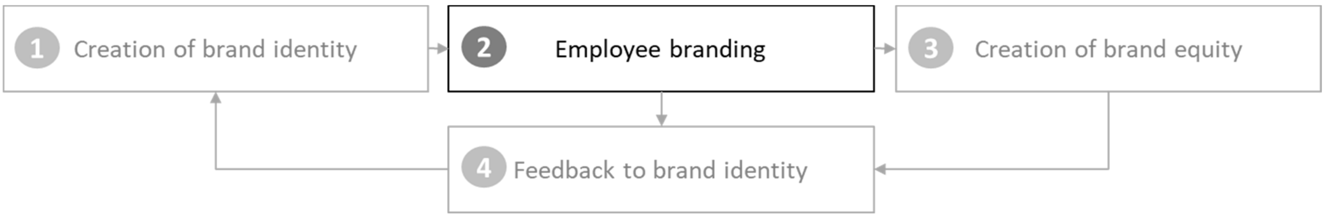
To conclude, the identification of relevant departmental brand identity constituents is an important step towards shaping the departmental image. However, equally important is to ensure consistency between the identified elements and the way they are communicated to the intended target groups (Hatch and Schultz 2003). Brand values that are consistent with the organizational culture and values are likely to create credibility in the eyes of the stakeholders (Aaker 1996a). According to Dowling (1993), the provision of consistent signals makes up the most important part when it comes to the perception of the organization's culture. These perceptions are further reflected by staff behaviors, as addressed in further detail by the next chapter. Finally, managers also need to be aware of and understand the interplay and dynamics of the defined actual, communicated, ideal brand identity and emergent brand image (Balmer, Stuart, and Greyser 2009; Hatch and Schultz 2003). For example, Balmer et. al (2009) recommend to calibrate six identity types with each other in order to diagnose and resolve identity misalignments (Table 12).

4.4 Employee branding

Levinson (1965) already knew that each member acts as a delegate of his organization and his actions tend to be viewed as the actions of the organization. Employees are important multipliers of the brand's identity (Gotsi and Wilson 2001). Acting at the interface between the external and internal world of the brand, they deliver brand messages and create brand experiences, and by this, determine how the brand is perceived by its stakeholders (Balmer and Wilkinson 1991). Especially in areas where service matters, such as in internal customer-supplier relationships, employees are ultimately responsible for delivering the services as promised by the brand (Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Wilson 2009).

Employee branding is addressed by this section as an integral component of the proposed departmental branding model. As displayed in Figure 14, it covers the second step in the gradual development of a strong departmental brand and puts emphasis on empowering employees to generate value for the brand.

Figure 14: Employee branding



This section begins with analyzing concepts highlighting the employee's role in marketing and branding literature, and based on this, outlines the term "departmental brand ambassador." Section 4.4.3 investigates the concept of brand citizenship behavior and translates it to the context of organizational sub-units. In addition, it identifies brand knowledge, brand skills, brand identification and brand commitment as determining factors of departmental brand citizenship behavior. The final section proposes brand-focused HR management, brand-focused internal communications and brand-focused leadership as three important levers of departmental brand citizenship behavior.

4.4.1 Concepts highlighting the employee's role in marketing and branding literature

Historically, marketing and branding activities were directed towards the external customer. External communication was the central instrument to attract customers, create a certain image and deliver the brand promise. But these efforts were often limited to visible product or service features and thus were easy to copy (Ravald and Grönroos 1996; Tosti and Stotz 2001). In the 1970s, numerous circumstances including consumerism, company growth, mass merchandising, competitive pressure and the demand for high quality services, motivated researchers and managers to reconsider and extend the concept of marketing by acknowledging employees as an important target group (Berry, Hensel, and Burke 1976). In the 1980's, the notion of the "internal customer" was introduced and internal marketing started to be acknowledged as a complement to external marketing (Bouranta, Chitiris, and Paravantis 2009; Davis 1991; Gummesson 1987; Piercy and Morgan 1991). At the same time, the emerging concept of services marketing emphasized the employee's role in delivering high service quality (Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Fisk, Brown, and Bitner 1993). The manner in which service personnel treats their customers was broadly accepted as critical for the customers' evaluation of the service they receive (Grönroos 1982).

As indicated by Chapter 3, branding has developed along similar lines as marketing. Marketing researchers and practitioners have realized that external branding activities must be extended to internal branding activities to create strong brands (Dunn and Davis 2003; Vallaster and Chernatony 2003). The internal branding approach is a relatively new approach in the field of branding, as it appeared during the 1990s and the early 2000s (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, and Crothers 2002; King 1991; Mitchell 1999; Vallaster 2004). Internal branding is closely linked to the concept of internal marketing (see 3.1.2.4) in the way that it acknowledges the employee as internal customer and important component of the value creation process (Ballantyne, Christopher, and Payne 1995; Matanda and Ndubisi 2013; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007; Rafiq and Ahmed 2000). However, while internal branding adopts a more an inside-outside approach and focuses on measures aligning employees with the brand values, internal marketing takes more of an outside-in approach by proposing measures to promote the employees' service mindset and customer-oriented behaviors (Mosley 2007; Sujchaphong, Nguyen, and Melewar 2015).

Internal branding aims to align employees with the corporate brand values, enhance their satisfaction so that they develop brand supporting behaviors and elevate themselves to brand ambassadors (Asha and Jyothi 2013; Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Wilson 2009). Employees acting as an interface of the brand's internal and external environment exert a great influence on how the brand is perceived by its stakeholders (Balmer and Wilkinson 1991). This is especially important in service environments, in which employees are ultimately responsible for delivering the services as promised by the brand (Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Wilson 2009). Thus, employees need to be aligned with the brand's core values and show a high level of identification and commitment with the brand in order to deliver the brand promise consistently at every customer touchpoint (Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005). Distinctive skills and behaviors are required to meet the expectations of customers, but also to make the brand as unique as possible (Bharadwaj, Varadarajan, and Fahy 1993). It is therefore all the more important to develop a systematic approach that grows the brand culture across the entire organization. Internal branding practices typically involve different marketing or HR approaches, such as internal communications, trainings, rewards, recognition programs, recruitment practices and leadership behavior (MacLaverty, McQuillan, and Oddie 2007; Memon and Kolachi 2012).

Although internal branding is broadly acknowledged as the task of getting employees to deliver on the corporate brand image (Bergstrom, Blumenthal, and Crothers 2002; King and Grace 2008; Mitchell 2002; Sujchaphong, Nguyen, and Melewar 2015), the term of internal branding is not consistently used in literature. For instance, Miles and Mangold (2004, p. 68) use the term "employee branding" for describing "the process by which employees internalize the desired brand image and are motivated to project the image to customers and other organizational constituents." Gosh and Kulshrestha (2016) refer to employee branding as the process of promoting the employer brand image through the company's employees. The image is projected by the employees' behaviors, attitudes and actions based on their engagement towards the employer brand.

Although both concepts are rooted in internal marketing, employee branding seems to have a stronger focus on human resources by putting the employee at the core of all branding activities. Human resources management is seen as the major lever of employee branding since it offers techniques to turn employees into brand ambassadors (Gosh and Kulshrestha 2016; MacLeod et al. 2009; McCann 2014; Memon and Kolachi 2012; Miles and Mangold 2004). Internal branding grew out of the need to deliver the brand promise not only to the external customer, but also to the internal customer (Miles and Mangold 2004). It constitutes an important supplement to the traditional and externally directed branding concept (Dunn and Davis 2003; Simmons 2009; Vallaster and Chernatony 2003).

Despite internal branding and employee branding possibly differing slightly in their emphasis in certain aspects of the same concept, both approaches support the idea of enabling employees to show brand favorable behavior that positively influences brand perceptions (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005). While in the context of corporate branding, the term internal branding is just as appropriate as employee branding, at a departmental level, internal branding may cause confusion as it will be probably associated with the corporate brand. Consequently, this thesis deploys employee branding rather than internal branding when referring to the process of engaging and enabling the department's employees to act on-brand.

4.4.2 Defining departmental brand ambassador

The notion of brand ambassador has evolved in recent years to a frequently used term, especially in the internal branding literature (Anosike and Eid 2011; Asha and Jyothi 2013; Boyd and Sutherland 2006; Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Causon 2004; DuBois Gelb and Rangarajan 2014; Henkel et al. 2007; King and Grace 2010; Matanda and Ndubisi 2013). According to Asha and Jyothi (2013), brand ambassadors are those employees who represent their organization as the best place to work. Brand ambassadors reflect the brand vision and the brand values through their own behavior (Gotsi and Wilson 2001). Following the ideology of "living the brand," brand ambassadors are highly motivated to live in accordance to the brand's message, always factoring in the brand in every decision they make (Hulberg 2006; Mitchell 2002). They represent the brand beyond the role of their job description to all stakeholders, such as customers, colleagues or the public. They are good listeners who incorporate feedback from outsiders into the development of the brand (DuBois Gelb and Rangarajan 2014). They also defend the brand, for instance, when there is negative press coverage about the brand (Maxwell and Knox 2009). Some authors argue that employees are elements of the brand itself (DuBois Gelb and Rangarajan 2014; Hogan, Almquist, and Glynn 2005; Uncles 2010).

Internal branding measures ensure that employees internalize the brand values and elevate themselves to brand champions. Internal branding is a bottom up approach, since employees must be convinced by the brand's vision and cannot be forced to show brand supporting behavior (Asha and Jyothi 2013). The degree to which employee behavior is consistent with the brand identity is summarized by the term employee-brand alignment. For instance, Sirianni et al. (2013) demonstrate that brand-related customer evaluations are more favorable when the employee's behavior is consistent with the brand personality. Prior studies from organizational theorists support this argument. Chatman (1989, p. 339) defined a higher person-organization fit as "the congruence between norms and values of organizations and the values of persons," which triggers employee's extra-role behavior and increases their perception of being more competent (Chatman 1989; Morse 1975; O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). Especially in service environments employees are crucial interfaces between the brand and their stakeholders (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1999).

The concept of departmental brand ambassadors is assumed to be highly relevant in terms of departmental branding as employees represent their department while applying and exchanging knowledge and skills during the service interactions with their customers (Vargo and Lusch 2004). In this regards, departmental brand ambassadors can be defined as the department's employees that are able and engaged to advocate for the departmental brand in a beneficial manner. These voluntary efforts of employees to promote the brand and strengthen its identity was introduced by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) under the term "brand citizenship behavior."

4.4.3 The concept of brand citizenship behavior discussed for departments

The concept of brand citizenship behavior was initially derived from the concept of organizational citizenship behavior that emerged from organizational behavior research during the 1980's (Bateman and Organ 1983; Podsakoff et al. 2000; Smith, Organ, and Near 1983). Both constructs describe extra-role behaviors of employees that are not expected, rewarded or formally defined, but very beneficial to the brand or organization. The small but vital difference between both concepts is that organizational citizenship behavior is limited to intra-organizational behaviors and focuses exclusively on job-related organizational performance, whereas brand citizenship behavior also includes customer-directed behaviors and seeks to enhance the relationship between the brand and its target groups (Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Shaari, Salleh, and Hussin 2012).

Podsakoff et al. (2000) explored seven dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior that were adjusted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) to the concept of brand citizenship behavior. At a later point in time, Burmann, Zeplin, and Riley (2009) were able to validate three of the overall seven dimensions, namely willingness to help, brand enthusiasm and propensity for further development. Table 16 displays the dimensions of organizational and brand citizenship behavior proposes by Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Burmann and Zeplin (2005).

Table 16: Dimensions of organizational- and brand citizenship behavior

Dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior by Podsakoff et al. (2000)	Dimensions of brand citizenship behavior by Burmann and Zeplin (2005)
Helping behavior: voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work-related problems	**Helping behavior:** positive attitude, friendliness, helpfulness and empathy towards internal and external customers, taking responsibility for tasks outside of own area if necessary, for example, following up on complaints
Sportsmanship: maintaining a positive attitude even when job-related inconveniences occur; willingness to sacrifice personal interest for organizational interest	**Sportsmanship:** no complaining, even if engagement for the brand causes inconvenience; willingness to support the brand even at high opportunity costs
Organizational loyalty: promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending against external threats	**Brand endorsement:** recommendation of the brand to others in non-job-related situations, for example, to friends; passing on the brand identity to newcomers in the organization
Organizational compliance: internalization and acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations and procedures, even when no one observes or monitors it	**Brand consideration:** adherence to brand-related behavior guidelines and reflection of brand impact before communicating or taking action in any situation
Individual initiative: engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels	**Brand enthusiasm:** showing extra initiative while engaging in brand-related behaviors
Civic virtue: macro-level interest in the organization as a whole and willingness to participate actively in its governance, in monitoring its environment for threats and opportunities and in looking out for its best interests	**Brand advancement:** contribution to the adaptation of the brand identity concept to changing market needs or new organizational competencies, for example, through passing on customer feedback or generating innovative ideas
Self-development: voluntary behaviors to improve knowledge, skills and abilities	**Self-development:** willingness to continuously enhance brand-related skills

The comparison reveals that brand citizenship behavior has a broader scope and is a more holistic approach than organizational citizenship behavior. This is linked to the identity-based understanding of the brand adopted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005). As previously described, it combines the brand identity-perspective with the brand image-perspective and unifies brand orientation and market orientation by aligning internal organizational resources with stakeholders' expectations (Baxter, Kerr, and Clarke 2013; Urde 1999; Urde, Baumgarth, and Merrilees 2013). On the other hand, organizational citizenship focuses one-sidedly on the resourced-based perspective. It is directed towards the creation of social capital, considered as a critical source of a competitive advantage (Bolino, Turnley, and Bloodgood 2002; Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998).

As organizational sub-units can be considered as organizations in a broader sense, the concept of organizational citizenship behavior can be easily transferred to departments. For instance, employees can be encouraged to behave in accordance with the specific departmental values, rules and needs, given they are aligned with the firm's overall philosophy. However, the scope of the organizational behavior concept is restricted to employee behavior aligned with the organizational goals, values etc. and does not address, for example, customer expectations. In contrast, the brand citizenship behavior framework includes the customer perspective by considering the brand as the interface between the organization and its customers (Burmann and Zeplin 2005).

When transferring the concept of brand citizenship behavior to departments, three major perspectives should be taken into account. The first perspective covers the organizational and personal resources expressed by the job-related organizational performance and intra-organizational behaviors. At departmental level, this may refer to the staff's skills and behaviors towards colleagues (internal customers) and other stakeholders, such as external agencies. The second, brand-related perspective adopted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) connects the department's resources with the stakeholders' expectations by extending the concept of organizational citizenship behavior to brand citizenship behavior.

Finally, the third perspective acknowledges the corporate brand as the overarching and principal brand construct. From a brand architecture viewpoint, the corporate brand can be seen as the master brand and the departmental brand as the sub-brand. The departmental brand has the potential to affect the associations of the master brands and vice versa. However, from an external customer viewpoint, the master brand drives purchase decisions and use experience, whereas the sub-brand has only little or no driver responsibility (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000a). To ensure brand consistency from an external customer perspective, departmental citizenship behavior needs to be brought in line with corporate goals and values. This results into a more complex model for the reason that possible trade-offs between departmental interests, internal and external customer expectations, and corporate interests needs to be balanced.

Table 17 displays the adjusted set of departmental brand citizenship behavior dimensions based on the previous considerations.

Table 17: Proposed dimensions of departmental brand citizenship behavior

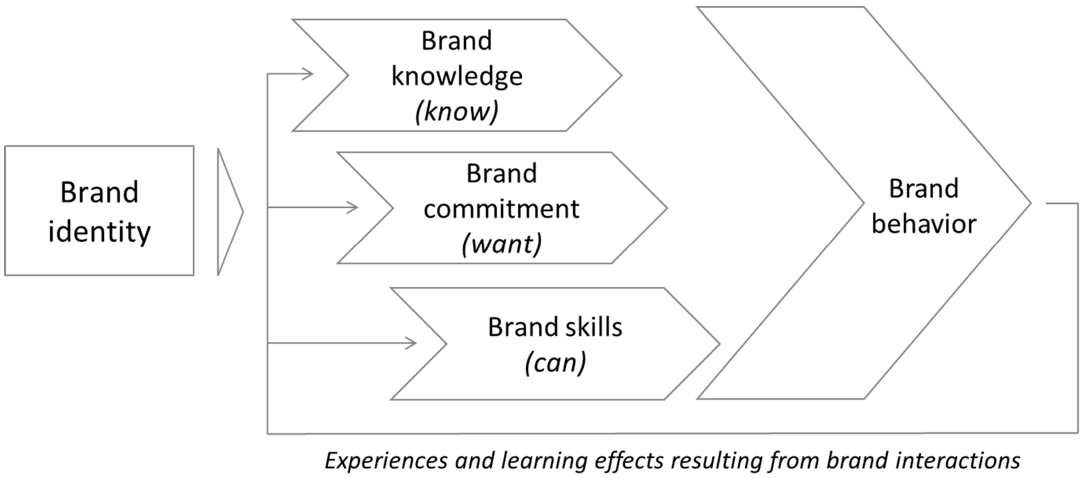
Proposed dimensions of departmental citizenship behavior	Description
Helping behavior	Being friendly, courteous and helpful towards colleagues (internal customers) and other relevant stakeholders (such as external agencies); proactively offering support while balancing departmental goals with corporate goals and internal customer needs
Sportsmanship	Being fair, ethical and respectful towards colleagues and internal customers; sacrificing personal interests for the corporate, departmental and internal customer interests
Departmental brand endorsement	Showing departmental loyalty; promoting department's offerings; recommending the department as a good place to work; acting as departmental brand ambassador
Departmental brand consideration	Considering identity, values, vision, goals etc. of a department in any situation and before taking action; aligning departmental values with corporate values so that they do not contradict each other
Departmental brand enthusiasm	Intrinsically motivated department engagement; being passionate about the departmental brand without hesitating to show brand commitment
Departmental brand advancement	Taking initiative to develop the department as a brand under the corporate brand; involving employees and internal customers in the process of brand creation; anticipating opportunities and challenges that are relevant for the departmental brand
Self-development	Reflecting on one's own actions and their consequence; willingness to change or make compromises in the interests of the corporation, the department and the internal customers; voluntary participation in trainings that benefit the departmental brand

4.4.4 Determinants of brand citizenship behavior discussed for departments

As indicated by the previous section, employees are able to show departmental citizenship behavior given they are aware of their influence on the brand, dispose of brand knowledge and skills and are willing to act on brand. This is in line with a management approach raised in the German applications-oriented research fields to translate the defined brand identity into concrete behaviors, referred to as "behavioral branding" (Batt 2012; Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Tomczak et al. 2012).

This approach postulates that three key factors are necessary to trigger brand-supporting behavior: brand knowledge, brand commitment and brand skills. Figure 15 illustrates the model deemed by Wentzel et al. (2012) as the "brand behavior funnel."

Figure 15: The brand behavior funnel



Based on Wentzel et al. (2012, p. 84)

The brand behavior funnel outlines how the intended brand identity is translated into brand knowledge, brand commitment and brand skills to stimulate on-brand behaviors. Experiences and learnings resulting from employees' brand-related interactions with stakeholders further influence their brand-related behaviors. The model considers brand knowledge, brand commitment and brand skills as consecutive steps in generating brand behaviors. Brand identification has been mentioned as a similar, but less relevant concept than commitment (Wentzel et al. 2012).

Based on these considerations, the next session examines brand knowledge, brand skills, brand commitment and brand identification are as relevant factors to generate departmental brand citizenship behavior.

4.4.4.1 Brand knowledge and brand skills

Operant resources such as knowledge and skills are known to be a critical source of organizational growth and success (King and Grace 2008; O'Reilly III and Pfeffer 2000; Pfeffer and Veiga 1999; Vargo and Lusch 2004). This applies to brands as well. Before employees are able to promote the brand, they must understand what the brand stands for and how they must behave in order to support the brand (Berry 2000; Miles and Mangold 2004). For instance, King and Grace (2008) discovered that employees who have access to rudimentary-level information such as technical- or task-related knowledge are likely to develop commitment to their respective jobs. Just as customer brand knowledge is a driving force of brand equity (Keller 1993), employee brand knowledge is key to transform the brand vision into the brand reality (Berry 2000; Miles and Mangold 2004) and by this, cultivating economic wealth for the company (King and Grace 2008). Brand knowledge includes, for example, knowledge of the brand's meaning, the customer needs and expectations, and the understanding of one's own responsibility in nurturing the brand (Kimpakorn and Tocquer 2009).

When translating this into the context of departmental branding, departmental brand knowledge may comprise three major aspects. First, it is linked to the employee's knowledge of the intended departmental brand identity. To be able to represent the department in an appropriate manner, employees should be aware of the intended departmental brand identity such as the department's vision and the underlying brand personality. Second, employees should have knowledge about the internal and external market. This may include internal and external customer expectations, service offerings of other internal or external suppliers, and corporate goals. Market-related knowledge is supposed to be relevant in terms of being able to represent the brand according to its desired positioning. Lastly, departmental brand knowledge should comprise the employee's awareness of the skills required to enhance the brand. Especially in the service context of departments, soft skills play an integral role. For example, employees who are passionate about what they do and who are able to interact effectively and harmoniously with colleagues are likely to be good departmental brand ambassadors. There is evidence that employees displaying positive emotions through gestures, body movements, tone of voice or countenance lead to positive customer evaluations of service quality (Friedman 1980; Pugh 2001). Soft skills are based upon a person's personality and behavioral traits such as language, friendliness or optimism and are as important as technical know-how for meeting job requirements (Singh 2013).

Ideally, employees assume responsibility for acquiring and expanding their brand-specific knowledge and training their brand-specific skills. As mentioned before, brand self-development, defined as the employee's voluntary behavior to improve their brand-related skills, abilities and knowledge, constitutes one dimension of brand citizenship behavior (Chang, Chiang, and Han 2012). Therefore, managers need to ensure that job- and brand-related information and trainings are accessible for each employee (Shaari, Salleh, and Hussin 2012). Brand-related communications and training measures are among the most influential factors to encourage brand-consistent behavior (Chong 2007; King and Grace 2008; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007).

4.4.4.2 Brand commitment

Brand knowledge and brand skills enable staff to deliver the brand's functional value. However, to transmit the emotional aspects of the brand, staff must feel personally committed to the brand (de Chernatony 2001).

The concept of brand commitment is based on previous concepts of commitment in sociology and organizational theory. For example, relationship commitment summarizes the efforts of exchange partners to maintain their relationship over the long term. It requires that both partners perceive their interactions being valuable and worth to invest in (Moorman et al. 1992; Morgan and Hunt 1994). Organizational commitment can be regarded as a special type of relationship commitment among organizational members (Morgan and Hunt 1994). As one of the oldest variables analyzed by sociologists and organizational behaviorists (Becker 1960), it has resulted into numerous adaptations and understandings (Shaari, Salleh, and Hussin 2012).

A frequently cited classification of commitment in the organizational theory is the "three-component framework" by Meyer and Allen (1991). It refers to commitment as a psychological state, divided into affective, continuance and normative commitment. The first component of affective commitment represents the emotional attachment to the organization described by Mowday et al. (1979, p. 226) as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization." It is described by three characteristics: the individual's belief in the organization including its strategic focus, the individual's willingness to spend efforts on behalf of the organization, and the individual's desire to stay with the organization in the long-term. Employees that are affectively committed to the organization strive to maintain membership because they have a strong desire to do so. The second component of Meyer and Allen's model designated as "continuance commitment" describes the costs that are expected to arise when terminating organizational membership. Employees showing a high degree of continuance commitment feel obliged to maintain employment because the costs of leaving would outweigh the benefits of leaving. Finally, "normative commitment" refers to the employee's feeling to stay with the organization (Meyer and Allen 1991). Various authors have provided evidence that turnover intentions are significantly lower among committed employees (DeConinck and Johnson 2009; Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner 2000; Jaramillo et al. 2009). Commitment is also said to be a driving force of job and firm performance (Castanias and Helfat 1991; Jaramillo, Mulki, and Marshall 2005). The more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the more they are committed to the organization (Buky Folami et al. 2014).

In terms of branding, brand commitment indicates to what extent employees are emotionally attached to the brand and willing to support the brand's values and goals (Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Kimpakorn and Tocquer 2009). Just as committed customers are likely to show loyalty intentions, such as rebuying the same brand (Mathew, Thomas, and Injodey 2012), committed employees are likely to show brand citizenship behavior (Burmann, Zeplin, and Riley 2009; Williams and Anderson 1991). Burmann and Zeplin (2005) delineate brand commitment as the latent variable behind the characteristic behaviors associated with the concept of brand citizenship behavior. They suppose that brand commitment is driven by three factors: compliance, internalization and identification.

First, brand compliance is understood as the adoption of behaviors corresponding to the defined brand identity. Although brand compliance builds the basis for brand citizenship behavior, commitment based on compliance does not necessarily generate extra-role behaviors (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). Second, brand internalization is referred to as the absorption of the brand values into one's self concept and results from the organizational socialization process (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). Third, brand identification refers to the sense of social belonging to the brand, yet this has not been consequently delineated from the singular concept of brand identification (Burmann and Zeplin 2005). Some researchers regard identification as a component of commitment (Burmann, Zeplin, and Riley 2009; Meyer and Allen 1991; Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979) while others describe it as a cognitive state and commitment as s specific behavior (Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley 2008; Rousseau 1998). For example, Pratt (1998) associated organizational commitment with the individual's attachment to and satisfaction with the organization, whereas he defined identification as the individual's perception in relation to his organization. In some cases commitment was identified as an antecedent of identification (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Wiener 1982). However, as commitment rooted in identification evokes extra-role behaviors (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986), identification will be looked at in more detail in the subsequent.

4.4.4.3 Brand identification

The concept of brand identification is rooted in the social identity theory (Gammoh, Mallin, and Pullins 2014).

Organizations are social systems of interacting organizational members interested in pursuing a common goal. Individuals become organizational members if they enter voluntarily or involuntarily into a relationship with the organization (Kieser and Kubicek 1992). According to the social identity theory based on the works of Tajfel (1974) and Tajfel and Turner (1979), individuals feel part of a social group if they regard the group characteristics conveyed by other group members as their own ones. This sense of belonging to a particular group is called social identification (Ashforth 1993). The more an individual identifies with the organization, the more both entities merge with one another (van Knippenberg and Sleebos 2006). Therefore, people who are highly attached to their organization tend to describe it with similar attributes they would use to describe themselves (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994). In addition, employees who identify with their social affiliations and with their tasks are more likely to display natural emotions and authentic behavior, which are crucial to psychological well-being (Ashforth 1993; Yagil and Medler-Liraz 2013). Thus, organizations that succeed in contributing to the self-construction of their members are likely to expect intrinsic behaviors that are beneficial for co-workers and the organization as a whole (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994).

Van Knippenberg and van Schie (2000) examined the construct of identification at the departmental level. They explored that employees identify much readily with organizational sub-systems than with the organization as a whole. This is in line with the results of Brewer (1991) that gave evidence that small, distinctive groups are more appropriate to provoke any sense of identification among its members than larger groups. The construct of identification has been measured from different angles, for instance, between employee and company (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi 2000), consumer and company (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003), employee and brand (Gammoh, Mallin, and Pullins 2014) or consumer and brand (Elbedweihy and Jayawardhena 2014). Usually research on identification and commitment refer to the organization as a whole. Van Knippenberg and van Schie (2000, p. 139) criticized that "it would be an oversimplification to depict an organization as a single indivisible entity, without acknowledging that organizations are also networks of groups that may elicit feelings of identification in themselves." Other authors agree on the existence of multiple identities within one organization (Albert and Whetten 1985b; Chreim 2007; Pratt and Rafaeli 1997).

Derived from the social identity theory, employee-brand identification is defined as the degree to which employees define themselves in terms of the brand values. The more the employee's self-identity matches with the brand identity, the stronger is employee-brand relationship (Gammoh, Mallin, and Pullins 2014; Hughes and Ahearne 2010; Kim, Han, and Park 2001). As mentioned above, identification mechanisms may work even better for smaller organizational entities than for the corporation as a whole.

4.4.5 Levers of brand-citizenship behavior discussed for departments

This section focuses on identifying the levers of departmental brand citizenship behavior that allow for deriving managerial implications in terms of employee branding. By reviewing literature on internal branding, three main levers have been identified that trigger on-brand behaviors (Burmann, Zeplin, and Riley 2009). First, brand-focused human resources management is crucial to attract, select, engage, develop and retain suitable employees (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005; Memon and Kolachi 2012). Second, brand-focused communications includes measures to convey the desired brand identity to the employees (Mahnert and Torres 2007). Finally, brand-focused leadership is important to direct employee behavior into the right direction (Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005). These three levers of employee branding are discussed in the following section in the context of departmental branding.

4.4.5.1 Brand-focused HR management

This section deals with the first lever brand-focused HR management.

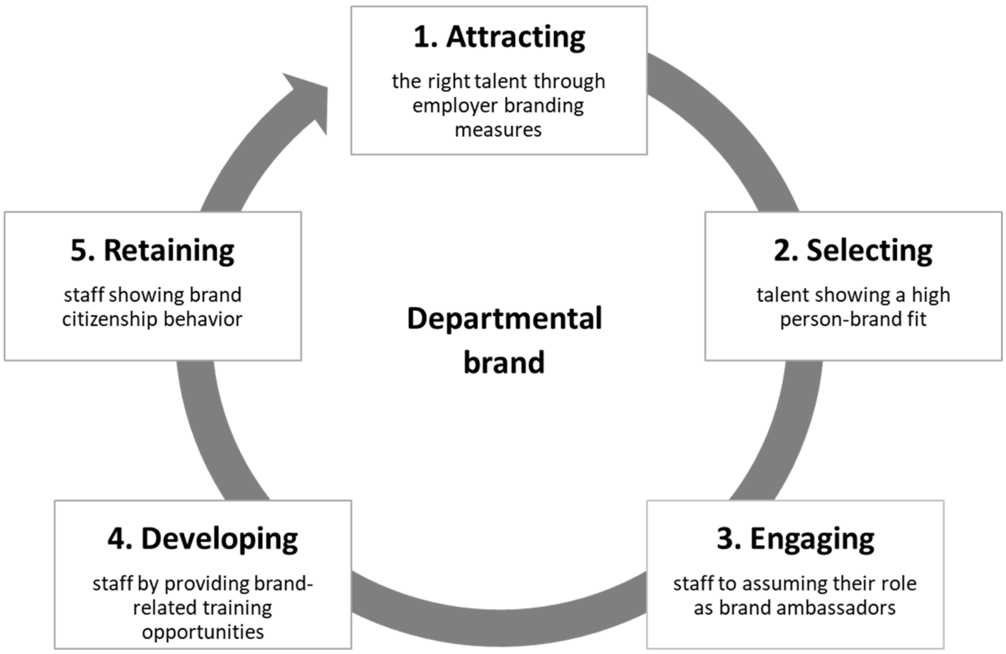
There is no doubt that employees who stand behind the organization's brand are likely to act in ways that are beneficial for the organization (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005). This belief was also expressed by concepts rooted in the total quality management literature such as the service-profit chain and the internal customer (Heskett et al. 1994; Stauss 1995). Employees that are satisfied with their job are likely to be more productive and will drive growth and profitability by delivering high quality services to their customers (Heskett et al. 2008). The manner by which customer-facing employees deliver services determines whether the positioning of the corporate brand is successful (Balmer and Wilkinson 1991; Coskun and Frohlich 1992).

Integrating HR measures into branding projects have been found to provide employees with a deeper understanding of the brand and the role they play in delivering the brand promise (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005). For instance, Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) advise managers to enrich internal branding with HR strategies to ensure that employees receive coherent and consistent brand messages that reinforce a shared brand understanding. However, educating employees about brand values is just one important task of employee branding. As highlighted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005, p. 287): "A brand-centred style of HR management needs to ensure that applicants with high personal identity–brand identity fit are recruited and selected, and that those employees with a high person–brand fit are promoted." The earlier the brand is considered in the talent management process, the better it can be ensured that prospective employees fit to the company and will act in accordance with the brand (Ind 2007).

Based on this, talent management is proposed as a holistic and systematic framework to manage talent with respect to the brand and throughout the employees' entire work life ranging from employee attraction to employee retention. Despite of the ongoing debate surrounding the meaning of talent and whether talent management is a substitute, or a complement to human resources management (Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries, and González-Cruz 2013; Painter-Morland et al. 2019), talent management basically refers to the process of attracting highly skilled workers and developing and retaining current workers (Silzer and Dowell 2009). Properly performed, it is a critical determinant of organizational success and sustainability (Beechler and Woodward 2009).

For instance, Phillips (2014) proposes to consider an integrated set of five stages when deriving actions with regard to talent management. They are concerned with attracting, selecting, engaging, developing and retaining talent and connected through a continual process. The following section is dedicated to discussing the relevance of brand alignment along the process of talent management as suggested by Phillips (2014). For a better overview, the process is displayed in Figure 16.

Figure 16: Departmental brand in the talent management process



4.4.5.1.1 Attracting the right talent through employer branding measures

The recruiting process begins with the attraction of the right talent. For instance, job applicants are attracted if they conceive congruency between their own value system and the value system presented by the organization (Herriot 2002; Rynes and Cable 2003). This is in line with the tenets of the social identity theory explained earlier. It demonstrates that symbolic attributes such as brand values are as relevant as instrumental attributes such as wage during the applicant's job selection process (Lievens and Highhouse 2003). Consequently, organizations should develop concepts to assist applicants in conceiving symbolic and functional benefits delivered by the brand (Schneider, Goldstein, and Smith 1995).

A relatively new approach in branding that continues to grow in importance is employer branding. It aims to gear appropriate brand information towards applicants (Sokro 2012). Ambler and Barrow (1996, p. 187) who were among the first to conceptualize employer branding, defined employer brand as “the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identifying with the employing company.” Employer brands send specific signals and information to prospective employees and thereby increase the number of suitable applicants while reducing information costs related to the job search (Wilden, Gudergan, and Lings 2010). Although employer branding in the context of talent acquisition relies on applying signaling techniques, it has been increasingly recognized as a holistic approach and sub-discipline of branding that aims to gain competitive advantages by helping employees to internalize brand values and retaining talents in the organization (Chhabra and Mishra 2008; Sokro 2012).

Even though employer branding recently started to be applied in different contexts, such as in the educational sector (Hadi and Ahmed 2018; Pavitra 2018) or in politics (Mölk and Auer 2018), it is still focused on the process of promoting the corporation as the employer of choice (Sharma 2019; Sokro 2012; Vatsa 2016). Within this thesis, employer branding is considered as an useful approach to promote departments as attractive employers. Employer branding measures broken down to departments and referring to the talent attraction phase may include the establishment of an identifiable, unique and desirable employer brand identity (Backhaus and Tikoo 2004). In this regard, the intended departmental brand identity needs to be defined and positioned also by considering potential talents as an important target group. Consequently, job profiles and descriptions should be set up in a way reinforcing this intended employer brand identity, for example, by addressing symbolic brand benefits, such as espoused values or the brand philosophy. Symbolic brand benefits are equally or even more important than functional brand attributes such as salary or discretionary benefits (Lievens and Highhouse 2003). In addition, recruitment advertising should provide clues about the departmental brand attributes in order to attract applicants that perceive a high congruency between their own profile and the departmental brand’s profile (Hurrell and Scholarios 2014). Finally, it must be ensured that departmental employer brands are consistent with the firm’s product, service and corporate brands (Sokro 2012).

4.4.5.1.2 Selecting staff showing a high person-brand fit

One major task during the personnel selection process is to identify employees who are best qualified to contribute in the achievement of organizational goals (Delery and Doty 1996). One approach that has increasingly gained attention in HR literature over the past years is the compatibility between organizations and job applicants. The person-organization fit is defined by Kristof (1996, p. 4 et seq.) as "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both." Recruiting procedures based on the assessment of knowledge, skills and work experience have been proven to be more successful when supplementing them with measures testing and validating congruence between individual values and the organization's value system (Arthur et al. 2006; Morley 2007). A concept that has been derived from the person-organization fit, but with a broader and more inclusive scope, is the concept of person-brand fit (Hurrell and Scholarios 2014; Matzler et al. 2011; Shu, King, and Chang 2015). However, in the departmental context, it can be likewise understood as the processes designed to enable the judgement of compatibility between individual values and organizational values, and the measures to encourage alignment between employees and the cultural value system of the organization (Holt 2003; Schneider, Goldstein, and Smith 1995).

Consequently, brand-oriented HR management involves the recruitment of those employees whose personality and values correspond highly to the departmental brand identity. Sirianni et al. (2013) were able to show that employees who authentically embody the brand are more likely to provoke positive customer brand evaluations. In addition, selecting applicants with a strong brand-personality congruence is less cost-intensive and more effective than investments in staff development because socialization efforts remain relatively low (Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Kerr and Jackofsky 1989). For instance, one preventive action to identify match or mismatch between an applicant and the brand is to get the applicant in touch with experienced employees before accepting employment (Chatman 1991). Selection measures can also involve conveying brand values to employees and encouraging them to self-assess their fit with the departmental band (Hurrell and Scholarios 2014).

In the context of employee selection the question may arise if each potential candidate should be selected according to the concept of the person-brand fit. In some cases highly skilled experts may be preferred mainly due to their expertise and task-related qualifications and less because of their potential to develop into departmental brand ambassadors. In the cases in which employees have a high level of task-related expertise but show a low level of person-brand fit and vice versa managers must decide where to set priorities. Generally said, applicants that are expected to fulfill representative roles and tasks should exhibit a minimum level of person-brand fit.

4.4.5.1.3 Engaging staff to assuming their role as brand ambassadors

After having selected appropriate personnel, it must become acquainted with its role as departmental brand ambassador. Early inductions and trainings are effective methods to phase in recruits and help them to internalize the departmental brand values (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley 1999; Hurrell and Scholarios 2014). There are many ways to integrate brand values into employee trainings. Overview presentations, videotapes, interactive games or exercises can be used to familiarize new employees, for example, with the brand mission and vision, brand values and the brand's heritage (Klein and Weaver 2000). There can be either formal training programs or informal trainings led by employees or supervisors (Louis, Posner, and Powell 1983). For example, social events or mentoring programs are more informal techniques to transmit the brand identity (Burmann and Zeplin 2005).

Mentoring can propel the process of learning and development. Mentors are usually experienced staff members at higher levels. They can help newcomers to adapt to their new working environments by "taking them under their wing" (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992). For instance, Chatman (1991) found that spending time with a mentor contributes to person-organization fit. Other interpersonal sources of information and support are typically supervisors and co-workers. Staff members who show a high level of brand citizenship behavior are supposed to be particularly suitable for this task, since they will act as a role model and intuitively try to share brand passion with the new colleague. At any rate, newcomer socialization should be taken seriously, because it is known to improve job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while reducing the intention to quit the organization (Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2002; Feldman 1989).

Based on this, departmental leaders need to develop socialization measures that provide newcomers with important departmental brand information and interpersonal support. Employees should be motivated and empowered, not only to fulfill their job-related task, but also to promote the brand with their behaviors. However, not every employee is equally suited for assuming the departmental brand ambassador's role.

4.4.5.1.4 Developing staff by providing brand-related training opportunities

During the developing phase of the talent management process departments should ensure that skills and behaviors promoting the departmental brand are continuously developed. Newcomers and current staff should be provided with regular brand-related training opportunities to refresh their brand knowledge and keep them updated on possible adjustments of the brand identity (Memon and Kolachi 2012). But newcomers should not solely be treated as passive recipients of information. Rather, they must be encouraged to actively search for information to expand their brand knowledge and build important relationships, and by this, become socially integrated (Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Griffin, Colella, and Goparaju 2000; Morrison 1995). To gather information, new employees tend to rely on information provided by the organizational context (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992). Accordingly, supervisors, co-workers and mentors were identified as important sources of interpersonal information when it comes to organizational socialization (Ashford and Cummings 1985; Feldman 1976). As previously mentioned, mentoring programs and appropriate leadership practices are key to develop employees into departmental brand ambassadors.

Another opportunity to grow both departmental brand ambassadors and departmental brand identity is provided by the concept of co-creation. By actively involving employees in the creation and promotion of the brand, they acquire, share and exchange brand knowledge and experiences. As a result, the co-created brand meaning is likely to be perceived as the real brand identity (Dean et al. 2016). Co-creation is a powerful instrument as it permits employees to exert influence on the brand. They feel more engaged with the brand, and this in turn can lead to a higher level of brand satisfaction and brand loyalty (Nysveen and Pedersen 2014). However, the co-created brand identity is not necessarily the same as management aspires. Inconsistent brand meanings can damage the brand and discourage employees to advocate for the brand (Payne et al. 2009). For this reason, leaders should carefully monitor and steer the process of co-creation and, if necessary, diminish or stop employees' activities in shaping the departmental brand identity. In this regard, preselecting the right candidates based on a high brand-person fit is key to avoid jeopardizing the brand.

4.4.5.1.5 Retaining staff showing brand citizenship behavior

The final step in the talent management process is to retain those employees who turned out to be beneficial for the brand. As previously explained, departmental brand citizenship behavior subsumes the set of behaviors expected from departmental brand ambassadors. By considering the proposed dimensions of departmental brand citizenship behaviors, departmental leaders can check whether their employees act in the desired manner.

Having identified employees with high potential in terms of representing and promoting the brand, measures should be taken to enhance their retention. Employer branding practices, performance management measures supporting employee to develop their full potential, and innovative approaches to the delivery of HR development initiatives, such as technology-delivering instructions and social learning tools, are among the most salient measures to bind talents (Cascio 2014). They are looked at in more detail in the following section.

First, talent retention through employer branding deals with creating positive brand associations and brand loyalty that tie employees to the brand (Shah 2011; Sokro 2012). The goal is to create an employer brand image that attracts both prospective applicants and current employees, so that they want to start or continue working for the brand (Lievens and Highhouse 2003). For instance, Verma and Ahmad (2016) explored six dimensions of attractiveness in the context of employer branding. They are social value, interest value, economic value, holistic value, cooperation value and work environment. Social value is considered as the most important attraction dimension. It refers the extent to which employees are attracted to an employer that provides job security, good feelings as a result of working for the organization, social acceptance and belongingness, recognition and appreciation, good relationships with superiors, good promotion opportunities and the opportunity to receive career enhancing experiences. Second, performance management as a means of employee retention includes measures, such as communicating expectations, setting goals, providing feedback and coaching employees. Third, HR development practices that make visible possible career paths or transmit a clear vision of the career potential, may enhance the likelihood to stay within the department (Cascio 2014; Chhabra and Mishra 2008).

In summary, it is a management task to identify employees that are emotionally attached to the department and motivated and willing to invest extra efforts into the department’s advancement (Uncles 2010; Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005; Wentzel et al. 2012). However, this may only become visible at a later point of time when employees have been already onboarded and employee branding measures turned out to be effective or not.

4.4.5.2 Brand-focused internal communications

This section deals with the second lever brand-focused internal communications.

While departmental brand-centered HR management is directed towards attracting, developing and retaining personnel whose values are congruent with those of the departmental brand, departmental-brand focused internal communication is required to generate awareness and understanding for the brand. Employees will only be beneficial for the brand if they understand what the brand stands for and how they can personally contribute in promoting the brand (Burmann and Zeplin 2005). Citing DuBois Gelb and Rangarajan (2014, p. 108), “Internal communication is vital, and it requires telling employees convincingly and frequently that they *are* the brand.” As Mitchell (2002) emphasized, the brand needs to be “sold inside” before it can be sold to the customers. He further commented that leaders understand the need to keep their staff informed about the company’s strategy, but only few recognize the need to educate them about the power of the brand.

Internal brand-related communication measures fulfill three major purposes. First, it provides employees with the necessary information about the brand. According to Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1988), managers should frequently provide clear and unambiguous information, for example, on organizational goals, strategies, objectives, job instruction to avoid role ambiguity. When employees realize what the brand stands for and are aligned with the brand values, they will better appreciate their job role and are more commitment to spread the brand message (Chong 2007). Brand knowledge is an important predictor of brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior (Shaari, Salleh, and Hussin 2012). Perceived value congruence is likely to result in customer-directed extra-role behaviors (Maxham III and Netemeyer 2003). Based on this, internal communication and training options are key to enabling employees to transform the brand vision into the brand reality (Berry 2000; King and Grace 2008; Miles and Mangold 2004).

Second, employees must be aware of their role as brand ambassadors before they can act as one (Harris and de Chernatony 2001). Providing them with the necessary knowledge can help them to perform their roles and tasks (Mosley 2007). Third, internal communication serves to motivate employees to take on their role and to do their best to promote the brand. In this regard, rewards such as recognition provided by co-workers or supervisors can encourage employees to show the desired behaviors (Podsakoff et al. 2000).

The most reliable way to transfer brand-related information is through interpersonal communication either between peers, or between leaders and their staff (White, Vanc, and Stafford 2010). Various authors agree that effective communication is two-way and involves formal and informal communication (Argenti 1996; Asif and Sargeant 2000; Kalla 2005; Wright 1995). Besides classical face-to-face meetings, there are various other platforms, such as employee meetings, workshops or conferences that can serve to discuss and inform about the brand (Ferdous 2008). However, brand-related information is also transmitted unconsciously through the employees' behaviors. Citing Kennedy (1977, p. 121), "Acknowledging that employees are an active source of information steps are needed to ensure that the information, and hence the image which they transmit, is compatible with the way in which top management wish the company to be seen. Essentially employees will portray an image of the company as it affects them for it is something they will do unconsciously, without forethought." Thus, interpersonal communication forwards objective brand information, but also reveals personal attitudes towards the brand or its management. For example, two colleagues discussing the strategy of their department are likely to provide information about their relationship with the departmental brand. For this reason, management should ensure that their staff internalizes the brand's values in their attitudes and behaviors (Chong 2007; Stuart 1999). How leaders communicate with their staff affects the way staff is engaged with their department (Mishra, Boynton, and Mishra 2014). Internal communication is related to numerous positive outcomes, including trust and employee commitment (De Ridder 2004; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Welch and Jackson 2007). For instance, De Ridder (2004) explored that the quality of task-related communication influences the creation of commitment and the quality of non-task-related communication is vital for creating trust.

Besides interpersonal communication, there are multiple other channels that can be used to forward brand information, including intranet, newsletter, social media, company blogs and print materials. However, which channel fits best highly depends on each individual case (Mishra, Boynton, and Mishra 2014). Adopting an integrated approach to communications can help to ensure that brand meaning is coherently and consistently transmitted and can be successfully decoded by the target audience (Asif and Sargeant 2000; Duncan and Everett 1993). Integrated communications enables organizations to communicate credible, consistent and clear brand massages while using various communication techniques and tools. It is a holistic approach to increase brand awareness and competitiveness by considering all relevant aspects associated with the communication process, including subjects participating in communication, communication analysis, planning, usage and control, and media and channels directed to different target groups (Jankovic 2012). Directing integrated and brand-related communications towards employees is likely to result in employee satisfaction, trust and commitment, and by this fostering relationships between the organization and the employees (Ferdous 2008; Herington, Johnson, and Scott 2006).

However, the implementation of an integrated and brand-focused communications program requires budget, personnel and expertise. Even though the effectiveness of employee communication may not be necessarily influenced by the size of budget, the budget does facilitate the implementation of communication measures (Young and Post 1993). Departments that have little resources to establish additional communication channels and measures for the purpose of employee branding should focus on interpersonal communications to grow brand knowledge and commitment. Experienced leaders and co-workers are important sources of brand knowledge and can act as role-models in terms of showing departmental brand citizenship behavior. Instead of spending huge sums for the production of communication materials, departments should rather invest in building strong relationships between leaders and employees and in relationships between peers.

4.4.5.3 Brand-focused leadership

This section is dedicated to the third lever brand-focused leadership.

Effective leadership styles and their influence on behavioral and organizational outcomes are the subject of countless theoretical frameworks and concepts across various scientific disciplines (Bass, Avollo, and Goodheim 1987; Collinson and Tourish 2015; Schein 2004; Wallace, Chernatony, and Buil 2011; Wieseke et al. 2009). Leadership has also been well studied in the context of branding. It is argued to be an important lever of brand citizenship behavior (Burmann and König 2011; Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Burmann, Zeplin, and Riley 2009; Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2009; Vallaster and Chernatony 2003). In fact, strategic brand management is often designated as a leadership topic (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000b; de Chernatony 2001; Esch et al. 2014).

As the previous sections have demonstrated, leaders play a pivotal role at every stage of the departmental brand building process. Referring to the first stage of the proposed branding concept, departmental leaders need to define a clear brand vision in order to navigate the brand into the future. In terms of employee branding, leaders should set up adequate verbal and non-verbal interaction patterns to develop a shared understanding of the brand's values. While verbal communication refers to the delivery of clear and passionate brand statements, non-verbal communication comprises the leader's ability to act as a role model by authentically showing responsibility, commitment and accountability (Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005). In practice, leaders often recognize the need to keep their staff informed about the organization's strategic directions but fail to convince and inspire them to live the brand's vision (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005; Mitchell 2002). Successful employee branding requires a leadership style that links the brand values to the employees' values by stimulating identification and commitment to the brand (Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005).

There are two generic leadership philosophies that have been extensively discussed in leadership research. Traditional views on leadership are reflected by what Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) labeled "transactional leadership." Transactional leadership behaviors are founded on transactional exchange processes, characterized by a "give and take." The leader "gives" a reward to the follower and in return "takes" the follower´s performance. Leaders set basic expectations and offer recognition and rewards when goals are achieved. They can also apply punishment when followers do not comply with the defined standards. In contrast, the more recent concept of the transformational leadership favors a leadership style that elevates the follower's motivation and performance through empowerment, team spirit, and by giving meaning to the performance. It is a more flexible and adaptive leadership style that promotes collaboration and co-creation (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999; Bass et al. 2003; Bass, Avollo, and Goodheim 1987; Nie, Shirahada, and Kosaka 2013; Podsakoff et al. 1990). Podsakoff et al. (1990) explored six key behaviors associated with transformational leaders. They are summarized below.

- **Identifying and articulating a vision:** Identifying new opportunities and inspiring others with a vision of the future
- **Providing an appropriate model-behavior:** Being a role model and setting an example
- **Fostering the acceptance of group goals:** Promoting cooperation among employees and getting them to work together toward a common goal
- **High performance expectations-behavior:** Demonstrating expectations for excellence, quality, and/or high performance on the part of followers
- **Providing individualized support-behavior:** Being respectful and concerned about followers' personal feelings and needs
- **Intellectual stimulation-behavior:** Challenging followers to re-examine their assumptions and beliefs about their work

Podsakoff et al. (1990) were also able to verify the positive impact of transformational leaders' behavior on organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, they demonstrated that trust to the leader plays a critical mediating role in this process. Deluga (1995) confirmed that supervisors perceived as trustworthy facilitate organizational citizenship behaviors such of their subordinates. Similar results were provided by Korsgaard et al. (2002). They explored that trustworthy behaviors of leaders, such as open communication and demonstration of concern, is positively related to employee extra-role behaviors. Studies based on the social exchange theory identified effective leader-member relationships being related to various job-related outcomes, such as performance (Gerstner and Day 1997), job satisfaction (Schyns and Croon 2006), organizational commitment (Joo 2010), and organizational citizenship behavior (Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997).

High-quality leader-member relationships are characterized by mutual trust, respect and reciprocal exchanges of resources. For example, employees who receive favorable treatment from their leaders, such as support or autonomy, are likely to feel obligated to reciprocate the behavior by exerting more efforts and commitment to the organization (DeConinck 2011; Graen and Scandura 1987; Murphy et al. 2003). The findings of MacKenzie et al. (2001) demonstrated that a transformational leadership style positively impacts organizational citizenship behavior and sales performance of sales staff. In addition, they argue that transformational leader behavior is more effective as transactional leadership behavior. However, according to Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak (2011), combining a moderate level of brand-specific transactional leadership with a high level of brand-specific transformational leadership will best help managers to elicit brand-building behaviors of their staff. While a pure transactional leadership style can decrease extra-role brand-building behaviors, a mixed approach is likely to leverage the positive effects of transformational leadership.

Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak (2011) developed some guidelines for leaders to find the optimum balance between brand-specific transactional leadership and brand-specific transformational leadership. They are cited in Table 18 and be easily adopted for brand-focused leadership at departmental level.

Table 18: Managerial guidelines to brand-specific transactional and transformational leadership

Brand-specific transactional leadership	Brand-specific transformational leadership
- Employ concrete standards for adequate brand behavior only in terms of helpful guidelines and consciously point to their interpretability - Do not use evaluations and feedback regarding brand-consistent behavior as a form of control and reprehension, but as a basis for employees' development - Do not use awards and incentives to „buy" brand-consistent behaviors, but as symbols of true appreciation	- Communicate convincingly an appealing and differentiating brand vision to arouse employees' enthusiasm and pride for the corporate brand - Authentically embody the brand promise and brand values both on and off the job - Help employees to think beyond their job profile and to redefine their jobs from the perspective of a brand representative - Train employees to act in brand-consistent ways and coach them to grow into their roles as brand representatives

Based on Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak (2011, p. 42)

Various methods exist to align leaders with departmental brand's values. For instance, training and coaching, leader development programs, or employee feedback can help to inform managers about their roles and tasks when it comes to branding (Henkel et al. 2007; MacLaverty, McQuillan, and Oddie 2007; Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2011; Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Rudd 2013). However, instead of introducing new measures that are expensive and time-consuming, employee branding measures should be first integrated into existing leadership training and communication programs. One possibility is to expand the agenda of regular management meetings to the topic of employee branding. Leaders should not only observe and evaluate their staff in terms of on-job performance, but also rate performance and potential by considering employees' commitment to promote the departmental brand. When discussing brand values and defining the departmental brand's identity during these management meetings, leaders can learn in an interactive way how they can best promote employees and the departmental brand. Nevertheless, any kind of branding measure requires a general awareness among leaders that branding matters at departmental level as well. This awareness is either already present in the leaders' minds or needs to be triggered, for example through publications or presentations on departmental branding.

4.4.6 Concluding discussion

The previous sections have demonstrated that employee branding requires a strategic framework that incorporates different disciplines and theories, primarily marketing, branding, human resources management and organizational theory. The need to align and integrate this knowledge rooted in different disciplines adds complexity to the proposed framework of converting employees into departmental brand ambassadors. Departments with broad networks across functional and divisional boarders may have advantages in terms of transforming multidisciplinary knowledge into appropriate measures serving the purpose of employee branding. Additionally, it may be helpful when management understands not only the effects of departmental branding but also their role and responsibility to grow the brand, for instance by collaborating with experts from other areas, such as HR or Marketing.

Figure 17 summarizes the employee branding model as proposed by this section.

Figure 17: Employee branding model

It assumes brand knowledge, brand skills, brand commitment and brand identification to be the key factors that are necessary to generate departmental citizenship behavior. Brand commitment has been declared by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) as the principal driver of brand citizenship behavior. Although this is likely to be true with respect to departmental brand citizenship behavior as well due to the similarity of corporate branding and departmental branding (see Chapter 3), further research would be required not only to verify the determinants of brand citizenship behavior, but also to see which of them have the greatest impact.

Brand-focused HR management, brand-focused internal communications and brand-focused leadership have been adopted from literature on internal branding and transferred to the context of employee branding at departmental level. They are proposed as the strategic levers of departmental citizenship behavior. Table 19 summarizes the core functions of each lever and provides a list of exemplary measures that can assist when it comes to implementation.

Table 19: Aspects to generate departmental brand citizenship behavior

Levers	Core functions	Exemplary measures	Sources
Departmental brand-focused HR management	- Considering the departmental brand along the five stages of the talent management process (attracting, selecting, engaging, developing, retaining) - Ensuring that talent with a high brand-person fit is selected and retained	- Job descriptions - Assessment programs - Webinars - Seminars - Brand workshops - Train-the-trainer - Orientation trainings - Results-oriented appraisals - Profit sharing - Career advancement - 360 degree feedback - Recognition	Burmann and König (2011) Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) MacLaverty, McQuillan, and Oddie (2007) Memon and Kolachi (2012) Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop (2005) Gosh and Kulshrestha (2016) Tomczak et al. (2012)
Departmental brand-focused internal communications	- Creating awareness for the departmental brand and the employees' role in promoting the brand - Equipping employees with brand skills and knowledge - Engaging and enabling employees to incorporate brand values	- Interactive workshops - Conferences - Meetings - Briefing - Newsletters - Brochures - Company newspapers - Storytelling - Brand book - Articles - Social networks - Internal role models	Ferdous (2008) Mishra, Boynton, and Mishra (2014) Burmann and König (2011) Krobath and Schmidt (2010) Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) Ind (2007) Henkel et al. (2007) Burmann and Zeplin (2005)
Departmental brand-focused leadership	- Increasing leader's awareness for the impact of departmental branding and the selection of the right talent - Promoting brand-supporting leadership behavior	- Training and coaching interventions - Leader development programs - Employee rating of leaders	Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak (2011) MacLaverty, McQuillan, and Oddie (2007) Henkel et al. (2007) Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Rudd (2013)

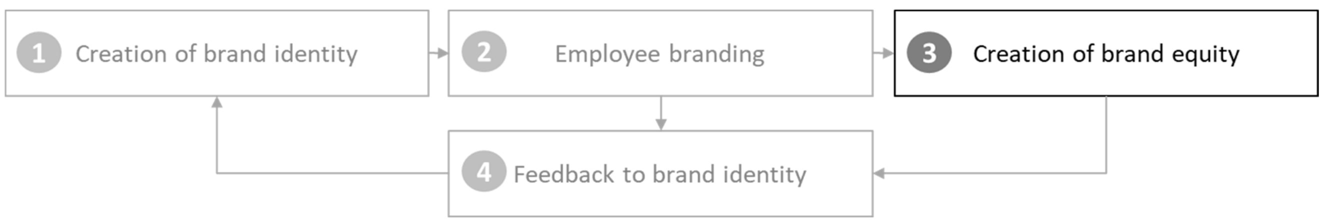
It is assumed that the levers of brand citizenship behavior apply for departments just as they have been found to work for corporations. However, differences may exist at the implementation level, for instance in terms of budget, personnel and expertise required for the implementation of HR, communication or leadership measures. To give an example, it might be easier to allocate budget for corporate branding, steered by the CEO and the board members, than for subordinated organizational entities in which leaders have less financial resources (Young and Post 1993). Looking at this from another angle, employee branding at departmental level can be performed with few resources because measures are directed towards a smaller size of employees as it would be the case for employee branding at corporate level covering all employees of the firm.

4.5 Creation of departmental brand equity

This chapter describes the generation of departmental brand equity with an internal customer-directed branding focus. It is taken into consideration that while a current, service-logic understanding of brand equity creation takes all stakeholders in perspective (Brodie, Whittome, and Brush 2009), in the case of departmental branding a conscious decision is taken to view the internal customer as the main object of focus.

In the context of departments brand equity generation may be seen as the creation of awareness and legitimacy as favorable associations. This value is created in the interaction and relationships between the departmental brand, the employees of the department and the customers of the department. The generation of brand equity builds the third step of the proposed model building on the prior enablement of employees in the previous section, as shown in Figure 18.

Figure 18: Creation of brand equity



This section firstly presents different concepts of brand equity and critically discusses their relevance for the departmental brand model. An empirical study is then conducted to identify determinants of departmental brand equity in the context of an internal support function before deriving in conclusion levers for departmental brand equity.

4.5.1 Concepts of brand equity discussed for departmental brands

This section presents key concepts that have been used to describe the asset value of brands, elaborates their relevance in the departmental brand context and critically discusses which factors can be of relevance to generating departmental brand equity.

Discussions on brand equity have long been focused on consumer goods only (Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006; Jones 2005; Keller 1993). From the traditional goods-centric view, brand equity relates to the utility or value added to the product by its brand name (Yoo and Donthu 2001). It pertains to the value of the brand beyond the physical assets and functional purpose associated with the product (Biel 1992; Farquhar 1990). Product-related brand equity can be also defined as the difference in consumer choice between a branded and an unbranded product (Yoo, Donthu, and Lee 2000).

However, with the broadening of the branding concept, researchers have begun to apply the concept of brand equity to other brand types, such as service brands (Berry 2000; He and Li 2011), corporate brands (Hur, Kim, and Woo 2014; Juntunen, Juntunen, and Juga 2011), B2B brands (Bendixen, Bukasa, and Abratt 2004; Webster Jr. and Keller 2004) and destination brands (Boo, Busser, and Baloglu 2009; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002). Research supports that the classical goods-centric definition of brand equity is no longer adequate in these new contexts. For instance, Berry (2000a) demonstrated that in service environments, the customer’s service experience contributes to the formation of brand equity rather than the presented brand. With respect to corporate branding, brand equity is not solely created through a dyadic relationship between firm and the consumer, but it is co-created through the interaction with multiple stakeholders (Jones 2005; Juntunen, Juntunen, and Juga 2011). While traditional concepts focus on equity embedded in brand, more recent work supports the concept of brand equity co-created in brand relationships (Brodie, Glynn, and Van Durme 2002; Dall’Olmo Riley and de Chernatony 2000). With the growing interest to apply branding in other areas beyond consumer-packaged goods, as demonstrated by this thesis, the concept of brand equity has evolved into a more inclusive understanding with increased emphasis on relational aspects (Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006).

Table 20 summarizes three basic perspectives on brand equity that have received considerable attention in brand equity research (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009).

Table 20: Basic perspectives on brand equity summarized

Perspectives	Description	Proposed dimensions of brand equity	
Customer-based brand equity	- relates to the customer-based sources of brand equity, such as awareness, attitude, loyalty - represents the first stream of research	Keller (1993)	Brand knowledge derived from brand awareness and brand associations
		Lassar et al. (1995)	Brand performance, value, social image, trustworthiness, commitment
		Aaker (1996b)	Perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand awareness and brand associations
Financial-based brand equity	- refers to the financial value of the brand to the organization, such as market share or cash flows - represents the second stream of research	Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001)	Market share and relative price
		Simon and Sullivan (1993)	Incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over unbranded products
		Mahajan et al. (1994)	Purchase price at the time a brand is sold or acquired
Relational-based brand equity	- focuses on the relational sources of brand equity - represents the more recent services and branding literature	Blackston (1992)	Brand trust, customer satisfaction with the brand
		Van Durme et al. (2003)	Brand awareness, customer perception of the brand's quality, image and the customer-brand relationship (resting upon trust and reputation)
		Esch et al. (2006)	Brand relationship variables such as brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attachment

The following sections outline the three key concepts of brand equity and discuss their applicability to the model of departmental brand equity.

4.5.1.1 Customer-based brand equity concept

The initial research of brand equity was customer-based, building upon concepts from consumer behavior (Brodie, Glynn, and Van Durme 2002). For instance, Keller (1993) defined brand equity as brand knowledge composed of two dimensions – the customer's awareness and the customer's image of the brand. Whereas the construct of brand awareness refers to the extent to which customers are familiar with the brand, the brand image is the overall perception of the brand that results from the sum of the customer's brand associations. Citing Keller (1993, p. 2), "Customer-based brand equity occurs when the customer is familiar with the brand and holds some favorable, strong, and unique brand associations in memory." The next sections briefly describe and discuss brand awareness, brand knowledge and brand image as relevant factors in the departmental brand equity model.

4.5.1.1.1 Brand awareness and knowledge

Brand awareness relates to the brand's strength in memory and can be measured through the customer's ability to recognize or recall the brand. Building brand awareness is a key goal in branding, since it affects customer decision making (Esch et al. 2006; Kim and Kim 2016). The stronger the customer's awareness of the brand, the more likely he considers the brand while making choices (Nedungadi 1990). Although there is no doubt that brand awareness constitute an important determinant of brand equity, it has not been consistently defined in brand equity literature. While Keller (1993) referred to brand equity as brand knowledge composed of brand awareness and brand image, Aaker (1996b) defined brand knowledge as a level of awareness.

In the context of the department, brand awareness occurs, for example, when customers who are in search of specific services recall the department as a potential provider of these services. Departmental brand awareness matters in the sense that customers who are aware of the department and its offerings, have access to the department's services and can benefit from their social and economic outcomes, such as the creation of trust and the improvement of cost-efficiency (Clements 2009; Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh 1987; Grönroos 2011a). From a value chain perspective (see Chapter 2), internal customers who are satisfied with the internal value creation process are more productive and will finally better serve the external customer. The internal process of value creation is closely linked to the external process of value creation, since profit and growth are stimulated by satisfied and loyal internal and external customers (Heskett et al. 1994, 2008; Sharif 2009; Yee et al. 2009). Consequently, by taking the corporation's perspective, departmental brand awareness is supposed to have significant effects on the firm's overall value creation, because it makes visible and therefore accessible internal services, and by this increases both efficiency and effectiveness along the value-profit chain.

By taking the department's perspective, creating awareness is beneficial in terms of becoming visible to important stakeholders. As mentioned in Chapter 2, support functions, which are less visible and known within the company tend to face difficulties to access important resources such as power, influence, or personnel (Kumar and Shah 2009; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009; Webster Jr., Malter, and Ganesan 2005). In order to justify their existence and to obtain access to vital resources, they must implement measures to increase brand awareness.

Brand knowledge is considered as another important determinant of departmental brand equity. In accordance with Aaker (1996b) brand knowledge is associated with brand awareness in the sense that the customer is not just conscious of the brand, but really knows what the brand stands for. For the departmental context however it is proposed that brand knowledge is of equal importance and is its own element next to brand awareness. It is only with knowledge that internal customers can have a clear view of the department and as such brand knowledge can be seen not as contributing factor, but as a prerequisite for the customer see the value of the department and justify its legitimacy.

In concluding, brand awareness and brand knowledge are considered as a likely factor for the departmental brand model.

4.5.1.1.2 Brand image

As important as the customer's consciousness of the brand are his associations with the brand. Supporters of the customer-based brand equity concept argue that the customer's image of the brand constitutes a key dimension of brand equity (Aaker 1991; Biel 1992; Chen 2010; Faircloth, Capella, and Alford 2001; Keller 1993). Although the notion of brand image has been differently conceptualized since its formal introduction in the 1950s, authors substantively agree that it relates to the set of beliefs and perceptions the customer has about a brand. The brand image is the customer's mental picture of the brand offerings formed by the total sum of impressions from various sources (Biel 1992; Cretu and Brodie 2007; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990; Kotler 1988; Morgan, Pritchard, and Piggott 2002). The evoked brand associations can be specific perceptions of functional attributes, such as price or user-friendliness, more symbolic attributes, such as brand-user imagery congruence, or experiential attributes, such as pleasure (Biel 1992; Low and Lamb 2000; Newman 1957; Park, Jaworski, and Maclnnis 1986).

According to Keller (1993), brand associations are classified into three dimensions: the perceived attributes of the brand, such as product and service features, the perceived benefits of the brand, and the customer's attitude towards the brand. To create customer-based brand equity, these associations must be favorable, strong and unique. Generally, Keller's dimensions may be suggested for departmental brands, given that the internal customer is driven by the same patterns of perception than the external customer (Thomson et al. 1999). However, Keller's definition of brand image represents a customer and goods-centric logic that does not include a relational dimension argued to be relevant for service or departmental brands (He and Li 2011; Padgett and Allen 1997). While the goods-dominant understanding of brand image basically refers to the tangible product features, product-related symbolic or experiential associations of the customer (Keller 1993; Park et al. 1986), the service-dominant understanding emphasizes the customer's experiential perception of the value reciprocally created during the interaction with the supplier (Grönroos 2011b; Grönroos and Ravald 2011). The service logic serves to understand that the customer's image of the departmental brand is not only formed by the perceived brand features, benefits or attributes, but mostly by the customer's brand experience that results from the underlying interactions with the employees representing the brand (Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006; Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Grace and O'Cass 2004; Nysveen and Pedersen 2014; C. K. Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004).

In concluding, while it may be accepted that brand image in principle constitutes an important factor for brand equity, its application in a service-dominant understanding of the departmental brand cannot be clearly derived.

4.5.1.2 Financial-based brand equity concept

Supporters of the financial perspective define brand equity as the overall financial value of the brand to the organization. This financial value of the brand is measured by examining market behavior and brand performance (Brodie, Glynn, and Van Durme 2002). Measures include, for example, relative purchase price, market share or revenue premium (Ailawadi, Neslin, and Lehmann 2003; Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2001; Simon and Sullivan 1993).

The financial approach of brand equity can be applicable to departmental brands provided that the brand's performance can be expressed in financial numbers. In other words, organizational sub-units must be able to assign their financial outcomes, such as costs, profits, revenues or market share to the successful implementation of their branding measures. This may apply for independently organized units such as profit centers that are able to assign the increasing number of orders to their branding activities. These units can determine departmental brand equity from different perspectives. In a non-competitive view, one can compare the number of incoming orders before and after establishing the brand. Alternatively, when they perform in competitive environments on internal or external markets, departmental brand equity can be measured by deriving the market share before and after the implementation of departmental branding measures (Beer 1997; Houston and Gassenheimer 1987; Pahl-Schönbein 2011; Srivastava, Shervani, and Fahey 1998).

Even if it is possible to associate departmental branding efforts with financial performance, the financial approach stays a narrow concept that regards financial outcomes as the only criteria of success. It does not consider any relational and experiential aspects that are associated with the core business processes (Brodie, Glynn, and Van Durme 2002; Payne and Holt 2001; Srivastava, Shervani, and Fahey 1999). However, when it comes to departmental branding, relational and social aspects should be taken into account. Brand value is assumed to be co-created with internal customers actors along the service-profit chain. It is embedded in the relational interactions of the internal suppliers and customers (Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006; Dall'Olmo Riley and de Chernatony 2000) (see Section 2.2.2).

In conclusion, the financial-based brand equity concept does not find application in the departmental brand model: its focus on financial outcome based criteria cannot not be clearly associated with the service-dominant understanding of the departmental brand. This becomes even more evident if a department is an internal support function.

4.5.1.3 Relational-based brand equity concept

The recent service dominant stream of research focuses on brand equity dynamically constructed through the relationships and social interactions within a stakeholder-based ecosystem (Helm and Jones 2010; Jones 2005; Merz, He, and Vargo 2009). For instance, Van Durme, Brodie, and Redmore (2003, p. 39) stated:

> "[B]rand equity is not limited to brand awareness and the customer's perception of the brand's quality, or its image, but […] brand equity also includes the relationship between the brand and the consumer."

With the increasing focus on relationships, process-orientation and value co-creation in the past decades (see Chapter 3), the customer has been promoted to what Blackston (1992, p. 79) called "an active participant in the creation of equity" or "equity partner in the brand." According to this new brand logic, the customer is accepted as a co-creator of equity, who is viewed endogenous rather than exogenous to the value creation process (Merz, He, and Vargo 2009). Consequently, the creation of relational brand equity is an interactive process that can be determined through the constructs underlying these relationships.

One of the key constructs that has been widely acknowledged as being central to relational success is trust (Berry 1995; Blackston 1992; Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande 1992; Morgan and Hunt 1994). Trust occurs when relationship partners have confidence in each other's actions and belief that the partner will invest into the long-term benefits of staying with the partner instead of taking short-term opportunities that may threaten the relationship (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Wilson 1995). It relies on the bilateral expectation that one's own needs will be fulfilled by the actions taken by the other party, who is perceived as being able and willing to perform in the partner's best interests (Anderson and Weitz 1989; Doney and Cannon 1997). For instance, effective relationships (Young 2006) and communication (Anderson and Narus 1990) has been identified as both antecedents and outcomes of relational trust.

Research on trust in relationship marketing emphasizes trust as a major factor in almost all kinds of business relationships, including strategic alliances (Krishnan, Geyskens, and Steenkamp 2016; Rodríguez and Wilson 2002), business-to-business relationships (Akrout et al. 2016; Theron, Terblanche, and Boshoff 2011), service relationships (Bejou, Ennew, and Palmer 1998; Berry 1995) and internal relationships between leaders and followers (Bartram and Casimir 2007; DeConinck 2011).

Trust seems to be particularly important in exchange contexts characterized by high levels of uncertainty, dependence and complexity (Heide 1994; Pfeffer and Salancik 2003). This applies, for example, for typical distribution channel relationships in which interdependences and thus switching costs would be relatively high (Gundlach and Cadotte 1994), and for internal customer-supplier relationships in which successful value creation depends on the organizational unit's collaboration and alignment with other units (Aitken, Stringer, and Ballantyne 2012; Pardo, Ivens, and Wilson 2013).

In the past decades, trust has been increasingly studied in the context of branding (Berry 2000; Jevons and Gabbott 2000; Portal, Abratt, and Bendixen 2019; Yannopoulou, Koronis, and Elliott 2011) and associated to numerous positive outcomes, such as purchase loyalty and attitudinal loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2001), online buying decisions (Soni and Verghese 2018) and brand equity (Biedenbach, Hultén, and Tarnovskaya 2019).

The relational-based brand equity concept is regarded as an appropriate reference model to describe departmental brand equity. First, it reflects the service-dominant logic and therefore provides a conceptual basis that is in line with current marketing and branding literature (see Chapter 3). Second, as identified in Chapter 2, the value departments co-create while interacting with their internal customers is in its basic nature of social value. It is this that is reflected by the concepts such as trust, commitment and loyalty (Doney and Cannon 1997; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Wilson 1998). Literature dealing with the concept of service brand equity have emphasized the customer's service experiences in the formation of brand equity (Berry 2000; Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006; He and Li 2011). For instance, He and Li (2011) explored that functional service aspects, such as network quality and reliability, and human interaction service aspects, such as empathy and assurance, contribute to the overall service quality and this is likely to result in brand equity.

Accordingly, brand equity in the departmental context is assumed to be constructed through the customer's service experience that strongly relies on the underlying relationship with the internal supplier. Due to its broadly recognized relevance as element describing social value, trust is selected as a major determinant.

In conclusion, the relational-based perspective is considered as applicable to the departmental brand equity model because it locates brand equity in the relational interactions between internal customers and suppliers. Trust plays a key role in indicating the quality and effectiveness of internal-customer relationships and predicting departmental brand equity. Further, trust is assumed to be created by the underlying relationship between customer and supplier and communication measures.

4.5.2 Empirical study on the determinants of departmental brand equity

By summarizing the preceding discussions, this thesis suggests adopting factors from the customer- and relational-based brand equity concepts in order to define departmental brand equity. This section investigates the determinants of departmental brand equity and discusses the empirical findings and managerial implications before citing possible limitations.

The empirical research is applied to the context of an internal department – specifically an internal support function as the research partner provided the opportunity to the researcher to use this as the object of testing.

4.5.2.1 Research hypotheses and conceptual model

From a research perspective the researcher sought to investigate factors which have from the literature a clear applicability to the context of a departmental brand model. The preceding section outlined brand image as not being clearly applicable to the departmental brand concept. Furthermore, it is unclear if the factor of brand image as wider construct may interfere with other dimensions. As this poses a risk to the empirical study and the aforementioned unclear association the dimension of brand image is therefore excluded from the empirical investigation.

The following hypotheses are derived from the preceding customer- and relational-based brand equity discussion:

Brand awareness was identified in the customer-related brand equity model as being important.

H1: There is a positive relationship between departmental brand awareness and departmental brand equity.

Brand knowledge is included in the model as it is seen as equally important as brand awareness.

H2: There is a positive relationship between departmental brand knowledge and departmental brand equity.

Trust has been seen as one of the key constructs that is central to relational success and departmental brand equity.

H3: There is a positive relationship between departmental brand trust and departmental brand equity.

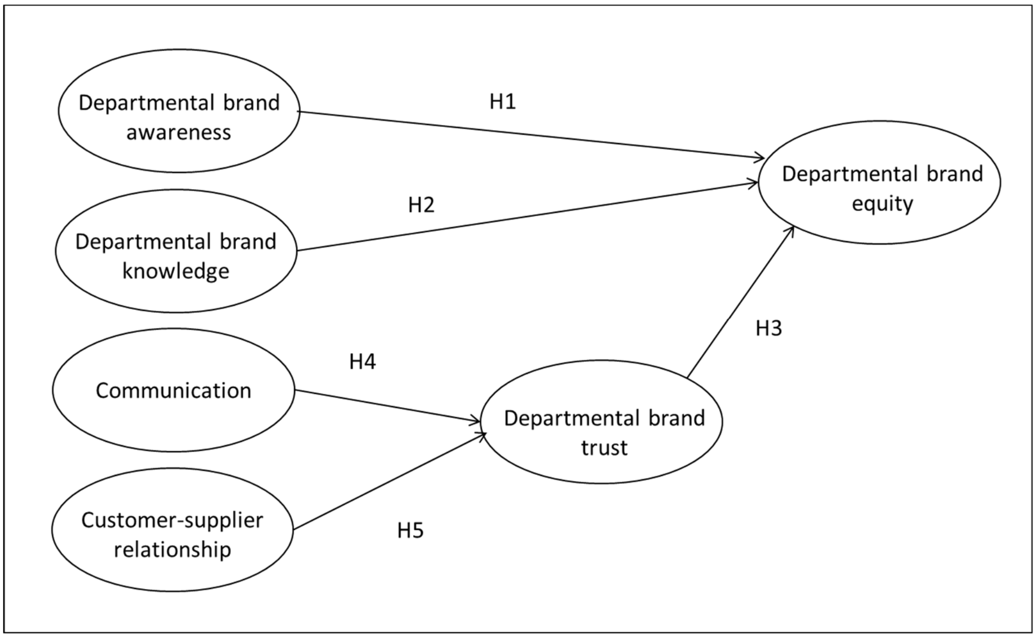
Based on the assumption that departmental brand equity is particularly dependent on the relational aspect, the dimensions of communication and customer-supplier relationships are additionally further distinguished as antecedents of trust.

H4: There is a positive relationship between communication and departmental brand trust.

H5: There is a positive relationship between customer-supplier relationship and departmental brand trust.

The conceptual model is presented in Figure 19.

Figure 19: Conceptual model



4.5.2.2 Method

4.5.2.2.1 Sample and procedure

To test the hypotheses, a survey was conducted among internal customers of the Department "Environmental Protection, Health Management and Safety" at Siemens Healthineers. The study was carried out in two stages. At the global EHS Conference in October 2014, a paper-based questionnaire was distributed to approximately 60 internal customers. 39 fully completed questionnaires were collected after the conference. In December 2014, an online version of the same survey was sent to 398 internal customers located in different countries. 211 internal customers participated in the survey, of which 154 fully completed the survey. After merging and cleaning the data (e.g. by removing answers given in less than 5 minutes), overall 169 questionnaires were entered in the final analysis of which 30 can be associated with the paper-based survey and 139 with the online survey.

4.5.2.2.2 Measures

All items were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale with the anchors (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Considering the aspect that this this empirical study was conducted with the research partner Siemens Healthineers in the internal support function of EHS, the construct items had to be considered from both the perspective of the specific situation and of the empirical validity and derivation of the construct items. In the case of this empirical study only the items measuring the customer-supplier relationship were adopted by Heide and John (1992) and Lusch and Brown (1996). All other measures were selected to be custom for the situation of an internal support functions in the context of the research partner.

4.5.2.3 Analysis and results

4.5.2.3.1 Statistical differences between means of groups

A t-Test for independent samples was performed with the variables included in the study (see Table 21) to test if there are statistical differences between the means of both groups (group 1= 30 conference participants and group 2= 139 online-survey participants).

The hypotheses for T-test test are:

H_0:μ_1=μ_2 (the means of group 1 and group 2 are equal)
H_1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ (the means of group 1 are not equal)

As the independent Samples t-Test requires the assumption of homogeneity of variance, the Levene's Test was performed first to test weather both groups have the same variances.

The hypotheses for Levene's Test are:

H_0: σ_1^2 - σ_2^2 = 0 (the population variances of group 1 and 2 are equal)
H_1: σ_1^2 - $\sigma_2^2 \neq 0$ (the population variances of group 1 and 2 are not equal)

The results of the Levene's Test of equity of variances and the t-Test for equity of means are displayed in Table 22.

1) Results of the Levene's Test

The results indicated that the variances from 3 out of 23 construct variables are equal across the two groups (p-value > .05). There are no significant differences in the variances for the 20 construct variables - the null hypothesis is not rejected. For the variables v_17, v_36 andv_59 the p-value is less or equal .05. In these cases the second row is considered (equal variances not assumed).

2) Results of the T-Test

By testing the significance level, the results indicated a significant difference between the means of both groups (p-value > .05) for 13 variables. The null hypothesis is rejected for the variables v_16, v_23, v_24, v_27, v_36, v_28, v_44, v_56, v_59, v_52,v_53,v_54,v_55. By analyzing the results, it is to be noted that on the factor departmental brand equity the loading (v_52,v_53,v_54,v_55) is different between group 1 and group 2.The descriptive group results in Table 22 show that conference participants respond more positively. As an interpretation of this result may be cited that this group is more informed and engaged – and to note further that the participants of the conference are invited because they are more engaged with EHS. Secondly, possibly the situation of when the questionnaire was conducted with this group at the end of the conference, where all are motivated and engaged, may also influence the result.

Despite the groups having significant differences with the t-test in the means of both groups (13 of 23 variables) both groups are merged for the further analysis. On the one hand group 1 contributes to the overall sample size for the confirmatory factor analysis. On the other hand, the possible sources of deviations in the t-test have been cited above and are accepted in the further analysis.

Table 21: T-test results

Independent Sample Test										
		Levene's Test of Equity of Variances		t-Test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
v 16	Equal variances assumed	.014	.905	2.337	167	**.021**	.629	.269	.098	1.160
v_17	Equal variances assumed	5.530	**.020**	-.065	167	.948	-.017	.265	-.540	.506
	Equal variances not assumed			-.054	36.277	.957	-.017	.319	-.665	.630
v 18	Equal variances assumed	.261	.610	1.523	167	.130	.422	.277	-.125	.969
v 19	Equal variances assumed	.510	.476	1.362	167	.175	.408	.299	-.183	.999
v 23	Equal variances assumed	,060	.806	2.403	167	**.017**	.847	.353	.151	1.544
v 24	Equal variances assumed	1.329	.251	3.982	167	**.000**	1.663	.418	.838	2.488
v 26	Equal variances assumed	.698	.405	1.585	167	.115	.548	.346	-.135	1.231
v 27	Equal variances assumed	.059	.809	2.490	167	**.014**	.812	.326	.168	1.455
v 35	Equal variances assumed	1.819	.179	1.711	167	.089	.464	.271	-.071	.999
v_36	Equal variances assumed	8.154	**.005**	2.114	167	.036	.584	.276	.039	1.129
	Equal variances not assumed			2.921	70.301	**.005**	.584	.200	.185	.982
v 28	Equal variances assumed	.500	.481	2.479	167	**.014**	.671	.271	.137	1.206
v 29	Equal variances assumed	.414	.521	1.861	167	.065	.478	.257	-.029	.986
v 43	Equal variances assumed	.230	.632	1.560	167	.121	.492	.315	-.131	1.114
v 44	Equal variances assumed	.292	.590	2.237	167	**.027**	.670	.299	.079	1.261
v 45	Equal variances assumed	.489	.485	.772	167	.441	.245	.318	-.382	.873
v 47	Equal variances assumed	.111	.740	.948	167	.345	.238	.251	-.258	.734
v 48	Equal variances assumed	1.971	.162	.758	167	.450	.199	.263	-.320	.718
v 56	Equal variances assumed	3.073	.081	2.432	167	**.016**	.656	.270	.123	1.189
v_59	Equal variances assumed	6.183	**.014**	1.933	167	.055	.507	.262	-.011	1.025
	Equal variances not assumed			2.103	46.772	**.041**	.507	.241	.022	.992
v 52	Equal variances assumed	.199	.656	2.478	167	**.014**	.797	.322	.162	1.432
v 53	Equal variances assumed	.934	.335	2.422	167	**.017**	.785	.324	.145	1.425
v 54	Equal variances assumed	.605	.438	3.175	167	**.002**	1.020	.321	.386	1.654
v 55	Equal variances assumed	.593	.442	2.568	167	**.011**	.939	.366	.217	1.661

Table 22: Group statistics for variables loading on departmental brand equity

	Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Std. Error Mean
v_52	1	30	5.57	1.547	.282
	2	139	4.77	1.608	.136
v_53	1	30	4.90	1.423	.260
	2	139	4.12	1.647	.140
v_54	1	30	5.20	1.448	.264
	2	139	4.18	1.625	.138
v_55	1	30	4.77	2.029	.370
	2	139	3.83	1.769	.150
Group 1= paper-based survey/conference participants, Group 2= online survey					

4.5.2.3.2 Scales validation

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to explore the underlying structure of the variables included in survey. As assumed, six constructs were identified. Items that loaded weakly on their factors (<.5) or cross-loaded highly (>.5) on other items were deleted. Table 23 shows the results of the rotated component matrix. Table 24 displays the items excluded from the further analysis.

Table 23: Results of rotated component matrix

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
trust v_28	.789					
trust v_29	.781					
trust v_35	.779					
trust v_36	.757					
know_v_26		.846				
know v_24		.832				
know v_27		.829				
know v_23		.798				
rel v_48			.846			
rel v_47			.754			
rel v_56	.493		.718			
rel_59	.430		.681			
aware v_18				.825		
aware v_16				.802		
aware v_17				.719		
aware v_19				.711		
equity v_55					.787	
equity v_53					.706	
equity v_54					.701	
equity v_52					.689	
com v_43						.759
com v_44						.694
com v_45	.497					.612

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser-Normalization[a]

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 24: Construct items excluded from analysis

	Construct items excluded	Intended component loading					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
aware v_20	When I think about EHS, I have a clear picture in my mind.				x		
know v_21	I know the topics and tasks of EHS.		x				
know v_22	I know the business value provided by EHS.		x				
know v_25	I know most of the EHS colleagues working at EHS.		x				
trust v_33	EHS keeps the promise it makes to us.	x					
trust v_34	EHS is not always honest with us.	x					
trust v_30	EHS takes actions to address my needs.	x					
trust v_31	EHS takes actions to address my needs.	x					
rel v_58	EHS is actively seeking to align its activities with those of other departments in a team effort to improve its service.			x			
equity v_51	EHS supports my daily business.					x	
equity v_60	EHS supports the Healthcare business.					x	
equity v_61	EHS is important for the Healthcare business.					x	
equity v_62	"No EHS - no business."					x	

The internal consistency reliability estimates as measured by Cronbach's alpha were over the threshold of .70 (Nunnally 1978). The total variance explained exceeded 60% and the communalities were bigger than .5. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test (.909) and the Bartlett test (p=.0) showed that data is adequate for structure detection (Backhaus et al. 2011).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run to test the validity of the measures. Table 25 displays the construct items and results of the CFA. All factors loadings were above .5 and statistically significant. The average variance extracted (AVE) of all items were over the threshold of .5 (ranging from .56 to .78), and composite reliability (CR) was over the threshold of .6 (ranging from .84 to .93) (Hair et al. 2009). Thus, convergent validity was achieved.

Discriminant validity was supported by using the Fornell-Larcker criterion. As shown in Table 26, the AVEs for any of the constructs was always higher than the squared correlation of any pair of variables (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The fit indices displayed in Table 25 indicate that the overall model is acceptable (RMSEA = .084; CFI = .923). However, fit indices sensitive to sample size were not acceptable (χ^2 = 471.594, df = 215, p = .00).

Table 25: Construct items and results of the CFA

Construct items		Factor loadings	α	AVE	CR
Departmental brand awareness (aware)					
v_16	EHS is "distinct" within Healthcare	.81			
v_17	EHS people are "unique"	.68	.84	.56	.84
v_18	EHS is "unique" within Healthcare	.75			
v_19	EHS is easy to recognize within Healthcare	.75			
Departmental brand knowledge (know)					
v_23	I know the EHS goals, strategy and program	.79			
v_24	I know the EHS-Keyvisual („Logo“)	.65	.89	.68	.89
v_26	I am familiar with all EHS topics and contents	.94			
v_27	I have a good knowledge of the EHS topics and its business challenges	.88			
Communication (com)					
v_43	EHS regularly provides me with EHS-related information	.77			
v_44	I receive sufficient information about the status and the results of my topics	.87	.89	.73	.89
v_45	I am satisfied with how EHS communicates with me	.91			
Customer-supplier relationship (rel)					
v_47	Both parties (me and EHS) are committed to improvements that may benefit the relationship as a whole	.86			
v_48	Both parties (me and EHS) do not mind doing each other favors	.83	.93	.76	.93
v_56	When we incur problems, EHS tries to help	.95			
v_59	When working with EHS, I can expect a strong level of fairness from their side	.85			
Departmental brand equity (equity)					
v_52	Support from EHS is important for my daily business	.80			
v_53	EHS helps me to perform my tasks more efficiently	.91	.88	.67	.89
v_54	EHS helps me to increase the quality of my performance	.96			
v_55	I can run my business without being supported by EHS (reverse)	.55			
Departmental brand trust (trust)					
v_28	EHS is reliable	.94			
v_29	EHS does what it says	.95	.93	.78	.93
v_35	EHS is trustworthy	.86			
v_36	EHS is truly interested in our own success	.77			
Fit indices:	χ^2 (df, p) = 471.594 (215, p = .00) χ^2/df = 2.193	RMSEA = .084	CFI = .923		

Table 26: Descriptive statistics and correlations

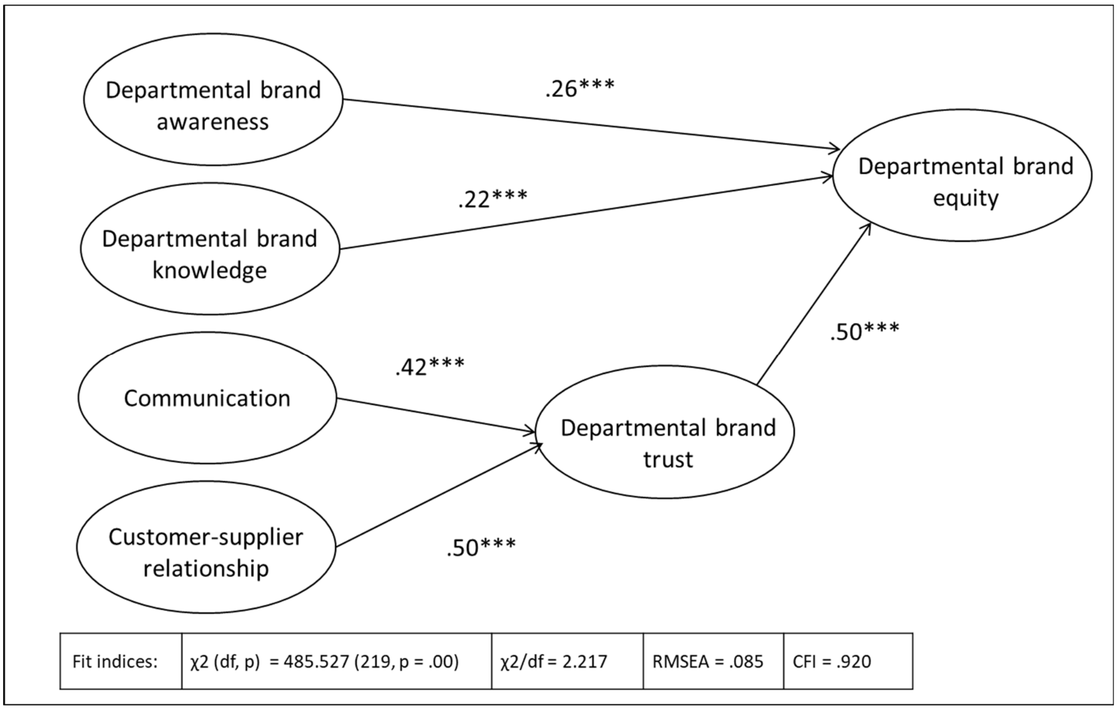
Construct	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6
D. brand awareness	4.38	1.38	**0.56**					
D. brand knowledge	4.25	1.83	0.15	**0.68**				
Communication	4.78	1.55	0.27	0.29	**0.73**			
C.-S. relationship	5.23	1.31	0.32	0.14	0.50	**0.76**		
D. brand equity	4.38	1.69	0.34	0.26	0.55	0.49	**0.67**	
D. brand trust	5.20	1.35	0.25	0.15	0.59	0.62	0.50	**0.78**

Means and standard deviations are based on summated scale averages.
Squared correlations are below the diagonal and AVE estimates are presented on the diagonal.

4.5.2.3.3 Structural model

The hypothesized structural model was tested using SPSS AMOS 22. The results of the analysis and the model fit summary are shown in Figure 20.

Figure 20: Structural model results



Although the chi-square and the p-value test indicate insufficient results (χ^2 (df, p) = 485.527 (219, p = .00); χ^2/df = 2.217) since they assume a large sample size, the overall fit of the model is acceptable (RMSEA = .085; CFI = .920). All five hypothesized paths are positive and statistically significant ($p < .05$). While departmental brand awareness (β = .26; t-value = 3.54) and departmental brand knowledge (β = .22; t-value = 3.39) have positive but weak effects on departmental brand equity, there is a strong relationship between departmental trust (β = .50; t-value = 6.82) and departmental brand equity. The squared multiple correlations for the endogenous variables show that 63% of the variance in departmental brand and 73% of the variance in departmental brand trust is explained by the relations in the path model. Furthermore, the research results indicate that the department's communication efforts (β = .42; t-value = 5.33) and its relationship with its customers (β = .50; t-value = 6.55) favor departmental brand trust.

4.5.2.4 Discussion

4.5.2.4.1 Empirical findings

The purpose of the present study was to gain a deeper understanding of the factors determining departmental brand equity. The findings confirm that departmental brand awareness, departmental brand knowledge and departmental brand trust, customer-supplier relationships and communication are relevant dimensions of the departmental brand equity model.

The study confirmed that there is a positive relationship between departmental brand awareness, departmental brand knowledge, departmental brand trust and departmental brand equity. Thus, H1, H2 and H3 can be supported. Departmental brand trust has the strongest effects on departmental brand equity. This supports the assumption that the concept of departmental brand equity is particularly dependent on the relational aspect.

The study further confirmed positive effects of communication and customer-supplier relationship on departmental brand trust. Departmental brand equity can be described as the value the customer perceives in the social interactions and relations with the department's employees. It mainly depends on the department's ability to use communications and interpersonal relations to build departmental brand trust. H4 and H5 can be supported.

4.5.2.4.2 Managerial implications

The research findings have several managerial implications. The first and central implication is that managers should focus on building good relationships with the department's customers, as departmental brand equity is mainly determined by relational outcomes, such as effective communication and trust between customers and suppliers. Therefore, managers need to ensure that each staff member understands the importance of his behavior in building brand equity and is enabled with the right knowledge and skills to create trustful relationships with his customers. Trust building activities include, for example, building a shared value system, avoiding opportunist actions, sharing meaningful information, solving disputes amicably and maximizing the relationship benefits (Hart and Johnson 1999; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Wilson 1995). Ideally, basic values and customer-oriented behaviors are already anchored in the departmental brand identity, such as in the brand culture, brand vision or brand personality. For example, a customer-oriented culture likely encourages employees to build trustful relationships with their customers (Yohn 2017). Just as a strong departmental brand can strengthen the relationship between the customer and the department (supplier), a strong relationship can support and advance the departmental brand. Brands are relationship builders and trust is a major outcome of successful relationships, such as the departmental brand itself illustrates the relationship between internal customer and suppliers (Blackston 1992; Riley and de Chernatony 2000).

Managers should also consider co-creation as a trust building activity. Following the theory of Hollebeek (2011), Nysveen and Pedersen (2014) and Sahin, Zehir, and Kitapçı (2011), customer involvement and brand experience contribute to relationship quality based on trust, commitment and satisfaction. At the practical level, it implies the active participation of the customer in the development and advancement of the departmental brand. The concept of the brand allows the customer to shape the brand identity although he is neither "the owner" of the brand nor a member of the department. For instance, customers can be invited to discuss and determine the brand values in workshops. It is important that the department promotes a culture of co-creation and that team members appreciate the customers' feedback as a valuable source of success and sustainability of the department. With regard to employee branding, employees should be trained on how to encourage customers to speak up and share their ideas.

Another implication derived from the empirical study results is that managers should create awareness for the brand and impart brand knowledge to relevant target groups. In practice, it frequently occurs that new communication measures and channels are defined and implemented without having examined existing ones for their appropriateness. In many cases it is not necessary to create new channels, but rather to revise the information flowing through these channels. Relevant brand touchpoints should be identified first. Brand touchpoints can be either tangible (e.g. product, packaging, print advertising) or intangible (e.g. service, atmosphere, social media), created by the brand owner (e.g. newsletter) or the brand user (e.g. blog) (Abbing 2010). In any case, managers should ensure that the transmitted information is consistent with the defined brand and its identity. Further, they should examine to what extent important target groups are aware of the departmental brand. This includes the identification of the brand's stakeholders and the specification of the value delivered by the brand (Jones 2005).

4.5.2.4.3 Limitations and further research

This study has several limitations suggesting that further research is needed to replicate and extend the findings of this study.

First, the findings are limited to the sample used in the study and should be replicated with different departments and companies. Using a larger sample size may also serve to increase fit indices (Wolf et al. 2013). Furthermore, additional investigations of departmental brand equity are necessary to develop a more detailed understanding of the construct and its predictors. For instance, the constructs items used to measure departmental brand equity are mainly based on a functional understanding of value (support, efficiency and quality). However, the functional equity concept has its roots in the previous goods-dominant logic. It therefore should be extended to the recent service-dominant logic that focuses on experiential or relational value created during the customer's interaction with the brand. Thus, future research should not only include functional, but also symbolic and experiential equity concepts that may underlie the concept of departmental brand equity.

Additionally, it can be valuable to investigate whether these equity concepts are predicted by the same constructs as used in this study (departmental brand awareness, departmental brand knowledge, and departmental brand trust). Consideration should be also given to testing additional predictors, such as perceived performance or perceived service quality. Here, it may be useful to find out if these constructs have stronger effects on a functional-based- or relational-based brand equity concept. The question of which concept is best suited to describe departmental brand equity may also depend on the individual case. Further research is necessary to confirm if departments that create value through transactional exchange relationships (see Section 2.2.2) may better select a functional-based departmental brand equity approach than a relational-based brand equity approach. While this study examines departmental brand equity as a dependent variable, future research should test to what extent the departmental brand promotes the relationship between customers and suppliers (Berry 2000). In summary, this study is supposed to be a starting point in examining the concept of departmental brand equity. More investigations are indispensable to grasp the full scope of the concept.

4.5.3 Levers to generate departmental brand equity

The empirical study demonstrated that in particular two factors had strong effects on departmental brand equity. Taking these factors levers can be derived for departmental brand equity model. The first lever is the establishment of productive and sustainable customer-supplier relationships. The second lever is departmental brand-focused communications. It serves to establish, promote and maintain company-wide departmental brand awareness, departmental brand knowledge and departmental brand relationships.

4.5.3.1 Internal customer-supplier relationships

This section is dedicated to the lever customer-supplier relationships. With reference to Chapter 2 and in accordance with the service-dominant logic, value is co-created by the customer and implies mutual and reciprocal service exchanges in collaborative relationships. Cultivating internal-customer relationships is not only beneficial in terms of creating value for the firm, but also of enhancing departmental brand and relationship equity (Vargo 2009). For instance, Crosby, Evans, and Cowles (1990) found a strong influence of relational selling behavior on the quality of customer-salesperson relationship. The previous section emphasized the relevance of social interactions and relationships in creating (relational) brand equity. In any case, the most important relationship builder is the employee himself. In this regard, employee branding – defined as the process to train and motivate employees to act in favor of the defined brand – is an integral part of creating departmental brand equity. In addition, employees should be able to interact and interconnect with its individual internal customers.

Ramani and Kumar (2008) suggested four measures to interact successfully with customer. They are briefly described and discussed in the departmental context.

1) The customer concept

The customer concept is based on the belief that the individual customer should be regarded as the starting point of all marketing activities. This requires that departments should become aware not only of their marketing activities but also of their internal customers.

2) Interaction response capacity

Interaction response capacity refers to the ability to respond to each customer individually. By referring to Chapter 2, internal customers receive services from the service-suppling department. However, the role of the supplier or the customer is not static. In the larger context, all actors are both "producers" and "consumers" of services, and value results from the reciprocal service provision (Vargo 2009). Thus, when taking the role of the service supplier, departments should be able to respond to the individual needs of their customers based on the information obtained through the interactions with the customers (Hoekstra, Leeflang, and Wittink 1999). Although the interaction and response capacity is vital for building customer-supplier relationships, departments need to ensure that all customer interactions are in accordance with the departmental brand. In some cases, customers may expect services or behaviors that are inconsistent with the defined departmental brand values. For example, a customer wants his supplier to ignore certain quality guidelines for its own benefit. However, maintaining quality standards is very important for the supplier. This is also rooted in the traditions and values of the department. In these cases, customer expectations need to be balanced against keeping the brand promise.

3) Customer empowerment

Third, Ramani and Kumar (2008) suggested implementing customer empowerment practices to achieve superior relational performance. Research has shown that customer engagement promotes customers' feeling of trust, satisfaction and loyalty and strengthens the bond between the customer and the organization (Auh et al. 2007b; Rajah, Marshall, and Nam 2008). In addition, customers who feel to have a say in the organization's activities, tend to hold favorable perceptions of service quality (Czepiel 1990; Lovelock and Young 1979). However, customer participation requires the organization to broaden their views and accept customers as co-producers rather than recipients of services. To turn their customers into effective co-producers, departments should help them to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and competences. For instance, customers can be prepared by means of formal guidelines or positive reinforcement (Claycomb, Lengnick-Hall, and Inks 2001; Mills and Morris 1986). Customers may also feel engaged when their feedback, suggestions and ideas are gratefully accepted and appreciated (Gruen, Summers, and Acito 2000).

4) Customer value management

Lastly, Ramani and Kumar (2008) refer to customer value management as activities to steer marketing resource allocation strategies. With regard to departments this means that they should provide tailored services according to the expected response from each customer during the interaction. Accordingly, the focus should be on those customers and relationships that are most promising in terms of delivering the resources needed by the department to ensure their existence and, in the larger sense, create value for the firm. There is plenty of literature available on customer profitability and how it can be measured (Mulhern 1999; Niraj 2001; Reinartz, Krafft, and Hoyer 2004). Nevertheless, important is to evaluate whether and to what extent the relationship to the customer pays off for the departmental brand.

For instance, there might be customer groups that are more beneficial to generate departmental brand equity than others. For instance, departments should invest in those relationships that are likely to result in high levels of departmental brand commitment and departmental brand loyalty. Customers who feel connected with the departmental brand or with the brand community will be intrinsically motivated to act in favor of the brand, for instance, by positively talking about it or recommending it to others (Cifci and Erdogan 2016; Leckie, Nyadzayo, and Johnson 2016; Shuv-Ami 2012).

To conclude, managing customer interactions in favor of the brand assumes that staff has been equipped with the necessary brand knowledge and skills. In addition, it should be willing and motivated to embrace the brand's values. In a second step, they should learn how to generate, maintain and develop successful customer relationships with the purpose of both creating departmental brand equity and value for firm. In this connection, customer empowerment and co-creation practices turned out to be vital. Besides the competence of managing relationships within the brand's framework, the employee's technical expertise and competence is a basic requirement to deliver service quality and perform on the job (Mosley 2007; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985; Reynoso and Moores 1995). Finally, successful and enduring internal customer-supplier relationships depend on the commitment of both parties. Consequently, they can be only partially shaped by the suppliers (Crosby, Evans, and Cowles 1990; Harris and de Chernatony 2001; Wilkins and Ouchi 1983).

4.5.3.2 Departmental brand-focused communications

Departmental brand-focused communications is the second lever of departmental brand equity. It covers measures to make the departmental brand more visible within the company, to build or expand brand knowledge and to create strong and favorable associations with the brand. Brand consistent communication is imperative to ensure that the defined departmental brand identity is properly projected to the department's stakeholders (Burmann and Zeplin 2005; Harkness 1999; Juntunen et al. 2010). To spread key messages, managers can choose from a range of different tools, measures and channels. In many cases, measures applied for internal branding purposes can be similarly used for external branding purposes. As an example, brand stories can be shared among the department's employees but also and "externally" among the department's customers (Smith and Wintrob 2013).

Many different communication measures exist that are can be applied to leverage the departmental brand. This section however highlights two communication measures that have recently gained increasing attention in branding practice and can be seen of higher relevance to departmental branding.

4.5.3.2.1 History branding

Every organization has a unique identity, not least because of its particular history. It is this unique history of an organization that was often designated by organizational theorists as "imperfectly imitable resource" (Barney 1991, 1986b; Fiol 2001; Lippman and Rumelt 1982; Porter 1981). More recently, branding experts agree on brand heritage as a dimension of the corporate brand identity (Aaker 2004; Ballantyne, Warren, and Nobbs 2006; Santos, Burghausen, and Balmer 2016; Urde, Greyser, and Balmer 2007). Identifying, nurturing and maintaining heritage can add differentiation, authenticity and credibility to the brand. It can also support employer branding activities, such as attracting and retaining employees. In any regard, staff feels proud to be part of an organization that has a story to tell (Santos, Burghausen, and Balmer 2016; Urde, Greyser, and Balmer 2007).

The historical core of the brand can be highlighted through various measures including brand jubilees, brand museums, key advertising figures, nostalgia packaging and graphics (Ballantyne, Warren, and Nobbs 2006; Paul 2010). Many good practices exist in product and corporate heritage branding, such as brand jubilees of traditional brands like Bertelsmann, Meissen or Monopoly, or brand museums, such as The Heineken Experience Museum in Amsterdam, The Guinness Storehouse Museum in Dublin and The World of Coca Cola in Atlanta (Hollenbeck, Peters, and Zinkhan 2008; Paul 2010). As another example, Adidas's sports heritage division sells products established under Adidas "Originals" (Adidas 2017). Some of these measures can be adopted for departmental brand. For instance, departments may celebrate the year of their foundation or use certain symbols and ceremonies to highlight their history. Departments may also contribute with contents or artifacts to the corporate brand museum, and thereby take advantage of corporate branding effects (Santos, Burghausen, and Balmer 2016).

For instance, Blombäck and Brunninge (2009) proposed to apply historical references in communications. They advised managers first to examine why and how historical references can be used in their organization. Further, they should understand how history contributes to the construction of the organizational identity and what it means to the corporate strategy. After managers have understood the impact of using historical references, they can start to implement respective communication measures. In this regard, they must ensure that historical references match the brand promise and are consistent with the brand identity (Bernstein 2009). When historical branding is applied at departmental level, it should be additionally ensured that departmental brand-focused communications supporting the departmental brand promise are consistent with corporate communications measures supporting the corporate brand promise. Regardless on which organizational level historical branding is performed, it is not a short-term action. Rather, it should be integrated into the overall and long-term branding strategy (Blombäck and Brunninge 2009).

If heritage branding unlocks value for the department depends on whether there is a heritage. To determine the depth of heritage available in the brand, Urde, Greyser, and Balmer (2007) developed a framework based upon five major elements. The first element they call "track record" refers to the proof that the organization has delivered value and fulfilled its promises over a certain period of time. The second key element "longevity" underscores the brand's consistency over time. The third element "core values" guides behaviors and actions internally and provides a promise to external stakeholders. The fourth element "use of symbols" refers to any meaningful symbols that represent the brand. Even if departments are not allowed to apply logos or symbols due to corporate guidelines, the department's name may have an historical origin and therefore can be of symbolic importance. Performing rituals or using traditions and cultural artifacts may also fall into this category. Typical examples in the organizational context are award ceremonies, conferences, birthday and Christmas celebrations, group pictures and gifts (Higgins et al. 2006; Olson 1985; Rook 1984). The last element proposed by Urde, Greyser, and Balmer "history important to identity" highlights how history contributes to the brand identity and how this influences the department's current and future operations.

An additional element is assumed to be relevant in determining the potential of heritage branding. For instance, Santos, Burghausen, and Balmer (2016, p. 81) identify effects of the product-related brand heritage on the corporate brand heritage they summarize as "upward impact of the product heritage brands." These effects are likely to exist as well when it comes to departmental branding. Departmental brand heritage can cultivate corporate brand value. Accordingly, this element can be designated as "upward impact of the departmental brand."

In conclusion, the more these elements are present in the departmental brand, the better heritage can generate brand value. However, as important as the brand's potential heritage is the management mindset and skills required to create, develop and protect the brand's heritage (Miller 2014; Urde, Greyser, and Balmer 2007).

4.5.3.2.2 Brand storytelling

A brand-focused communication technique that has recently gained popularity is storytelling (Adaval and Wyer Jr. 1998; Chiu, Hsieh, and Kuo 2012; Jain and Ahuja 2015; Woodside 2010b). Citing Herskovitz and Crystal (2010, p. 21): "Whether you are dealing with product brands or company brands, storytelling is essential to successful branding, since your brand is the sum of all your corporate behaviors and communications that inform your customers' experiences with your product or company." Basically, storytelling is a natural human activity. People tell stories to share experiences, enthrall, teaching morals or to convey values they live by (Baker and Boyle 2009).

In terms of branding, compelling stories are used to make curious, inspire, inform, involve or entertain employees. Storytelling is a conversational approach that goes beyond providing facts and information. Moreover, it connects people to the brand's vision and values. Additionally, the retelling of stories with others connects further listeners to brand as well (Smith and Wintrob 2013). Powerful brand stories have the potential to influence customer brand experiences including sensations, feelings, cognitions and their behavioral responses such as satisfaction and loyalty (Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello 2009). Brand stories engage their audience to co-create the brand. By retelling stories, storytellers incorporate and pass on brand messages by turning the brand's story into their own (Robertson 2013). Jain and Ahuja (2015, p. 143) indicate the involvement of customer as "the most valuable stage of strategic story telling." In their opinion, three stages are necessary to make brands vibrant and impactful through storytelling. During the first stage, appropriate content should be selected and harmonized with the brand identity. The second stage refers to the communication of the content. This includes the selection and combination of adequate communication channels, such as blogs, videos, advertisements or products. In the last stage, the customer's involvement and engagement adds value to the story content and co-creates the brand. The co-created story content forms the basis for new stories that can be told.

According to Smith and Wintrob (2013) there are four primary types of story constructs. They are applied to the departmental context and summarized in Table 27.

Table 27: Four types of brand story constructs

Types of story constructs	Respective application in the departmental context	Characteristics
Heritage stories	Departments with a rich and meaningful origin that strive to tell how it came to be	- Typically include origin story and attendant heritage stories - Can be told and retold internally and externally - Enliven brand foundations - Invite customers to bond with a brand at creation
Contemporary stories	Departments that strive to keep in constant touch with their stakeholders and inform about the department's daily operations	- Bring brand identity elements to life - Communicate mission, values, organizational changes, new services provided, innovations etc.
Folklore stories	Departments that intend to involve their stakeholders and don't mind when they are not able to control the entire story	- Often driven, created and spread by the customer via opportunities for engagement - Ingrain consumer points of view into the brand narrative - Can include oral histories, popular beliefs, unique landscape, customs, myths, parodies etc.
Vision stories	Departments that seek to share their strategic goals, vision and mission	- Share vision stories with all stakeholders to indicate direction and provide orientation - Often used to give new directional objectives or management goals - Engage stakeholders to join the cause

Although each story has a different focus, combining story types may best help to create authentic and enduring experiences, for both internal and external stakeholders. Further storytelling techniques and examples are provided, for example, by Jain and Ahuja (2015) and Woodside (2010).

When using narratives to communicate the brand, it is important to know that positive effects of storytelling become apparent only in the long-term. Therefore, a strategic approach is indispensable to ensure that brand messages spread through storytelling are consistent and contribute to build brand equity (Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello 2009). With reference to the departmental context, it needs to be discussed to what extent storytelling can be included in the department's communication strategy. Small departments may not have the required expertise, budget or personnel to establish a storytelling campaign. Furthermore, it must be ensured that the department's story is consistent with the overarching corporate story of the firm. In summary, storytelling can be seen as a promising means of communication in the departmental branding context. Further research in this field may be suggested.

4.5.3.2.3 Summary of departmental brand-focused communications

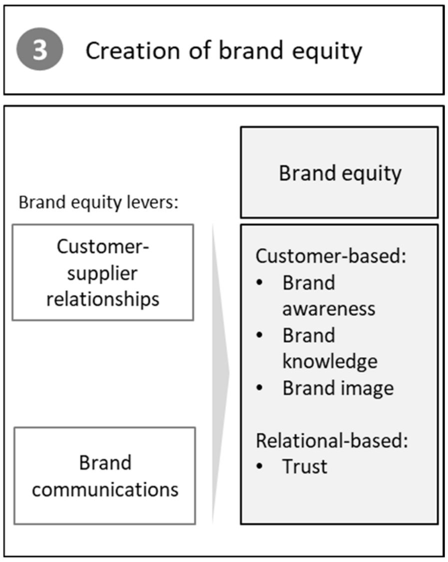
To conclude, departmental brand-focused communication is vital to create brand awareness and to influence stakeholder perceptions in favor of the departmental brand. Increased visibility can lead to a wider acceptance and influence of the department and to more effective service exchanges along the value-chain, but also bears the risk that inconsistencies, for example in promised and delivered services, become more visible as well. Therefore it is vital to verify whether the brand promise has been properly formulated, transmitted and interpreted by the brand's stakeholders (Harris and de Chernatony 2001).

4.5.4 Conclusion

This chapter has described the generation of departmental brand equity with an internal customer-directed branding focus. Departmental branding takes a conscious view to see the internal customer as the main object of focus to create brand equity. By analyzing and deriving determinants in departmental brand equity, brand knowledge, brand awareness from the customer-based view and trust from the relational-based view of brand equity were selected as being relevant determinants to create departmental brand equity. Brand image may constitute an important factor for departmental brand equity but its application in a service-dominant understanding of the departmental brand could not be clearly derived.

Furthermore, the antecedents of trust, namely customer-supplier relationships and communication, were also distinguished and included in the model. The departmental brand equity model is displayed in Figure 21.

Figure 21: Departmental brand equity model



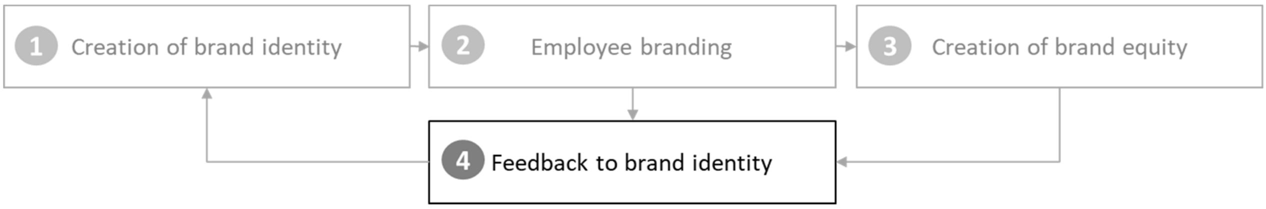
The empirical study could prove the positive relationship of these determinants to departmental brand equity. The findings support the assumption that the concept of departmental brand equity is a relational-based concept. Departmental brand trust has the strongest effects on departmental brand equity. It mainly depends on the department's ability to use communications and interpersonal relations to build departmental brand trust. As such managers should focus on building good relationships with the department's customers, as well as that managers need to create awareness for their departmental brand. The application of the subsequent levers customer-supplier relationships and departmental brand-focused communications contribute to creating brand equity for the departmental brand.

4.6 Feedback to departmental brand identity

In this section the final element of the departmental brand model is described. Firstly, the context for the feedback loop is described. Secondly, possible implications for the departmental context are cited.

As indicated by Figure 22, the first three steps of departmental branding are not isolated activities. Rather, they are part of a continuous process. This is based on the following assumptions. Firstly, brand identity and brand image are dynamically constructed. Brand identity influences the brand perception and inversely the brand perception influences through the feedback from stakeholders the definition of brand identity (see Section 4.3.2). Secondly, according to the service-dominant logic the brand is co-created by its stakeholders (Nysveen and Pedersen 2014; Ramaswamy and Ozcan 2016). Thus, they stand in a constant loop of iterations with brand identity. As such there it can be concluded that feedback or any cycle back to brand identity is an innate part of any branding model – and so must also be part of the departmental brand model.

Figure 22: Feedback to brand identity

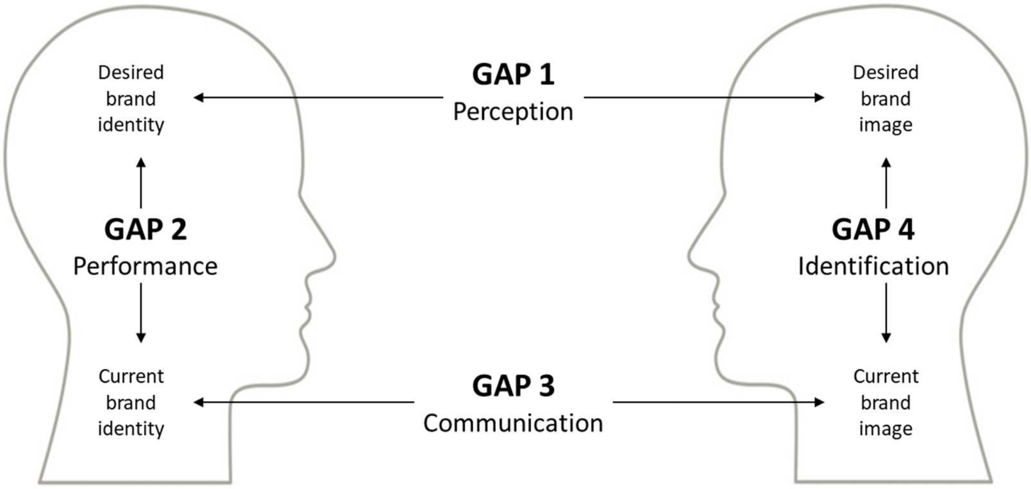


The dynamic construction of departmental branding (see Section 4.3.2) highlighted how brand identity and brand image, the latter as an element of brand equity (see Section 4.5.1.1), stand in a constant state of misalignment or gap. The smaller the difference between brand identity and brand image, the better the brand fulfills its purposes (Burmann et al. 2012). Therefore, de Chernatony (1999) referred to brand building as a process of "gap reduction."

A commonly tool that is used to implement business process improvement is the gap analysis. It compares actual performance with desired performance and by this generates accurate knowledge of the gaps crucial to redesign business processes (Bruton 1969; Juan and Ou-Yang 2004). In marketing contexts, the gap analysis is used, for example, to assess and reduce the gap between customer expectations and customer satisfaction (Pandya 2014; Tauber 1985). In service quality research, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) developed the "gap model of service quality" to identify possible gaps in the perception of service quality.

The gap model of service quality was adopted by Burmann and Meffert (2005) to identify gaps in the context of branding (see Figure 23). The model comprises two major dimensions. The first dimension compares the brand creators' perception with stakeholders' perception of the brand (gap 1 and gap 2). The second dimension examines the current status of the brand and compares it to a future, desired brand status (gap 2 and gap 4). This results into overall four gaps.

Figure 23: The gap model of brand identity and brand image



Based on Burmann and Meffert (2005, p. 90)

Taking the model of Burmann and Meffert (2005) and Parasuramam, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) as orientation, possible implications in the context of departmental branding can be described. Table 28 lists possible reasons for the gaps that are subsequently outlined by referring to the challenges of internal departments as described in Chapter 2.5.

Table 28: Possible gaps in the perception of departmental brands

Gap types		**Description**	**Possible reasons for the gaps**
Perception gap (Gap 1)	Desired brand identity vs. desired brand image	Brand creators' idea of the target brand identity differs from customer' expectations on what the brand delivers and stands for	- Brand creators have unrealistic expectations of future brand identity - Customers have unrealistic expectations of brand e.g. due to a lack of knowledge or interest - Insufficient alignment of both parties' needs, goals and interests
Performance gap (Gap 2)	Current brand identity vs. desired brand identity	Brand creators do not meet their own expectations in terms of the desired brand identity	- Lack of knowledge: Employees do not know how to behave in order to meet expectations. - Lack of motivation: Employees are not motivated to behave in accordance with the brand - Lack of skills: Employees are not able to behave in a brand-oriented manner - Brand creators have unrealistic expectations of future brand identity - Managers fail to communicate brand-related expectations to their employees
Communication gap (Gap 3)	Current brand identity vs. current brand image	Brand creators' self-definition differs from the perceptions of the customers	- Brand communication is not effective (e.g. wrong communication strategy) - Failure of understanding (e.g. due to inconsistent brand behavior)
Identification gap (Gap 4)	Current brand image vs. desired brand image	Expectations of the brand do not match the brand experiences of the customers	- Brand promises more than it delivers - Customers' expectations are too high - Customers have unrealistic expectations of brand (e.g. due to lack of knowledge or interest)

The different gaps are not necessarily mutually exclusive when regarding the challenges of internal support functions. However, they highlight the challenges that a departmental brand is faced with. Having unrealistic expectations and insufficient alignment has been cited previously in Chapter 2.

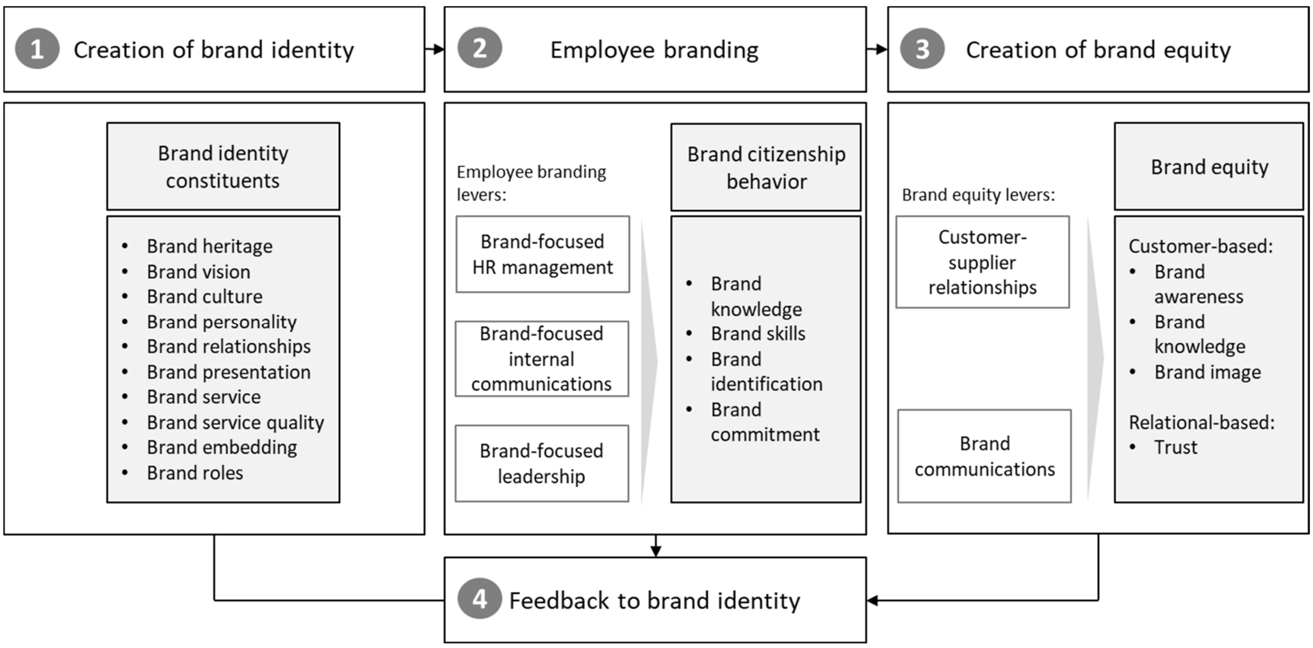
Also having brand knowledge, creating brand awareness and ensuring consistent brand behavior from a communication gap and from an identification gap perspective is important as well to address the challenge of ambiguity of roles, distinguishing the visibility of internal support functions and its subordinate role.

In summary, the gap model is considered to be an appropriate and strategic tool to steer departmental brands. Once created, brands need to be assessed and adjusted on a regular basis to ensure that defined purposes are fulfilled. The status quo of the brand identity indicates what has been established thus far and what needs to be improved in future. The assessment of the brand image, on the other hand, provides valuable insight on how external entities evaluate the departmental brand. The contribution of the discussion in this section has been twofold: Not only has firstly the last element of the model in departmental branding been defined. But secondly, the connection of branding and its own continuous challenge of closing gaps in identity and image has been demonstrated to correspond with the challenges faced by internal departments. This may be seen as an indication of practical legitimacy of the theoretical model to the practical business situation, which will be investigated in Chapter 5.

4.7 Departmental branding model summary

This chapter has proposed a conceptual model for departmental branding that improves the visibility and legitimacy of internal departments. The model is displayed in Figure 24. The definition builds on the established prerequisites given through the broadening of marketing, branding and the transfer from corporate branding in Chapter 3.

Figure 24: Departmental branding model



Brand identity presented input factors for differentiation in a resource based approach and applied these to the departmental context to create value. Employee branding then introduced the important role of the employee – not only as a brand ambassador – but also as the interface between the department and the internal customer. This aspect was highlighted of particular importance in the departmental brand model since the internal customer relationships between department employee and customer create the business value for the department. It was presented how with three different levers employees can be engaged to create brand citizenship behavior and that brand knowledge, brand skills, brand identification and brand commitment are important determinants in the effectiveness of the outcome.

Brand equity was shown to be of a relational nature and it was proven in the empirical study that trust is an important determinant. By using the customer supplier relationships as well as brand communications as levers, brand equity could be created thus increasing the visibility and legitimacy of the department. This in turn is also the basis for the fourth element of feedback to brand identity: By addressing the “gap reduction” cited by de Chernatony (1999) the model addresses the fact that the brand’s stakeholders are co-creators of the brand thus standing in a constant loop of iterations with brand identity. The connection of branding and its own continuous challenge of closing gaps in identity and image was demonstrated to correspond with the challenges faced by internal departments.

5 Action-oriented case study at Siemens Healthineers

The previous chapters have been concerned with the following research subjects:

- Chapter 2 examined the characteristics of internal support functions to identify their specific challenges
- Chapter 3 analyzed the evolution of the marketing and branding concept to identify and transfer appropriate approaches to the field of departmental branding
- Chapter 4 introduced the concept of departmental branding to guide departmental leaders along the major steps of establishing departmental brands

What has not been discussed so far is the application of departmental branding in the specific context of overcoming the challenges for internal support functions. In addition, Chapter 3 proposed a conceptual framework of departmental branding but did not address the implementation of departmental branding on a real case basis. This chapter intends to close this gap by providing practical insights into the application of departmental branding for the purpose of increasing the visibility and legitimacy of an internal support function by combining case study methodology with action research. It answers the following research question:

RQ4: What practical measures can be applied to adopt a departmental branding model?

The case was performed at the Department for Environmental Protection, Health Management and Safety (EHS) at Siemens Healthineers. It is one of Siemens Healthineers support functions and responsible for safeguarding the health and safety of the employees, minimizing the adverse impact on the environment and ensuring market access of Siemens Healthineers products. As explored by Chapter 2, internal support functions have specific characteristics that can lead to a lack of awareness and recognition of their topics, services and value contributions. Since internal visibility and acceptance are crucial, for example, in terms of, accessing strategic resources, influencing strategic management decisions and creating value for the firm, internal support functions need to find ways to get more visible and recognized within the firm.

Within this thesis branding is discussed as a strategic approach to manage the identity and the perceptions of departments such as internal support functions. This case study has been developed through a participatory observation during which the researcher worked as full-time employee in the EHS Department. It aims to illustrate the implementation of departmental branding and to identify both facilitators of and barriers to departmental branding in the context of a large multi-national industrial company.

This chapter is divided into three major parts. The first part deals with the action research case study as a scientific research method and explains why it has been selected within this thesis. The second part introduces the EHS Department as one of Siemens Healthineers support functions and investigates their observable challenges in reference to internal visibility and legitimacy. The final section focuses on how the departmental branding model has been implemented at the EHS Department and identifies facilitators and barriers of implementation.

5.1 The action research case study approach

This section deals with the fundamentals of case study research and action research.

5.1.1 Fundamentals of case study research

A case is defined by Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 25) as “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context.” It describes the unit of analysis, which can be, for example, an individual, organization, process, event or program (Baxter and Jack 2008). The case study approach can be used to pursue various goals, such as providing descriptions, generating theory or testing theory (Eisenhardt 1989). Woodside (2010) refer to the objectives of case studies as any combination of description, understanding, prediction, and control. He emphasizes the “deep understanding of the actors, interactions, sentiments, and behaviors occurring for a specific process through time” as the principal objective of case study research (Woodside 2010, p. 6). Following Yin (2009), a case study is a preferred method when there is a need to understand and explain complex social phenomena in contemporary and real-life contexts and, unlike in experiments, the researcher has little control over events in the sense that he cannot systematically and directly manipulate relevant behaviors. In contrast to large sample surveys, necessary detail and profound understanding can be gained through in-depth analysis of reported behaviors, events and conversations (Woodside 2010). The case study method can be appropriate, for example, to investigate small group behaviors, international relations, individual life cycles or organizational and managerial processes (Yin 2009). Case studies are commonly used in social science disciplines such as psychology (Champagne 2011; Silverstein 2007), sociology (Bernardez and Kaufman 2013; Yan Yan 2014), political science (Nwatarali and Dim 2015; Rivers 2011), education (Pavlović et al. 2014; Uhlig et al. 2015) and marketing (Lowe, Lynch, and Lowe 2014; Pusa and Uusitalo 2014).

Most case studies classifications are based upon of Lijphart's (1971) categories of atheoretical, interpretive, hypothesis-generating, theory-confirming, theory-infirming, and deviant case studies and Eckstein's (2000) types of configurative-idiographic, disciplined-configurative, heuristic, plausibility probe, and crucial case studies. They reflect ideal types, however in practice, case studies appear to combine a number of different purposes, mostly within multi-stage research (Levy 2008). Table 29 has been partly adopted by Baxter and Jack (2008). It illustrates the five basic types of case studies.

Table 29: Basic types of case studies

Case study type	Description	Example in literature
Descriptive case study	It describes the intervention or phenomenon and its real-life context. The aim is to describe, explain and interpret a case rather than making theoretical generalizations.	Adithipyangkul and Prasarnphanich (2008): Descriptive Case Study of the Use of Non Cash and Informal Compensation in Thailand
Exploratory case study	Hypothesis generating case study that aims to generalize beyond the data. Particularly useful when the case does not fit an existing theory.	Williams and Buttle (2014): Managing negative word-of-mouth: an exploratory study
Explanatory case study	Hypothesis testing case study that tries to explain presumed causal links in complex real-life interventions.	Patsiotis, Webber, and Hughes (2013): Internet shopping and internet banking in sequence: An explanatory case study
Single case study	It investigates one case.	Silverstein (2007): Diagnosis of Personality Disorders: A Case Study
Multiple/collective case studies	They explore the differences between at least two cases and replicate findings across cases.	Braaksma et al. (2013): Failure mode and effect analysis in asset maintenance: a multiple case study in the process industry

There are multiple ways to collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data in case study research. Typically, data is gained from various sources such as archives, interviews, observations or questionnaires. Case studies can be conducted by a single investigator or research team (Eisenhardt 1989). These investigator(s) may be outsiders (amateurs or trained) or “knowing” insiders. Campbell (1975 pp. 178, 179) called this knowing “common-sense knowing” and added: “This is not to say that such common-sense naturalistic observation is objective, dependable, or unbiased. But it is all that we have. It is the only route to knowledge-noisy, fallible, and biased though it be." Indeed, case study research is often called into question for its assumed lack of rigor. For instance, a case study researcher is often accused for not following a systematic approach, being subjective or consciously manipulating study results (Yin 2009). The core criticism is that results based on case study research cannot be easily generalized. The case investigated is unique, since it represents a one-off context (Woodside 2010).

5.1.2 Fundamentals of action research

Action research has been traditionally conceptualized in the context of organization studies and social science as an collaborative research approach aiming to create actionable knowledge that is useful for practitioners and robust for scholars (Coghlan 2011). Unlike traditional research methods, action research is more an evolutionary process where research questions are not expected to fit into existing literature (Prasad et al. 2018). While traditional positivist science tends to focus on research only, action research has two outcomes: action and research (Coughlan and Coghlan 2002). Action research addresses the practical concerns arising in an immediate problematic situation, try to change the problem situation itself while contributing to the goals of social science (Foster 1972; Rapoport 1970).

One of the pioneers of action research was Kurt Lewin (Lewin 1997). His ideas inspired many scholars within the domains of social and organizational psychology but also outside of these fields, such as in communication studies (Rogers 1994). Bargal (2006, p. 369) extracted eight principles based on Lewin's paradigm of action research, as listed in the following.

1 Action research combines a systematic study, sometimes experimental, of a social problem as well as the endeavors to solve it.
2 Action research includes a spiral process of data collection to determine goals, action to implement goals and assessment of the result of the intervention.
3 Action research demands feedback of the results of intervention to all parties involved in the research.
4 Action research implies continuous cooperation between researchers and practitioners.
5 Action research relies on the principles of group dynamics and is anchored in its change phases. The phases are: unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Decision-making is mutual and is carried out in a public way.
6 Action research takes into account issues of values, objectives and power needs of parties involved.

7 Action research serves to create knowledge, to formulate principles of intervention and also to develop instruments for selection, intervention and training.
8 Within the framework of action research there is much emphasis on recruitment, training and support of the change agents.

According to Lewin, action research can be described as a collaborative and spiral steps of constructing a change situation or problem, planning actions, gathering information and data, taking action, and fact-finding of that action in order to take further actions (Bargal 2006; Lewin 1997). This process have been adopted, albeit with slight variations, by many action researchers (Whatley 2015; Zuber-Skerritt 2002).

For instance, Susman and Evered (1978) outlined five phases of the action research cycle: diagnosing, action planning, action taking, evaluating, and specifying learning. The diagnosing phase refers to the identification of a practical problem or an improvement opportunity to be solved with the help of the researcher (Kock, Avison, and Malaurent 2017). During the following phases of action planning and action taking, the researcher contributes with theoretical knowledge and experiences to the problem-solving process, and through this co-produces solutions through collaboration with the client system. The client system denotes the social system such as a group, an organization, a network of organizations or a community, in which the problems or improvement opportunities are encountered and should be solved through action research (Susman and Evered 1978). The planning and implementation phase is followed by the evaluating phase that involves the practical assessment and reflection on the selected course of action (Coghlan 2011). This evaluation component of action research was highly appreciated by Lewin because it tells people to what extent formulated objectives were achieved and changes in methods of interventions are required (Bargal 2006). The final phase of the action research process intends to specify learnings and identify general findings (Susman and Evered 1978). External validity increases when many action research cycles are practiced, for example, for a similar project at different organizations or different projects at the same organization and conclusions can be generalized from the specific set of conditions to other settings (Kock, Avison, and Malaurent 2017).

Action research and case study research share some similarities. For example both are concerned with gaining an in-depth understanding of a particular phenomenon, deal with context-bound knowledge, focus on local realities and embrace a range of perspectives and research designs (Blichfeldt and Andersen 2006). However, there are also some differences between these two forms of research practices. For instance, action research is more characterized by the active and self-involvement of the researcher who identifies and solves a practical problem through action (Zuber-Skerritt 2002). On the other hand, case study research investigates a phenomena that has been specified by the researcher prior to conducting the study. For instance, Yin (2009) emphasized the necessity of a logic model framework of ideas and propositions to conduct a case study. Propositions can be derived from literature, personal/professional experience, theories and/or generalizations based on empirical data (Baxter and Jack 2008). Both methods do not seek to generate universal knowledge. However, action researchers tend to pass the decision to the reader on what can be taken from the story whereas case researchers try to achieve a certain level of generalization (Blichfeldt and Andersen 2006). Action research faces more difficulties of generalizing results, because as stated by Coghlan (2002, p. 62) "action research is fundamentally about telling a story as it happens." In contrast, case researchers do not face this difficulty to the same extent, as they have better possibilities to choose contexts that support analytical generalizations (Blichfeldt and Andersen 2006).

5.1.3 Reasons for conducting an action research case study

The study at hand combines case study with action research methodology for the following reasons: First, it draws on case study methodology by building on existing research in terms of both specific characteristics and challenges of support functions (Chapter 2) and branding transferred from corporate branding to the context of departmental branding (Chapter 4). Consequently, this study investigates and builds on phenomena that have been specified by the researcher in advance. Second, this study draws on action research as it allowed the researcher to study and understand a practical problem in more depth and actively contribute with theoretical knowledge and experiences to the problem-solving process.

This combination of both research methods has been termed, for instance by McManners (2016, p. 204) as "action research case study" he describes as "an action orientated approach to a prescriptive case study process combining problem solving with research in a way that is appropriate to the circumstances of the research to provide both academic rigour and practical relevance." This term is also utilized when referring to the study at hand.

This thesis has been created in close cooperation with Siemens Healthineers. Siemens Healthineers was considered for conducting the case study because it is a large and international company that consists of an extensive number of sub-organizations. It therefore provides a complex environment that allows to identify facilitators of and barriers to departmental branding. In addition to this, Siemens Healthineers was open for testing the concept of departmental branding and provided as such a good research environment. From October 2012 until January 2016 the researcher has been employed in the Siemens Healthineers organization as a PhD student. Her role allowed her to access internal data, participate in meetings and discussions, conduct surveys, talk to experts and contribute actively in the development and implementation of departmental branding measures at the EHS Department.

An action research case study approach was chosen to handle this case-specific information from different internal sources and embed it into a scientific frame. As indicated above, case studies and action research are suitable to investigate and explain complex social phenomena, such as particular behavior in organizations, as given in this thesis. Based on these initial investigations, an action research case study further contains highly practice-oriented and case-specific managerial implications. For instance, this chapter intends to identify the facilitators and barriers of applying departmental branding within a large multi-national industrial company. Additionally, action research case studies are useful when a fundamental understanding is required in rarely explored areas. This applies to this thesis as well because there is little literature available on examining the challenges of internal support functions (Chapter 2). This also applies to the application of branding to address the challenges.

In contrast to survey research, case study and action research offer more freedoms in terms of gathering and preparing information. For example, case studied do not necessarily require transforming explicit information to responses in fixed-point questionnaires (Woodside 2010). This was important because data collecting within the firm is not always easy. Internal research projects, especially surveys, are often associated with time-intensive internal approval processes, for example through the workers council, the data protection manager or the responsible manager. And even if data protection is ensured, management sometimes rejects questionnaires that contain sensitive questions or address certain pain points. Finally, an action research case study is supposed to be an appropriate supplement to the previous chapters since it puts the theoretical elaborations into practice, thereby making it more concrete and understandable and allowing for further, more practical insights into the implementation of departmental branding.

5.1.4 Research questions and method

This case study is structured along three research questions. Each of them is dedicated to a specific phase or phases of the action research cycle. They are listed in Table 30.

Table 30: Research questions of this case study linked to phases of action research

Research questions		Phases of action research
RQ1	What are the observed challenges of the EHS Department in reference to internal visibility and legitimacy?	1. Diagnosing
RQ2	How has the EHS Department implemented branding to increase its internal visibility and legitimacy?	2. Action Planning 3. Action Taking 4. Evaluating
RQ3	What are the facilitators and barriers of departmental branding?	5. Specifying learnings

The first part of the case study is concerned with the diagnosing phase that aims to investigate the challenges of the EHS Department in reference to internal visibility and legitimacy. This research part is mainly confirmatory since propositions are formulated based on the outcomes of the literature analysis conducted on the specific characteristics and challenges of internal support functions. However, as this topic is very specific in nature and has been only sporadically addressed in literature, this section may also contribute in the incremental development of knowledge in this area.

The second research part of this case study seeks to provide answers to the research question of how branding has been implemented at the EHS Department to increase its internal visibility and acceptance. This research part is descriptive in the way it provides practical insights into application of branding at a departmental level. In addition, action research methodology is applied due to the researcher's participatory role in the development and implementation of departmental branding measures. Referring to the phases of action research adopted by Susman and Evered (1978), this section provides insights into the action planning, action taking and evaluation phase with regard to departmental branding applied at the EHS Department.

Basically, this study is a single case study, in which the EHS Department is the unit of analysis. Only in a few instances, it was extended to include the superior Quality Department (QT), incorporating EHS and two other support functions at the same organizational level. The rationale behind this was that some branding measures were also implemented at a superior level, as all the three units organized under the Quality Department have been found to face similar challenges in terms of achieving internal visibility and acceptance.

The concluding section in this chapter is dedicated to the facilitators and barriers identified while applying departmental branding at EHS. It incorporates the final phase of action research in which learnings and general findings are specified.

This case study involved data collection from various sources, such as:

- Internal documents and presentations
- Interviews
- Surveys
- Observations by the researcher
- Observations by the project group
- Observations by the Head of EHS and the Head of Quality

5.2 Siemens Healthineers and the EHS Department

This section provides a brief overview about Siemens Healthineers and the EHS Department.

5.2.1 Siemens Healthineers

Siemens Healthineers is one of the world's largest providers of medical technologies with a 120-year track record of industry firsts and 18,500 patents globally. It has over 50,000 employees in more than 70 countries. Siemens Healthineers is a market leader in diagnostic imaging with systems for computed tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, molecular imaging, x-ray products, ultrasound systems and imaging IT. In the field of diagnostics Siemens Healthineers offers a broad spectrum of immunoassay, chemistry, hematology, molecular, and urinalysis testing systems. Siemens Healthineers portfolio also encompasses advanced therapies, covering innovative therapy concepts and minimally procedures with angiography systems, mobile C-arms and hybrid operating rooms for image-guided therapy. Finally, enterprise and digital services support Siemens Healthineers customers to maximize opportunities and minimize risks in a transforming healthcare industry (Siemens Healthineers 2020a).

Since March 16, 2018 Siemens Healthineers is officially traded at the stock exchanges in Frankfurt am Main (Siemens Healthineers 2020b) after having introduced its new brand name Siemens Healthineers in 2016 (Siemens Healthineers 2016).

5.2.2 The EHS Department and its topics

The EHS Department comprises the topics environmental protection, health management and safety. The EHS Department looks back on a long and successful history at Siemens. For example, the origins of Health Management date back to the 19th century when Werner von Siemens, ahead of his time, started to provide medical care for Siemens employees by hiring his personal and long-term physician Dr. Friedrich Körte. Just right after Wilhelm Röntgen discovered the X-rays in in 1896, Siemens &

Halske, received the first patent for an X-Ray tube. Some years later Siemens introduced first measures to protect their employees against radiation exposure (HC QT EHS 2015a).

Table 31 shows the current portfolio of the EHS Organization.

Table 31: Overview of the EHS topics

Environmental protection, health management and safety (EHS)				
Environmental protection	**Health management**	**Safety**	**Corporate testing laboratory**	**Technical regulation and standardization**
Industrial-related: - Management of energy, waste, soil and water - Climate protection Product-related: - Resource efficiency (replacement of critical materials, sustainable material use, extension of life time) - Material compliance (e.g. REACH, RoHS) - Customer Excellence	- Medical services - Ergonomic workplace design - Health promotion (healthy work environment, mental well-being, physical activity, healthy nutrition, medical care)	- Occupational health and safety - Radiation safety - Dangerous goods transport - Technical risk management	- Electrical safety - Mechanical safety - Electromagnetic compatibility - Radiation protection - Environmental protection	- Global review and management process for product safety standards - Industry relations management of trade associations - Standards secretariats

Today, the EHS portfolio includes environmental protection, which is divided into industrial environmental protection and product-related environmental production. For example, industrial environmental protection aims to reduce energy consumption, waste volume and greenhouse gas emissions. Product-related environmental protection strives to optimize environmental aspects of the Healthineers products over all life cycle phases to provide environmentally friendly products. The topic health management aims to maintain and support the health and well-being of staff member. Safety includes all efforts to provide safe workplaces for employees, contractors and customers, for instance, to take actions to reduce electrical and hazardous energy hazards and ensure that radiation total body dose is as low as reasonably achievable. Fourth, the corporate testing laboratory is a certified and independently acting test laboratory that aims to facilitate a fast and cost-efficient market access of Siemens Healthineers products. The last topic is called technical regulation and standardization, and seeks to proactively influence new technical standards and rules to support global, cost-efficient and timely market access of Siemens Healthineers products (HC QT EHS 2015b).

5.2.3 EHS as an internal support- and corporate government function

Siemens processes for all units and affiliates are organized in accordance with the Siemens Processes for Excellence (SIPEX). This structure allows target-oriented management and control of the three Siemens generic standard processes. They are:

- Management processes
- Business and operational processes
- Support processes

The management processes include enterprise strategy, financial planning and controlling, enterprise governance and legal and compliance. They define, assess and adjust the business and operational processes and the support processes. Management processes are not directly involved in process of value creation. Moreover, they provide a general framework to keep the business running. In contrast, business/operational processes add direct value by creating and providing products and solutions to the final external customers. They are divided into Customer Relationship Management, Product Lifecycle Management and Supply Chain Management. Lastly, support processes are set up to assist the management processes, business and operational processes or other support processes. Support processes are linked to other processes via process interfaces and inputs or outputs. In other terms, the output from one process is often the input for another process. Similar to the management processes, they participate indirectly in the value creation process (Siemens AG 2013).

The EHS Department is among of the various internal support functions of Siemens. By holding a corporate government function, EHS is responsible for specific regulations, processes and tasks which include, for example (Friedman 2012):

- Defining, documenting and developing processes
- Ensuring consistency with regulations
- Standardizing and aligning interfaces and interactions with other process owners
- Implementing, releasing and communicating their processes
- Planning budget for process implementation and update
- Monitoring process performance through appropriate KPIs
- Selecting process managers if required

5.2.4 Decision makers, employees and customers of the EHS Department

This section briefly introduces important stakeholders of the EHS Department. They are later referred to within the context of applying branding at the EHS Department.

5.2.4.1 The EHS Department and the EHS Board

The corporate headquarter function EHS is affiliated with the Quality (QT) Department. It comprises around 50 staff members and is led by the Head of EHS. Employees at the EHS Department perform mainly strategic tasks. The EHS Key Experts of Environmental Protection, Health Management, Safety, Radiation Protection and Technical Regulations and Standards are charged with steering and monitoring their topics throughout Siemens Healthineers. The Corporate Testing Laboratory is an operative entity organized under the EHS Department as it needs to be independently managed from the operating business for compliance reasons.

The international committee responsible for the overall strategic and future direction of the EHS Department is called EHS Board. It consists of the Head of EHS, the Head of Strategy and the Business Area EHS Officers who cover the regions Americas, Asia Pacific and Europe, Middle East and Africa (EMEA). The members of the EHS Board:

- Discuss emerging EHS-related challenges and opportunities that may affect the Healthcare business
- Decide on the EHS Policy, EHS Program, Goals and Strategy
- Steer and monitor the EHS-related operations
- Manage the EHS Brand

The EHS Board additionally comprises of long standing members. The board structure had been stable for over 5 years with no fluctuation at the time of this research.

5.2.4.2 The EHS Community

The EHS Community comprises all employees within Siemens Healthineers performing EHS-related tasks, including employees of the EHS Department at headquarters, EHS Officers in the Business Areas and Business Lines, Safety Officers, Site EHS Officers, Radiation Protection Officers, QT Heads with EHS tasks, Works Doctors and Health Managers. The EHS Community may be regarded as a global working group coordinating the EHS topics across all levels of the company. Once a year, the EHS Community meets at the Global EHS Conference to share ideas and foster collaboration.

5.2.4.3 Customers of the EHS Department

As a centralized support function, the EHS Department provides services to a number of different internal customers. Following the classification developed by Stauss (2010), they can be divided vertically in the management chain into three major target groups:

- Internal customers operating at the top management level

- Internal customers operating at the same organizational level in other support functions
- Internal customers at the operational level in the business areas

The first important target group consists of the top management. The services provided to the Siemens Healthineers Board comprise assessing, controlling and continuously improving the EHS performance to ensure market access, minimize the environmental impact, protect the health and safety of the employees and comply with legal requirements.

Second, EHS provides cross-level services and support to other internal support functions, such as HR, Marketing, Strategy and IT. Services delivered to other support functions can be described as general coordination activities or joint projects that arise mostly when topics overlap.

The final target group is the operating business. Within Siemens Healthineers the operative entities are called Business Areas and comprise, for example, Laboratory Diagnostics and Medical Imaging. They are concerned with the development and production of medical products and solutions such as computed tomography, mammography systems and clinical chemistry (Siemens Healthineers USA 2018). Typical services EHS provides to the operating business include (HC QT EHS 2015b):

- Proactively influencing new technical standards and rules in the interests of Siemens Healthineers
- Suggesting and implementing concepts to reduce work-related stress
- Supporting them in achieving CO2 neutrality, reducing the material demand in operations
- Developing and implement cultural change training, communication measures and supporting tools
- Mitigating safety risks and improve near miss reporting
- Providing engineering support to the business during product specification, design and product changes

This group of internal customers also comprises employees charged with EHS responsibilities, such as the EHS Officers, Safety Experts etc. They have a special status because they are, on the one hand, internal customers of the EHS Department receiving corporate guidance and support from the EHS Department. On the other hand, they also deliver EHS-related services when it comes to the implementation of EHS measures in their respective areas of activity and responsibility. This group of internal customers has been addressed previously as part of the EHS Community.

There are also a number of external customers of the EHS Department, such as external authorities and associations. As they play a minor role within this thesis, they are not addressed in more detail.

5.3 Investigating the challenges of the support function EHS

This section refers to the diagnosing phase of the action research cycle and addresses the subsequent research question:

RQ1: What are the observed challenges of the EHS Department in reference to internal visibility and legitimacy?

5.3.1 Definition of the propositions

Chapter 2 identified five key challenges of internals support functions. Based on this, propositions are formulated with respect to the EHS Department and displayed in Table 32.

Table 32: Overview of propositions

Challenges of internal support function identified by Chapter 2	Propositions derived with respect to the EHS Department
1) Subordinate position in the value chain impacting visibility	P1: EHS lacks visibility as a secondary support function within Siemens Healthineers
2) Visibility in the case of intangible internal services	P2: EHS lacks visibility due to the intangibility as an internal service function
3) Internal alignment as a precondition for legitimacy	P3: Missing internal alignment contributes to EHS lack of legitimacy
4) Impact of distance and multiple role perception on legitimacy	P4: Distance to customer and perceived ambiguous - and multiple roles contribute to EHS lack of legitimacy
5) Structured communication measures as a prerequisite to establish visibility and legitimacy	P5: EHS lack of structured communication measures impacting visibility and legitimacy

5.3.2 Methodical approach to test applicability of propositions

Research propositions were analyzed based on three sources: 1) A preliminary EHS Perception Study, 2) A dedicated project to investigate the propositions, 3) A Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT. They are summarized by Table 33.

Table 33: Research sources to analyze propositions

	Preliminary EHS Perception Study	QT Communication Project	Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT
Year of conduction	2012	2013/2014	2014
Unit of analysis	EHS	QT	QT
Purpose of study/project	Measure perceptions of employees and customers towards the EHS Departments Investigate status quo of EHS communication	Investigate propositions	Measure perceptions of QT customers on selected and role-specific characteristics of QT Measure customer satisfaction of QT
Research methods used	Survey Expert interviews	Observations	Survey Expert interviews
Research type	Explorative	Confirmatory	Explorative and confirmatory

The sources as described in Table 33 are of both of quantitative and qualitative nature and used explorative and confirmative survey research, interview and observations methods. They are characterized below.

1) **Preliminary EHS Perception Study**

The Preliminary EHS Perception Study consisted of a survey and in-depth interviews. The survey was conducted among employees and customers of the EHS to investigate their perceptions of the EHS Department in the dimensions of knowledge of the EHS task fields, spontaneous association with EHS, personalized characteristics of EHS, importance and value of EHS, satisfaction with EHS services, communication from EHS and sympathy-trust-loyalty to EHS. The Study was conducted in July 2012. The sample size consisted of 93 internal and 213 external participants. Response rate was 57 of internal and 38 external.

Three in-depth interviews were additionally conducted with the goal to gain deeper insights into customer's perception of EHS, also as consequence of the relatively low response rate of 38 external customer answers. The interviews were structured with a discussion outline and focused on the spontaneous perception of EHS and communication from EHS. The interviews were conducted in July 2012.

2) **QT Communication Project**

In 2013 a dedicated project started at the QT level to investigate the propositions' application in the local organizational context was undertaken. The goal was also here to improve the communication and perception of QT. The reason for a QT level and not EHS level project was based on the insight by management at QT that the QT Department had a similar challenge as EHS. The decision to take an overarching approach was taken.

The Project at QT Level was conducted over the span of eight month in 2013/2014 and comprised of the following structured and methodological approaches:

- Researcher was empowered by QT Management to test propositions and based on this improve QT communication. This was communicated into the organization.
- Project consisted of a steering committee comprised of the QT Management Team including the Head of EHS. A dedicated project manager was installed. Furthermore, the researcher represented the EHS Department.
- Project members were assigned of QT Management Team consisting also of a key expert from the QT sub-departments EHS, Quality and Regulatory (QR), Project Management Office (PMO).
- The propositions in Section 5.3.1 were put forward to different expert groups and challenged by the participants experience and views. The results of each group were cross-referenced by other groups to achieve a peer-review approach of the resulting findings. Finally, the results were discussed in great detail with Management from QT and EHS.

3) **Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT**

The QT Perception survey executed by the project team consisted of 58 questions to identify the perception customers and employees have of Quality (including EHS). It was performed from June to August 2014. The survey consisted the dimensions, QR Profile and Roles, QT values, satisfaction with communication of QT, satisfaction with QT portfolio/services, satisfaction with collaboration and working relationship and open question to dedicated feedback to EHS, QR or PM. The survey was distributed online to 900 customers with a response number of 345 (38.3%). Additionally, each department in QT (EHS, QR, PMO) conducted 5 in-depth interviews with customers to get deeper insights and dedicated feedback to the QT sub-units.

5.3.3 Testing applicability of propositions in the EHS Department context

P1: EHS lacks visibility as a secondary support function within Siemens Healthineers

The proposition was investigated in the QT Communication Project.

From an interview with the Head of Quality (Schmidt 2013, p. 1) he stated:

> "We consult in quality questions and support the business units in overarching cross-functional topics. This way we avoid that each business unit creates their own services and products (in the functional field of Quality and EHS). We spend most of our time to relieve the business units of additional burden and allow them to focus on their core business."

This statement summarizes well the continuous discussion in the EHS Board on their position in the organization. Without any doubt all management saw QT and as such EHS as a secondary support function. No statement or depiction was identified to contradict this view.

From an external customer perspective, the value provided by EHS is not visible, it is hidden from their view. Mostly the aspect of quality is considered a given by the external customer and only instances where something goes wrong, the value contribution is seen – negatively. The external customer perception is of upmost importance for any company, as for Siemens Healthineers. It is the primary focus and served by the primary functions to deliver products meeting the external customer perception.

The internal customers look to the external customers perception primarily and consider the value provided by EHS to be "built-in" in the product and take for granted that this value is "hidden" for the external customer. In conclusion, EHS lacks visibility to internal and external customers due to its secondary function.

The preceding discussion was elaborated in the QT project team and no contradicting observations could be identified to reject proposition P1.

P2: EHS lacks visibility due to the intangibility as an internal service function

EHS supports the business by providing EHS-related services to various internal customers at different organizational levels throughout the company. The services performed by the EHS Department have been elaborated in Section 5.2.4.3 in this chapter. As such EHS is an internal service function.

The project team of the QT Communication Project discussed and analyzed the nature of services performed by EHS from three aspects that contribute to the services/output delivered by EHS:

1) EHS services are mainly co-created in long-term relationships with the internal customer

EHS services were investigated from two perspectives. These being either created in “transactional exchange relationships” or “marketing relationships” (see Chapter 2 and 3). Relational aspects such as trust, loyalty and continuity were identified as the important drivers of value for EHS. This allowed to reject EHS services to be classified as transactional exchanges characterized by one-time exchanges, individual transactions, and a minor importance of relational value. As a result, EHS services are mainly co-created with their internal customers.

For this reason, the performance of EHS tends to be determined by social and relational aspects such as the quality of the relationship, the willingness to cooperate and the degree of alignment of EHS with other organizational units. In consequence, the EHS services are not only intangible but they are also not “visible” for the customer as an outside bystander. In this co-creation the customer is experiencing the service and not seeing it. In this instance the customer does not distinguish between their own performance and that of EHS.

2) EHS services are to a certain extent maintenance tasks

Services delivered by QT and EHS often deal with maintaining a certain status quo, such as securing compliance or market access. The value created through these maintenance tasks is less visible within the firm as they are routine and in normal cases of EHS unapparent if they are successful. They can be considered to be preventative maintenance. As long as maintenance tasks are properly performed, EHS remains “invisible.” In the instance when the EHS Department fails, for example, to avoid occupational safety accidents, EHS becomes visible but cast in a negative light. This aspect in the nature of services delivered was frequently confirmed by QT and EHS management, for instance, during the panel discussion at the EHS Conference in 2014.

3) EHS Tasks are continuous and long-term

Another aspect in the nature of QT and EHS services identified refers to the long term/short term nature of the tasks EHS is assigned with. While the above sections described the invisible nature of the service output from a short-term perspective, equally so the long-term nature of the assigned tasks EHS is assigned with reduce or inhibit its visibility in the organization.

EHS tasks are of a foundational, strategic and long-term orientation. For instance, reducing environmental impact, improving employee health and ensuring market access for products are continuous tasks that improve with time but moreover never end. In contrast, the launch of new products, the opening of new offices and new markets are generally more likely to make the news. As a result, it is difficult to determine, perceive and measure the business impact of the EHS Department as it becomes evident only in the long run.

In conclusion, the team analysis and the preceding available empirical material generated in the context of this case study does not allow rejecting P2.

P3: Missing internal alignment contributes to EHS lack of legitimacy

Preliminary EHS Perception Study and the QT Communication Project served as sources to test for indicators to reject the proposition.

Preliminary EHS Perception Study:

Results of the preliminary study indicated that several customers at operative level expressed their perceived distance to the EHS Department by describing EHS, for instance, as "theorist," "bureaucratic," "too far away from the business," "epistle reader," "too abstract" and "not integrated into the business."

QT Communication Project:

As previously mentioned, internal customers include top management, other support functions at the same organizational level and operational units in the business areas. While top management maybe most critical to the EHS Department in terms of gaining visibility and access to important resources such as influence, budget and personnel, the highest proportion of internal customers acts at the operative level and, as mentioned before, co-creates EHS services by implementing EHS goals and requirements. As such, both customer groups are critical contributors to the success of the EHS Department.

The alignment dimensions of Pardo, Ivens, and Wilson (2013) as explained in Chapter 2, were systematically reviewed in the working groups of the project to assess the degree of differentiation between the EHS Department and its internal customers at top management and at operational level. Other support functions were not considered, since the analysis revealed hardly any differences to the EHS Department with regard to the alignment dimensions used. The working session reviews, and peer-review of the results of the different work groups confirmed a gap in the alignment in a number of dimensions as shown in Table 34.

Table 34: Differentiation of different business functions

Alignment dimension	Basic analysis of		
	the centralized internal support function EHS	**the customers at top management level**	**the customers at business area level**
Structural formalization	- less specialized (different, strategic tasks; more managers than experts) - less formalized due to low degree of standardization	- less specialized (different, strategic tasks; more managers than experts) - less formalized due to low degree of standardization	- more specialized (clearly defined tasks, routine work; more experts than managers) - more formalized due to higher degree of standardization
Orientation of members toward others	no distinction possible since orientation towards task accomplishment or social relationships depends on the management style		
Time orientation	long-term, strategic focus	long-term, strategic focus	mid/short-term, operative focus
Goal orientation	focus on strategic goals (e.g. securing compliance to regulations and standards, protecting the health and safety of employees)	focus on strategic goals (e.g. ensuring competitiveness)	focus on operationalized goals (e.g. launch new products)
Linguistic or semantic orientation	more sophisticated, academic language; more international	more sophisticated, academic language; more international	less sophisticated, academic language; more regional
Motivational orientations	- influence - success - self-realization - self-determination - high income	- influence - success - self-realization - self-determination - high income	- open-ended contracts - stable work conditions - regular and solid income
Requisite integration	high degree of collaboration with customers required for decision making due to coordinative tasks	low degree of collaboration needed for decision making	partial degree of collaboration with other units required for decision making

Although the Table 34 reflects a very basic analysis and certain points were generalized for the purpose of broad categorization, it was considered by the project team as sufficient to demonstrate that the operating business fundamentally differs from the EHS Department in almost all dimensions used.

For example, EHS fulfills strategic rather than operative tasks and the business impact of EHS may become evident in the long-term rather than in the short-term. In contrast, the operative business is characterized by more short-term oriented tasks and operationalized goals. It may also act more independently from other units than EHS does. Cross-functional alignment is also more critical to achieve for EHS than for the operative business, because EHS creates value for the firm through supporting, thus coordinating and cooperating activities.

By contrast, EHS is in almost any case more homogeneous with top management than with the operating business. This relates to the fact that Siemens Healthineers support functions are charged by top management to steer the business. They are the “extended arm” of the top management, as they are authorized to give instructions to the operating business (see Section 5.2.3).

The analysis showed that cross-functional integration, coordination and alignment is more difficult to achieve for EHS with the operating business than with top management or other support functions.

In seeing these results, the project group and management at EHS confirmed that there is missing alignment between customers at the operative level and the EHS Department. Previously EHS had never undertaken any efforts to systematically address the topic of alignment especially in regard to the dimensions elaborated above. In conclusion, it is a possible root cause contributing to the lack of acceptance as identified in the preliminary study.

Consequently, proposition P3 could not be rejected.

P4: Distance to customer and perceived ambiguous - and multiple roles contribute to EHS lack of legitimacy

In the investigation of the proposition indicators were identified in three sources being the Preliminary EHS Perception Study and Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT.

Preliminary EHS Perception Study:

First indicators of multiple and ambiguous roles of EHS were identified by the preliminary study conducted in 2012 to assess the perception of EHS among their internal customers. They described EHS with positive and service-related characteristics such as “supportive,” “service-oriented,” “helpful” but also with more negative characteristics such as “demanding,” bureaucratic” and “controlling.”

These terms can be associated with two roles that EHS embodies, which were described in Chapter 2:

1) EHS as the corporate guardian: “demanding,” “bureaucratic,” “controlling”

This role association related to EHS as a governance function that monitors the business activities and ensures that rules, guidelines and regulations are met. EHS monitors the business on behalf of top management and the operating business is obliged to report EHS-related data such as lost days or number of injuries. The EHS Department is authorized to intervene in any business operation if necessary. From this role perspective, EHS fulfills governance tasks on behalf of the top management. The operating business can be regarded as the service suppliers of EHS, since they provide data and information and must follow the instructions of the EHS Department.

It is also this organizational distance to the internal customer that indicates the role of the corporate guardian. As previously mentioned, customers at operative level expressed their perceived distance to the EHS Department by describing EHS, for instance, as “theorist,” “bureaucratic,” “too far away from the business,” “epistle reader,” “too abstract” and “not integrated into the business.”

2) EHS as a service supplier: “supportive,” “service-oriented,” “helpful”

EHS also takes on the role of service supplier for the operating business. For example, EHS advises and consults the operating business in all EHS-related topics, such as radiation protection. In this constellation, the business can be seen as the customer, whereas EHS is the service supplier.

QT Communication Project:

In the project, the insights above from the preliminary studied were analyzed in multiple discussions. The roles were observed to be conflicting and ambiguous and created confusion and negative associations among EHS customers and employees.

If the regulatory role were to be used to enforce rules as quickly as possible, it could negatively affect the relationship with the customer. Hence, it was assumed by the group that EHS faces greater problems with being internally accepted when EHS employees are too focused on their role as a corporate guardian.

To exemplify this ambiguity, depending on the specific task and situation, were EHS has to switch from the supplier to the customer role or even perform both roles at the same time the following statement from the Head of QT (Schmidt 2014, p. 1) can be cited:

> “When rules are broken and the limits of discretionary leeway are exceeded, we step in as policemen to implement the rules. In a burning crisis, we are firefighters who help to gain control of an emergency. But most of all, we understand ourselves to be business partners to

the Sector. We want to advise the Sector in such a way that discretionary leeway is utilized while following the rules. Our goal is to avoid crises and support the success of Healthcare's business."

On the interviewer's question of "What is a QT Head, actually: policeman, firefighter, or advisor?", he answered: "A little bit of all those things, but most preferably an advisor and service provider."

Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT:

The study showed in a number of dimensions a high standard deviation in the answers indicating that the group does not have a clear view of what QT stands for. The roles of QT are as such also ambiguous. In particular the dimension Consulting – Policing demonstrates the highest standard deviation in the two most core conflicting tasks of EHS, namely: Consulting (as a service) and Policing (as a guardian/governance owner). Table 35 shows the descriptive results of the survey.

Table 35: Statistical results

n=345	**QT Roles and Profile**										
	1	2	3	4	5	6		MIS	M	SD	CF
Pro-active							Re-active	3	**3.27**	**1.30**	28.4%
Consulting							Policing	4	**3.13**	**1.36**	38.4%
Reasonable							Unreasonable	7	2.69	1.10	48.5%
Strategic							Purposeless	3	2.82	1.17	44.4%
Operational							Without business relevance	5	**2.95**	**1.30**	42.4%
Passionate							Ignoring	7	2.66	1.17	47.9%
Ethical							Ruthless	11	2.01	1.00	73.7%
Competent							Incompetent	8	2.22	.98	68.8%
Innovative							Uninspired	5	3.13	1.15	30.6%
Trustworthy							Untrustworthy	7	2.10	1.01	73.1%
Reliable							Unreliable	9	2.20	.97	68.2%
n= number of respondents; MIS= missing answers; M=means; SD= standard deviation, CF= cumulative frequency of scale 1 and 2 (promotors)											

In conclusion, the proposition P4 could not be rejected.

P5: EHS lack of structured communication measures impacting visibility and legitimacy

Analysis from the Preliminary EHS Perception Study and the QT Communication Project served as sources to test for indicators to reject the proposition.

Preliminary EHS Perception Study:

The Preliminary EHS Perception Study identified the lack of structured communication at EHS through different observations. Firstly, the result of the survey conducted explicitly cited in responses "communication is unstructured." Evidence of such also could be found in the fact that some communications were not used at all (e.g. events, meetings) some were out of date (e.g. EHS Intranet) and some were applied without any recognizable standard frequency or editorial (e.g. EHS Newsletters).

From the preliminary study a number of findings are relevant for the analysis of the proposition: The open questions in the survey delivered amongst others the following statements: "EHS has few communication channels and measures in place," "No structured, systematic approach at EHS," "the topic (EHS) looks like impersonal," "it is difficult to feel engagement," "EHS is off from reality."

Furthermore, the commentary by the respondents eluded to unclear effectiveness of the channels used, no apparent identity of EHS and in general a weak perception of EHS communication amongst both internal employees and external customers.

In some cases the respondents also provided proposals what could be improved: highlight best practices, more events, meetings, proactive customer involvement to live the EHS principles, highlight the "strong performance that is not given enough publicity."

QT Communication Project:

The preliminary analysis was analyzed to the subject above and discussed and challenged in a number of workshops. Current status quo of EHS communication was presented by researcher, also by referring to the results of the preliminary EHS Perception Study. Observations were confirmed by project members that EHS lacks structured and consistent communications.

In consequence, the proposition could not be rejected.

5.3.4 Summary of precondition analysis

From the preceding analysis none of the propositions could be rejected. As such the object of analysis EHS indicates preconditions are given to allow application of the departmental branding model in the further case study. The results are summarized in Table 36.

Table 36: Observed challenges of the EHS Department

Propositions	**Status**	**Research sources**
P1: EHS lacks visibility as a secondary support function within Siemens Healthineers	Not contradicted	QT Communication Project
P2: EHS lacks visibility due to the intangibility as an internal service function	Not contradicted	QT Communication Project
P3: Missing internal alignment contributes to EHS lack of legitimacy	Not contradicted	- Preliminary EHS Perception Study - QT Communication Project
P4: Distance to customer and perceived ambiguous - and multiple roles contribute to EHS lack of legitimacy	Not contradicted	- Preliminary EHS Perception Study - QT Communication Project - Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT
P5: EHS lack of structured communication measures impacting visibility and legitimacy	Not contradicted	- Preliminary EHS Perception Study - QT Communication Project

5.4 The implementation of departmental branding at EHS

This section aims to provide practical insights into the application of branding at the departmental level by providing answers to the following research question.

RQ2: How has the EHS Department implemented branding to increase its internal visibility and legitimacy?

This section refers to the action research phases of action planning, action implementation and action evaluation (see Section 5.1.4). Consequently, it contains information on how selected branding measures were planned and prepared, implemented and evaluated. The action research process was steered by researcher and the Head of EHS. Further contributors involved were members of the Head of Quality, members of the EHS Board, employees and internal customers of the EHS Department, and employees of Quality and Regulatory (QR) Department and the Project Management Office (PMO).

Branding at the EHS Department was implemented according to the departmental branding model proposed by Chapter 4. However, the fourth step of the proposed model “feedback to the brand identity” (see 4.6) was not considered, as it would require the complete implementation of the branding model.

Table 37 gives an overview of the branding measures implemented at the EHS Department. They will be described and evaluated in the following sections.

Table 37: Conceptual of branding measures of the EHS Department

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Major stages of departmental branding as identified by Chapter 4</th><th>Selection of applied departmental branding measures at the EHS Department</th></tr>
<tr><td>1.</td><td>Creation of departmental brand identity</td><td>• EHS Vision, Mission and Core Values
• EHS Business Contribution
• EHS Program
• EHS Policy
• EHS Roles
• EHS Key Visual
• EHS Heritage</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.</td><td>Employee branding</td><td rowspan="2">• EHS Calendar Campaign
• EHS Conference
• EHS Overview Presentation
• The Siemens Social Network
• EHS Newsletter
• EHS Storybook
• EHS Academy</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.</td><td>Creation of departmental brand equity</td></tr>
</table>

In the practical application, employee branding and departmental brand equity measures showed high overlap. For this reason they were not further differentiated.

5.4.1 Measures taken to establish a distinct EHS Brand Identity

This section focuses on building the brand identity at EHS, building on the model presented in Chapter 4. Starting with the vision, mission and core values and working through the further elements of the model, also practical measures, such as the EHS Policy, were applied to create the departmental brand identity at EHS. The following section discusses the selected measures.

5.4.1.1 The EHS Vision, Mission and Core Values

One of the first measures in terms of creating a unique, memorable and attractive brand identity of EHS was the definition of its vision, mission and core values. They were intended to express EHS’s core purpose and values and providing a clear sense of direction and meaning to workers and stakeholders to accept and implement the department’s goals.

EHS previously did not have a described vision, mission and core values in the organization. Management understood the value in taking action in this field to build and strengthen the brand identity of EHS. Up to this time, the department had applied individual communication channels and marketing assets in a disjunct manner. Management built on the researcher's insights to establish a planned approach in developing the vision, mission and core values, which ultimately would be accepted by the superior department and corporate branding.

EHS Board was presented with a proposal draft that they could build on. This core committee firstly built as individual leaders together one core messaging and framework facilitated by the researcher. With this base work as a prerequisite multiple iterations with the leading department (QT) were taken to refine and integrate the messaging. In 2013 aligned EHS Vision, Mission and Core Values were defined, as shown in Figure 25.

Figure 25: Vision, mission and values of the EHS Department

Vision

One world, one life – we care.

Mission

As a trusted business partner, we improve the competitiveness of Siemens Healthcare by

- driving towards safe, high quality, and sustainable products,
- influencing and establishing the framework of standards & regulations,
- safeguarding the health and safety of people

Values

Passionate	We strive and drive to do the right things right.
Ethnical	We act with integrity and safeguard human health.
Reliable	We say what we do, we do what we say.
Proactive	We anticipate the future and act now.
Reasonable	We assure regulatory compliance while supporting business needs.

However, with the conversion of the Healthcare Sector into a subsidiary of the Siemens AG in 2016, Siemens Healthineers created seven business principles known as the "Principles of Healthineers™" to shape the culture and guide behaviors at Siemens Healthineers (Siemens Healthineers 2018). They are listed below:

- A day without passion for healthcare is a lost day
- We say what we do, we do what we say

- We don’t compromise on quality
- We lead by being lean
- We listen more than we talk
- Missed opportunities are our biggest risk
- Today is about tomorrow

This opened new conflicting elements between the departmental brand of EHS and the corporate brand of Siemens Healthineers. The conflict in this case was the statement of multiple values both in the corporate brand and in the previously developed EHS Departmental Brand Identity. In this case, the decision was taken to adopt the corporate values and integrate these into the EHS Departmental Brand Identity.

The vision, mission and core values were widely acknowledged by stakeholders in the organization and built the foundation for further actions. For instance, the elements were used in the EHS Conference repeatedly, communicated on the intranet pages of EHS and reflected in different assets that were subsequently developed.

In the dynamic of organizational change Siemens Healthineers created an own corporate brand (see 5.2.1) which confronted Management at EHS to further develop and refine their own statements to integrate with the newly established over-arching corporate brand.

5.4.1.2 The business contribution of EHS

Building on the vision, mission and core values, the EHS Board planned to bring the relevance of the EHS Brand Identity closer to employees and stakeholders in a practical manner. Therefore the articulation of the value in pragmatic statements should serve on the hand as an anchor point to which employees can associate their contribution and work to the vision, mission, core values and ultimately the EHS Brand Identity. Of equal importance however this also had the intent to articulate the service, which was provided to the customer. This should directly address the weakness support functions have towards key stakeholders in defining what value they provide as described in Chapter 2 and confirmed in Chapter 5.

In the following months the EHS Board, facilitated by the researcher, developed the following core statements how EHS contributes to the success of Siemens Healthineers. Stepwise strategic topic owners were brought into the development cycle to contribute and review. The results are listed below:

1. **Secure compliance to regulations and standards while ensuring efficiency**

- Support worldwide market access for our products
- Influence proactively new technical standards and rules
- Cooperate with associations, government authorities, third party approval organizations and external test houses

2 Contribute to customer satisfaction and business success

- Develop and drive EHS solutions to meet business needs
- Identify and reduce business risks in EHS topics in time
- Provide concurrent engineering support during product specification, design and product changes

3 Ensure and develop competency of our global community

- Attract the right talent and keep core competence in-house
- Set up EHS career paths and encourage personal development
- Give guidance and support to the business via trainings and webinars

4 Develop our global organization and processes through continuous improvement

- Identify and reduce business risks in EHS topics
- Take initiatives to develop concepts and strategies to support future business
- Further develop the global Healthcare EHS management system

The business contribution was communicated through channels, such as EHS intranet page, conferences, meeting and management presentations to the EHS Community and other relevant customers. This created a broad awareness, discussion and resulting acceptance in the organization, by the EHS employees and by other key stakeholders at Siemens Healthineers.

In the evaluation, this step created the foundation for the wider EHS Community globally always to revert back to these statements as a key stone for their communication. Creating a core set of practical statements and distributing these widely through multiple channels proved to be effective. The evaluation of this measure in regard to brand equity could not be empirically derived in this thesis but can be suggested for further research.

5.4.1.3 The EHS Policy

The EHS Policy, in contrast to the prior actions, is a mandatory document as stipulated by the EHS Management System implemented in 2005. As such this document existed before the researcher applied the departmental brand approach to EHS. The policy states the roles and expectations for the organization. EHS Management saw opportunity in using the existing policy to also engage top management as contributors to the EHS departmental brand. The EHS Policy the associated top management statements are displayed in Table 38.

The EHS Policy provided a solid foundation to become an important measure towards the EHS identity. First, it represents the commitment of Siemens Healthineers to conduct business in a safe, healthy and environmentally sustainable manner. Second, it addresses in a very brief but clear structure the mission and the business contribution of the EHS Department. Third, its core messages remain stable over time. Fourth, it is a strong tool to help people identify with both, Siemens Healthineers and EHS.

By engaging top management in interviews and statements, not only did the visibility and relevance the EHS policy increase, but also the policy's purpose and contribution to the EHS department brand could be established:

Table 38: EHS policy statements and associated top management statements

EHS policy statements	**Associated top management statements**
1. We protect the health and safety of our employees, contractors and visitors	"It is always my goal to ensure that our employees start and complete their workday in a safe and healthy manner" *Dr. Bernd Montag, CEO Siemens Healthineers*
2. We minimize our impact to the environment and contribute to a sustainable future	"It addition to having our products save lifes, we also strive to reduce our environmental impact to the plant" *Michael Reitermann, Member of the Executive Management Team*
3. We continuously improve environment, health and safety aspects throughout the product lifecycle	"By always challenging the status quo, we strive for continuous improvement as a key success factor" *Thomas Rathmann, CFO Siemens Healthineers*
4. We comply with EHS regulations	There is no compromise on EHS compliance with respect to our employees, products and company" *Holger Schmidt, Head of Quality and Technology*

The associated top management statements were integrated into the internal and external communication of the policy in numerous assets such as posters, presentations and cards.

In consequence, the demand for these assets with the associated top managements statements increased significantly, signaling an increased acceptance of the policy and the therewith associated EHS Departmental Brand. The policy acted as a carrier for the EHS Departmental Brand.

5.4.1.4 The EHS Program

While the preceding elements focused especially on the aspects of visibility and awareness of the EHS Brand Identity, one component was still missing to complete an actionable construction of brand identity in an operational unit: definition and execution of the services provided by the EHS Brand.

For EHS to be recognized with its brand identity, it needed to bring together the unique set of skills, competences, strengths and resources it has available. As such the EHS Program was born. The program consisted of a structured approach to identify, prioritize and decide on core topics the organization should work on and that are directly associated to the EHS Brand Identity. Subsequently, in a co-creation process a wider staff engagement should occur in the definition of targets and actions that the organization can execute and review.

In the same year as the vision, mission, core values and the core statements were established, the new EHS Program was launched. In numerous cascaded workshops, ideas and priorities were discussed, reviewed with the EHS Board and ultimately decided upon. The chosen topic built the foundation for staff and the EHS Community around the world to define how they can with their actions contribute and articulate goals they can achieve – and ultimately define which service they deliver. These were collected in a structured Hoshin Kanri approach and reviewed at subsequent yearly EHS Conferences – by all.

The success of this approach can be described by the degree of engagement and by the continuity of this approach despite many corporate changes outside of EHS. Since 2013 this format has remained unchanged, the number of contributing staff in the EHS Community to the actions has increased by over 100%. By 2016 the EHS Program and system was lived by the broad community – and as such also the EHS Brand Identity.

5.4.1.5 The EHS Key Visual

Prior to Siemens Healthineers becoming an own listed company, key visuals were “handed down” to the subsidiaries of Siemens AG with little room for own expression and association to an own departmental branding.

Under these given constraints in 2013, EHS Management at Healthcare decided to engage in their own journey to establish an own key visual that delineated more clearly the difference between EHS at Siemens AG and EHS in the Healthcare Sector of the Siemens AG. In later stages of development with the going public of Siemens Healthineers, this management decision at the time became a mandatory necessity. It was clear that any key visual must be compliant with other branding requirements as stipulated by corporate branding. Working with a communication agency, a set of key visuals were brought forward and discussed in the EHS Board and with focus stakeholders in three stages.

Stage 1: Differentiation and association

The visual provided by the Siemens AG (Figure 26) was in no way associated the previously defined vision, mission and core values at EHS at Healthcare (Figure 25). In addition, the visual included symbols that were not compliant with the then established corporate branding guidelines of Siemens Healthcare GmbH.

Figure 26: The EHS Key Visual provided by the Siemens AG

The new key visual (Figure 27) incorporated the responsibility, sustainability and putting people and health at the center of our work for people today and future generations, as also related to in the vision statement: “One World, One Life – We Care”

Figure 27: The new EHS Key Visual

Stage 2: Dissemination

Downward dissemination:

Recognizing the need to cater for the differences within EHS, the visual identity was subsequently further developed to cascade and associate to each of the EHS topics. By doing so, the core elements of "One World, One Life – We Care" was interpreted by each lower level visual in addition to the association of the sub-department's specific angle of work. For instance, the Corporate Testing Laboratory uses an on- site picture in the test lab and shows the how this employee is caring for a product that has an impact on the health of people.

Upward dissemination:

Shortly after EHS had created its own key visual strategy, also the parent organization QT decided to embrace the idea for a standard key visual. This posed not only the challenge to develop a key visual from a child organization EHS upwards, but also bringing together three very heterogenous departments in QT under one visual identity was a challenge.

The emerging discussion led to the ongoing discussion which key visual should be used when. The researcher discussed with all management levels as well as with corporate branding and was able to bring all to agree to the following approach, as displayed in Table 39.

Table 39: Key visual approach for QT and EHS

Use cases	Siemens Healthineers corporate Key Visual	QT Key Visual	EHS Key Visual	EHS Topic Key Visuals
EHS communicates externally	x			
EHS internally addresses Quality-related topics such as compliance/regulatory	x	x		
EHS internally addresses strategic/general EHS topics		x	x	
EHS internally addresses specific EHS Topics			x	x

For instance, when EHS communicates externally, the Siemens Healthineers Corporate Key Visual should be used because the corporate brand is the superior brand. When EHS addresses QT-related topics, the Siemens Healthineers or QT Key Visual should be applied.

Stage 3: Institutionalization

All new key visuals were integrated into standard presentation templates. Additionally, guidance on the application of the different templates was given to the global EHS Community. A multi-channel approach was taken to distribute this new content and guidance.

In evaluating this action, it can be said that EHS shifted from a patchwork of individual, randomly chosen key visuals to a community-wide globally applied set of templates. The employees in EHS gladly took up the new clarity and guidance and associated the visuals with their work. For instance, employees and internal customers of the EHS Department included the EHS Key Visual in their PowerPoint presentation when introducing themselves, referring to the EHS Department or to one the EHS Topics. They used the EHS Key Visual as a means of expressing their belonging to the EHS Community. The EHS Key Visual apparently established a common basis for all stakeholders of the EHS Department that is not owned by one individual or the organization on its own, instead, it now represented the brand co-created and owned by all stakeholders of the EHS Department.

While in the scope of time visuals have been updated at Siemens Healthineers EHS to reflect also the development of the EHS Program, the core principle that the key visual contributes to the brand identity of EHS has been systematically established and remains.

5.4.1.6 The EHS Heritage

By looking at the department of EHS at Siemens Healthineers, Management and researcher recognized the unique story and history of this department. The situation at EHS corresponded well with the criteria of Urde, Greyser, and Balmer (2007) (see 4.5.3.2.1), with a "track record" in providing its service over many years, "longevity" that the department in its scope has remained unchanged. The "core values" found themselves already in the vision, mission and core values of EHS. The "use of symbols" was given, for example, though the consistent use of the department's abbreviation "EHS" over time. And finally, the EHS history was identified to be "important to the identity." For employees to identify with their department and demonstrate brand citizenship behavior it was important to tie this history to the department of today. This would give both new and experienced employees the opportunity to emotionally bond with the historic roots and achievements of one of the oldest departments at Siemens Healthineers.

The further analysis by the project team of EHS derived two main themes that characterize the heritage in EHS: Health Management and Radiation Safety.

The origins of Health Management date back to the 19th century when Werner von Siemens, ahead of his time, started to provide medical care for Siemens employees by hiring his personal and long-term physician Dr. Friedrich Körte. Later, in 1956 Siemens offered the first cardiovascular trainings to their employees. Today, Health Management is still an integral part of Siemens Healthineers comprising topics such as physical activity, mental health and healthy work environment.

Almost as old as the Siemens Healthineers X-ray business is the EHS Topic Radiation Safety. Just right after Wilhelm Röntgen discovered the X-rays in in 1896, Siemens & Halske, received the first patent for an X-Ray tube. Some years later, Siemens introduced first measures to protect their employees against radiation exposure (HC QT EHS 2015a). It this fact that the EHS core service at the time, providing radiation safety not only distinguished EHS at Healthcare clearly from Siemens AG, but also found its way into standard end-customer EHS regulations and considerations. Today, the element of positioning Siemens Healthineers products as state of the art by finding the right balance between image quality and radiation dose, is a standard element not only of the products but also of corporate identity (Siemens Healthineers 2020c). This important content was brought together for use in different potential communication assets.

Employees immediately recognized and associated this heritage with EHS and the departmental brand. In a wider sense the content of this heritage could be found in many different channels from the Siemens Healthineers MedMuseum (Siemens Healthineers 2020d), the Siemens Healthineers coprorate presentation, the Siemens Experience Center showroom (Siemens Healthineers 2020e) and product presentations. That said, giving especially something to the employees was not yet established.

5.4.2 Measures taken with respect to employee branding and departmental brand equity

While the previous measures focused on building the brand identity at EHS, the following measures were directed at the unfolding effect of the applied brand identity. The measures centered on employee branding and the creation of departmental brand equity.

5.4.2.1 The EHS Overview Presentation

Accepting the fact that for many in the EHS organization the new developments in departmental branding at EHS were complex for staff and outside stakeholders, the researcher proposed to EHS Management to create a "single-source of truth" for the EHS Brand Identity to which any employee can resort to. The plan was to create a single EHS Overview Presentation.

The EHS Overview Presentation was a PowerPoint presentation available on the intranet that summarizes the most important information about the EHS Department. While staff members often used it as a template when introducing the EHS Department to others, internal customers download the presentation to gather general information about EHS and its services. By addressing all the important elements of the EHS Brand Identity, such as the EHS Policy, the EHS Program, the EHS Organization, and the EHS Mission, Vision and Core Values, the presentation served the purpose of creating a common understanding among all stakeholders of the EHS Brand. From an employee branding perspective, the document provided the departmental brand ambassadors with basic information required to promote the brand. Besides this, the EHS Overview Presentation was a source of brand knowledge for the internal customers of the EHS Department as well.

To this date the presentation is held up to date and regularly used throughout the EHS Community with dedicated communication resources. A standard cycle reviews the actuality of the document twice per annum. All this is recognition of this measures' usefulness in the organization to this date.

5.4.2.2 The EHS Calendar Campaign

The co-creation aspect was the basis for the emotional association especially of the EHS Community in departmental branding. By the same token, the researcher wanted to create a common denominator across EHS in the application of the EHS Brand Identity. As a result of both considerations, the concept of a calendar that all can contribute was realized: the EHS Calendar Campaign.

The EHS Calender Campaign was set up in 2013 with the explicit goal of increasing the visibility and acceptance of the EHS Department. The campaign addressed all EHS stakeholders and encouraged them to co-create the EHS Brand by submitting pictures that refer in a broader sense to at least one of the EHS Topics Environmental Protection, Health Management or Safety. To provide an incentive to take part in the campaign, the best three pictures submitted were awarded at the annual EHS Conference. Furthermore, the winning picture was depicted on the front page of the calendar. The EHS Calendar was distributed along with a personal letter of the Head of EHS to the EHS Community and selected customers just before Christmas holidays.

The EHS Calender Campaign strived to increase identification with the EHS Brand by inviting stakeholders to actively participate in the creation of the calendar. Furthermore, it recognized the participants of the calendar contest including those who are shown on the pictures. It contributed to increasing the visibility of the EHS Department as it was used by different stakeholders including external customers all over the world.

The success of this campaign was reflected by the increased number of submissions since 2013 as well as by the fact that the prizing ceremony of the best pictures became an integral part of the EHS Conference. Figure 28 shows the winning picture of the year 2015.

Figure 28: The EHS Calender Campaign winning picture 2015

5.4.2.3 The EHS Conference

The EHS Conference was set up in 2012 to share knowledge, promote collaboration and coordinate strategic and global EHS subjects among the members of the EHS Community. EHS Management quickly realized that the EHS Conference could be developed into a key component to successfully convey the departmental brand.

With the introduction of the EHS Brand Identity, the EHS Conference provided a number of elements throughout the agenda to incorporate departmental brand aspects. These, together with the assumed effects of departmental branding, are briefly summarized by Table 40.

Table 40: The EHS Conference and its relevance for branding EHS

Agenda	Brand-relevant aspects	Assumed effects of departmental branding
Presentation by the Head of EHS	- Conference motto - Challenges and opportunities of EHS - EHS Vision, Mission and Core Values - Special achievements of the EHS Community	- Brand knowledge - Brand identification - Brand trust - Brand image
Presentation by the Head of EHS Strategy	- EHS Program (including strategic priorities, goals, achievements) - EHS Business Contribution	- Brand knowledge - Brand image
CEO/Board Member Presentation	- Challenges and opportunities of Siemens Healthineers - Strategic role of EHS within Siemens Healthineers	- Brand knowledge - Brand identification - Brand image - Brand trust (also with regard to the corporate brand)
Best Practice Sharing Session	- Shared by members of the EHS Community (including internal customers) - Co-creation projects between customers and employees of EHS	- Brand knowledge - Brand identification - Brand skills - Brand image - Brand trust
EHS Award Ceremony	- Prizes awarded to the EHS Community for excellent performance and engagement - Prizes awarded to the winners of the EHS Calendar Campaign	- Brand identification - Brand image
Evening event	- Team building activities, special events	- Brand identification - Brand image - Brand trust

The EHS Conference also evolved over the years and further progress was made in implementation of the departmental branding model. The first conference included a lot of headquarter centered messaging to the EHS Community. In the later years, the EHS Community was included ever more into the creation and execution of the EHS Conference.

Table 41 below refers to these developments. The evaluation of the EHS Conference went further than only contributing to the brand identity. It also addressed employee and customer directed branding and thereby contributed in the creation of departmental brand identity, as the aspects below describe:

First, the Conference brought together important stakeholders of the EHS Department, namely the staff of the EHS Department and the department's internal customers from all over the world, including the ones from the operative business and the top management. As interpersonal communication provides a reliable way to transfer brand-related information, due to the reason that it is two-way and involves formal and informal communication (Kalla 2005; White, Vanc, and Stafford 2010), the Conference was regarded as an effective way to interact with all stakeholders of the EHS brand. While the more formal parts of the conference serve to build knowledge about the departmental brand (vision, mission, values, strategy, projects etc.), the more informal parts, such as the evening event, the lunch, and the coffee breaks, are beneficial in terms of building and fostering relationships between the conference participants (Asif and Sargeant 2000). Chapter 4 identified internal customer-supplier relationships as an important lever of departmental brand equity. It is these informal sessions that were now highlighted to a greater extent, for example with the introduction of EHS Awards.

Second, The EHS Conference placed the EHS Brand at the core. It ensured that people feel part of the brand and act in the interest of one shared brand vision instead of individual or organizational-specific goals. The EHS Conference contributes in dissolving boundaries between customers and suppliers or operating business and corporate governance function, because it understands all conference participants as creators of the EHS Brand. This became particularly evident through the Best Practice Sharing Session. This session intended to involve EHS customers to share in their experiences, ideas or approaches to improve EHS performance. Over the past years, the Best Practice Sharing session has established itself as a key agenda item, mostly because the information received is authentic, convincing and first-hand. In addition, this session helped to develop and identify potential EHS brand ambassadors among both employees and internal customers.

In conclusion, the EHS Conference proved to be a powerful instrument of branding, also because it provided unforgettable experiences to its audience. This was reflected by the feedback of the conference participants, who ranked the overall brand experience, including the sensations, feelings, thoughts, and actions evoked by networking, informal exchanges, collaborative sessions above other aspects of the conference. The overall success of the EHS Conference was also mirrored by the increasing participation (see Table 41) as well as the fact that conferences of other functions (including QT) were established in a similar manner.

Table 41: Development of the EHS Conferences in terms of departmental branding

EHS Conference	Number of participants	Numbers of countries	Progress in terms of branding
2012	64	7	- First time EHS Community met in person - First steps in terms of creating shared brand knowledge - EHS as a brand and departmental branding was first introduced to the EHS Community and ranked as the second most interesting conference topic - Kick-off for best practice sharing session (14 session) - Kick-off of EHS Award Ceremony (one EHS Award was distributed)
2013	78	15	- Focus on strategic positioning of EHS - EHS as a business partner - Awareness and knowledge about EHS roles and responsibilities was created - 13 best practice sharing sessions included (demand exceeded available time) - Number of EHS Awards elevated to three
2014	84	16	- Brand knowledge was deepened and extended - First presentation of EHS Vision, Mission, Core Values - First introduction of the new EHS Program - Best practice sharing session extended to 18 sessions - Panel discussion on EHS career paths (EHS as attractive employer) - Introduction of first EHS Calendar
2015	98	26	- Introduction of new EHS Policy - Two additional days were dedicated to workshop and best practice sharing sessions (due to high demand) - Top Management Presentation on Healthcare Strategy and the role of EHS
2016	137	39	- EHS Calendar Campaign became part of Award Ceremony - Presentation of the new EHS Key Visual due to new brand name - Introduction of EHS Teams Awards to recognize cross-functional team efforts

5.4.2.4 The Siemens Social Network

The Siemens Social Network (SSN) was a social media platform established in 2013 for the entire Siemens AG. The platform was, apart from a few exceptions, accessible to every Siemens employee.

It intended to promote internal communication and collaboration across national borders. A virtual place was created where experts from various fields can meet to exchange ideas and jointly develop innovations. The available functions and features were similar to those of public social networks such as Facebook or Xing:

- Searching for contacts, groups and topics
- Commenting on contributions
- Uploading and sharing data, videos, photos and links
- Creating or joining groups

Since EHS entails a broad scope of different topics and supports more than 130 Healthcare sites in many countries around the world, there is a strong need to get the right information in time, to align thoughts, to discuss upcoming topics and to share best practices. To address the EHS Community at the one hand and all other EHS Stakeholder on the other hand, two different groups were launched.

The group called “EHS Community @ Healthcare” was intended to provide a platform for the EHS Community to share ideas, best practices, experiences and to discuss upcoming strategic and global topics within the EHS Community. This group was accessible by invitation only. From a branding perspective, this group should grow brand knowledge, foster social cohesion, and engage the EHS Community to co-create the brand. The other group called “Environmental Protection, Health Management and Safety (EHS) @ Healthcare” tried to reach a broader audience. It should increase the awareness of EHS and its topics among all stakeholders within Siemens Healthineers. Therefore, it provided more general information about EHS and its service portfolio. Administrators of both groups were nominated based on their motivation and competencies to represent EHS as departmental brand ambassadors.

The concept of using the SSN for branding purposes seemed to work out right after having created the groups for EHS. A growing number of employees joined the SSN and the EHS groups. First discussions started and articles were shared. However, as the general interest in using the SSN as a communication or collaboration platform declined over the past years, less effort has been invested into using the SSN as a branding tool. Instead, EHS shifted back to classical and more established communication-tools such as the EHS Newsletter.

5.4.2.5 The EHS Newsletter

The purpose of the EHS Newsletter changed and was leveraged to establish departmental branding throughout the EHS Community. Shifting from a one-way messaging Headquarter-to-Community approach to an inclusive co-created content approach for all of the EHS Community, the EHS Newsletter allowed the spirit of the EHS Departmental Brand to be carried and seen by many.

The EHS Newsletter was a well-established communication tool used to spread EHS-related information throughout the company. The EHS Department sent out the newsletter to all subscribers on a quarterly basis. It contained, for example, organizational announcements, best practices, new projects, information about the EHS Conference, or other upcoming topics. Most of the subscribers belonged to the EHS Community, thus were operative experts for Environmental Protection, Health Management and Safety.

Although the newsletter was a one-way communication tool, the co-creation aspect of creating the Newsletter was put at the forefront of this asset: before the newsletter was distributed, all subscribers were asked for ideas and contributions. Involving the operative experts ensured, on the one hand, that the content shared was relevant to the recipients, and on the other hand, that the experts felt valued and engaged. From a branding perspective, the EHS Newsletter was a powerful and stable tool over time. It served to increase the awareness for EHS by making information available and relevant to important stakeholders. On top of this, it was a channel through which the EHS Brand Identity was transmitted. For instance, stories were told about the performance and business contribution of EHS. They contributed to increase the identification with the EHS Departments, because the recipients identified with the stories told by EHS.

By changing the approach to be participative in sharing their topics, the editorial office for the newsletter found itself with more and more people wanting to contribute than was space in the newsletter. This could be valued as a signal of the co-creation of the departmental brand.

5.4.2.6 The EHS Storybook

Based on the recognition of the importance of brand heritage at EHS, the plan was made to create a storybook specifically including the story of and for the employees – thus strengthening not only the brand equity as such but also the employee branding.

There was no doubt that the particular history of the EHS Department and its achievements over time has shaped and enriched its brand identity. To harness the potential of the EHS Heritage, the researcher proposed to EHS Management in 2015 to create the EHS Storybook. The EHS Storybook was a branding tool that intended to create differentiation, authenticity, credibility and identification by communicating the brand’s origin, its past and current successes. Chapter 4 has introduced history branding as a branding technique focusing on the historical aspects of the brand identity. It aims to nurture and maintain brand identity by putting emphasis on the brand's origin and its past successes. Chapter 4 has further indicated that storytelling have become acknowledged as one of the most powerful tools in content marketing that connect people, capture shared memories and special moments and touches the reader emotionally. EHS Storybook combined both techniques by telling EHS's unique story. The storybook consisted of different articles addressing historical contributions, but also more recent and achievements of the EHS Department, such as the EHS Management System in 2005, the BOMCheck initiative in 2008 and the Siemens Environmental Portfolio in 2011 (HC QT EHS 2015a).

The EHS Storybook was developed to create a common basis of shared experiences, a platform of identification to all those who have been involved into the development of the EHS Department, its topics, projects and strategies. Furthermore, it served as a tool to increase internal acceptance by signaling business successes and contributions of EHS to top management or other important decision makers. The storybook gave new employees an appropriate overview of what have been achieved so far and facilitated access to the EHS-related services and topics. The storybook addressed three major target groups: The own staff for identification reasons, new-comers for building brand knowledge and facilitating job entry, and top management for legitimization reasons.

Although it was completed from a content perspective, the storybook itself was never put to print due to cost-saving measures. However, the content has been used since then time and time again in many diverse channels as was also referred to in the above section of EHS Heritage.

5.4.2.7 The EHS Academy

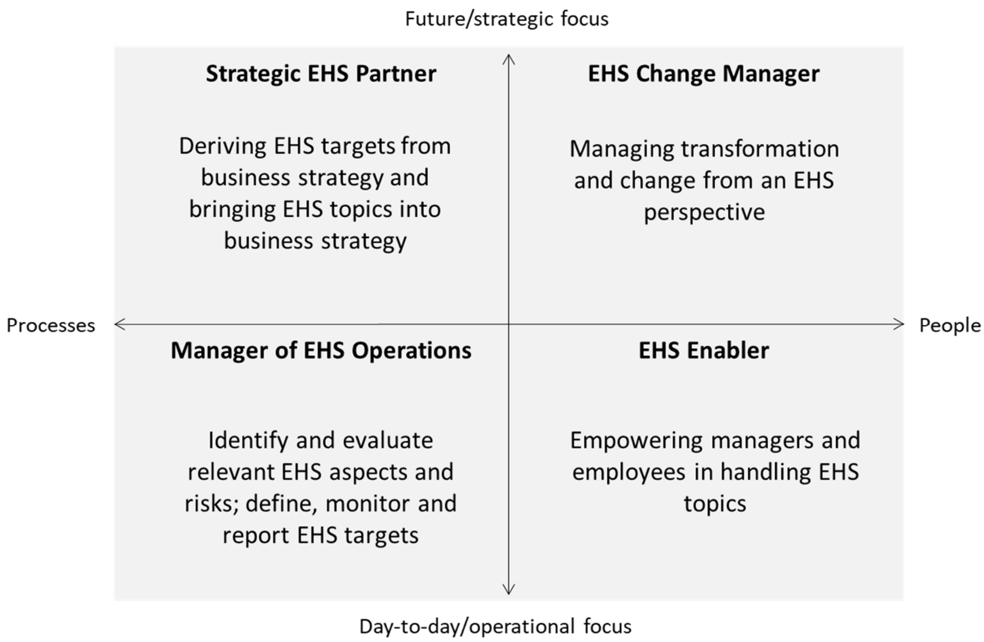
Based on the panel discussions at the EHS Conference in 2014 on career paths as well as additional feedback from the Customer Satisfaction and Perception Study of QT (see 5.3.2), a gap was identified in the departmental branding approach at EHS how the brand could be used to convey the department as an attractive employer. Besides this, EHS Management searched for methods of developing existing employees into departmental brand ambassadors and helping them to cope with the multiple roles and highly complex tasks of EHS.

Climatic change, shortage in resources, rising prices for scarce resources, war for talent, changing working environments, demographic change are only some exemplary trends indicating the growing importance to manage successfully EHS Topics within the firm (Allenby and Roitz 2005; Ansari and Wulf 2016; Philips 2018). Staff being charged with EHS needs to perform a broad range of different tasks, understand and manage highly complex and strategic topics, and to do this, often requires both technical and managerial expertise. Subsequently, a concept was created.

The EHS Academy aimed to establish a global learning platform for all employees dealing with EHS-related tasks within Siemens Healthineers. It intended to support newcomers as well as experienced staff to develop the competences and skills needed to fulfill their roles. Besides this, the EHS Academy played a major role in enabling employees to act as EHS Brand Ambassadors. As explored in Section 4.4.4, employees are likely to act in the brand's interests when they identify with the brand and possess the knowledge and skills to exhibit brand supporting behavior. Therefore, the EHS Academy was planned to include a section about the departmental brand identity, comprising, for instance, the beginnings of EHS and its historical developments, the EHS Policy and the EHS Vision, Mission and Core Values.

Another section should train social skills and competences to improve cross-functional communication and collaboration because effective customer-supplier interactions across organizational boundaries and hierarchy levels are prerequisite to create value for the firm (see 2.2.3). In addition, they are beneficial to co-create the departmental brand and build departmental brand equity (see Chapter 4). Participants of the EHS Brand Academy would learn about the diverse nature of EHS, including the different roles of an EHS Manager displayed in Figure 29. Depending on the specific situation and focus, the EHS Manager may take the role of an EHS Strategic Partner or an EHS Enabler. This measure was also intended to reduce role conflicts as described in the challenges of internal support functions in Section 2.5.1.

Figure 29: The four different roles of the EHS Manager



Further, participants should also understand why the EHS Department fulfills acts as both “service supplier” and “corporate guardian.” The EHS Academy was planned as a measure to increase the acceptance of the EHS Department and reduce role conflicts and stereotype thinking.

Another integral part of the EHS Academy was the mentoring program. Talented staff of EHS should act as mentors for new participants of the EHS Academy. They should forward their brand knowledge and skills to new participants of the EHS Academy, for instance by explaining the organizational structure, stakeholders, goals and strategies of EHS. In turn, the mentor would practice his skills in presenting and representing the department as EHS Ambassador.

The concept was introduced and discussed in several management meetings of the EHS Board. Subsequently, a new resource was hired to push the EHS Academy to implementation. By the time the researcher disengaged from the researched organization, the EHS Academy had not yet been launched.

5.5 Critical discussion

To address the *RQ3:”What are the facilitators and barriers of departmental branding”* firstly a number learnings from the case study are presented. These learnings indirectly or directly amplify the effect of facilitators and barriers and so may contribute to their findings. In conclusion, the limitations of the applied research methods and the case study are discussed and implications for further research are derived.

5.5.1 Principle learnings

1) Multi-effect of measures in the model

In the execution of the departmental brand model in the EHS organization it became evident that the measures taken effect different stages of the model. There is not necessarily a one-to-one association of measures to elements in the model. Table 42 below indicates the relation of the measures to the elements:

Table 42: Association of measures to departmental brand model

	EHS Vision, Mission and Core Value	The business contribution of EHS	EHS Policy	EHS Program	EHS Key Visual	EHS Heritage	EHS Overview Presentation	EHS Calendar Campaign	EHS Conference	Siemens Social Network	EHS Newsletter	EHS Storybook	EHS Academy
	Measures to establish a distinct brand identity						Measures to improve visibility and legitimacy						
Brand Identity													
Brand heritage						x	x	x	x		x	x	
Brand vision	x	x	x	x			x		x		x		x
Brand culture	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x
Brand personality	x				x	x	x		x			x	x
Brand relationships				x			x	x	x				x
Brand presentation			x	x	x		x	x	x			x	
Brand service	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Brand service quality				x			x		x		x	x	x
Brand embedding							x		x				x
Brand roles	x	x	x	x			x	x	x			x	x
Employee Branding													
- Brand knowledge	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x
- Brand skills		x		x			x		x				x
- Brand identification	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x
- Brand commitment	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x
Brand Equity													
- Brand awareness		x		x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x
- Brand knowledge		x		x			x		x	x	x	x	
- Brand image	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
- Brand trust		x		x					x				x

The practical application of the model therewith requires a complete discussion of the model and its application in any organization. A partial application of the model would in consequence lead to an implementation of other parts of the model that are not in focus. This is turn impacts again the overall departmental branding. Management has as consequence no way of measuring the success in the case of a partial adoption. Therefore it is explicitly advised to apply the model in its entirety in any organization.

1) Benefit of existing channels

The opportunity to adapt existing channels has proven in the practical application of the departmental branding model to be beneficial. Not only can this be cost effective, as it does not require investment for new measures, but moreover the degree of visible change for employees and customers can be more specifically applied and measured. This contributes directly to the change aspect of introducing the departmental branding model.

2) Integrated, aligned and continuous usage of communication channels

Applying the departmental branding model in EHS revealed the necessity for repeated usage of communications channels to reach all stakeholders and to reach their awareness. In this context it became evident that the communication through the channels must also be aligned – otherwise stakeholders become confused by mixed messaging or believe that it is a singular activity being communicated and not an overall program. This is all the more important considering the multi-effect of measures as described above. It is therefore explicitly advised to have a central coordination and alignment of the communication of the measures.

5.5.2 Facilitators and barriers of departmental branding

The nature of the following items presented below directly impacts the success or failure of implementing a departmental branding model in an internal organization. Common to all is that without their existence they are a barrier. However, with their existence – it does not inversely mean they are facilitator in their own right. Much more it depends on the intensity of their existence.

1) Top Management support

The management of the organization in scope and their management must support the development of the model. They are also ultimately the requestors for this action. So while their function is innate to any organization, their existence does not yet make them to a valuable facilitator. Differentiating factors identified center on the stability or continuity of management and their commitment in the face of resistance to change.

The stability of management has proven in the context of the case study to be crucial to the success of the implementation. This is especially the case considering that even after 4 years of supporting the organization, the complete implementation of the model was not yet achieved. With regular change in management – in any shorter time frame – Top Management reverts to being a barrier.

Commitment by top management can be seen in different degrees. In the case study top management was not only personally involved in understanding the study results, developing the measures and being a key communicator, they also addressed resistance to change demonstrated leadership to establish the departmental brand model at EHS. While not in the scope of this study the degree of involvement was not measured, it is apparent that the more involvement re-enforced top management being a facilitator to the success. It may be suggested that a low commitment, for instance by outsourcing the implementation to a consultancy, may not allow top management to be seen as a valuable facilitator.

2) Resource commitment

Without resources be they financial or non-financial the development and implementation is not possible. Often observed behavior of providing personnel and investment at a fraction of the required investment does not make these to facilitators. The study cannot conclude the right level of investment of resources. However the decision at EHS to invest top management time in person, install a dedicated role to develop the departmental brand, leverage costly existing and new measures were all contributing factors to the success of the implementation. It may be suggested that at least a number of dedicated full-time headcounts parred with top management time and dedicated budget to execute measures are a prerequisite and facilitator for the success application of the departmental brand model.

5.5.3 Limitations and implications

Contributing to the critical discussion in regard to the research method and the case study itself are in particular the following potential limitations:

1) The Literature recommends to repeat the cycle also in different projects in the same organization to enhance external validity within the action research based method. In the case of the case study however only one cycle was conducted and the application of the case study in a different project was not possible.
2) The action-oriented case study itself took 4 years to implement – and even then some measures were not fully implemented – and as such the departmental brand model could not be completely implemented and in its entirety investigated. As such the case study does not have in scope the measure effectiveness and this over a longer period of time. The applicability of the model in the practical context could not be proven.
3) The testing of the propositions did not consider how the propositions differ in their effect on the visibility and legitimacy at EHS. Only their existence was verified. Thereby no conclusion can be made on how many of the propositions or to which degree any proposition effects the visibility and legitimacy of an internal department.

The case study demonstrated the application of the departmental brand model proposed by the researcher in the practical environment. Further research may be proposed to further develop an understanding of the departmental brand model in the practical context:

1) Measuring the effectiveness of the applied model is an important area of further research to validate and develop the model further. It is recommended in this context to select a practical case that can fully apply the model in a shorter time frame. Taking into consideration the

learnings from the case study, this may be more likely to apply in an organizational environment where the surrounding organization is stable, possibly with an established corporate brand and is not likely to change to management in the time frame of the study.

2) The object in the selected case study previously had no departmental brand identity at all. Further application of the model in different contexts of the department's current branding or perceived state can support the robustness of the model's application. For example, in cases where the department has already taken some measures, where some of propositions cannot be rejected to then see effectiveness of the model may lead to further insights.
3) Variation in applied research method in the case study may also find further empirical evidence to the effectiveness of the departmental model in the practical application.

6 Critical reflection

This last chapter takes a critical reflection of this thesis. Firstly, the central results are summarized in 6.1 and in then in Chapter 6.2 the scientific and managerial implications are outlined. Chapter 6.3 concludes with limitations and further areas of research.

6.1 Central results

The central results of the thesis can be outlined with the answers to the research questions.

Initially, the question was researched what the characteristics and challenges of departments are in the context of internal support functions. Especially in this regard, the subordinate position in the value chain, lack of visibility, ambiguity of their role understanding, the necessity for internal alignment, and need for structured communication measures have all been cited as challenges for the legitimacy of internal support functions.

This answered the research question:

RQ1: What are the specific characteristics and challenges of internal support functions?

Approaching in a second step from research, marketing and branding were analyzed to understand how they can contribute to develop a departmental model that improves visibility and legitimacy. It was revealed that the broadening process in both streams of research provided the prerequisite conditions to allow a transfer to the context of internal departments – making apparent how these fields lend themselves to address the challenges of visibility and legitimacy for internal support functions. Thereby, the service-dominant logic of both streams of research has been of high relevance as well as the specific area of corporate branding that can be taken as the object of transfer. While showing a high degree of similarities the thesis has sufficiently shown the differences e.g. in the stakeholders of corporations versus departments, that make a branding approach in the departmental context distinct from that of corporate branding. With this third step – distinguishing departmental branding from corporate branding the second research question was answered:

RQ2: What are the prerequisites for a departmental branding model?

By describing the stages and elements of the departmental branding model, it could be shown what elements and stages comprise a departmental branding model and how it can contribute to improving visibility and legitimacy. Of particular note is next to the aspect of brand identity the central importance of employee branding as being a source of high influence on the brand equity for internal departments. This in particular can be explained by the fact that interpersonal relations have a high influence on building trust with the customers and stakeholders. By also identifying the determinants and levers that create departmental brand equity and providing a feedback loop to the brand identity, the model could be completed and the research question answered:

RQ3: What are the elements and stages of a departmental branding model?

In a practical study it was then possible to also partially implement the model and derive practical measures from the departmental model concept to improve visibility and acceptance in the organization. It could be shown that the challenges of internal support functions from the theory were applicable in the case example and that measures derived from the model had an impact on the organization. In particular, the facilitators and barriers of departmental branding cited the ongoing need for top management attention and sufficient resources. Thereby, the final research question was answered:

RQ4: What practical measures can be applied to adopt a departmental branding model?

6.2 Implications

The implications of this thesis are grouped into scientific and managerial implications.

The scientific implication of this thesis is foundational. It has been demonstrated that a new field of branding exists in the definition of departmental branding. Departmental branding as a concept has with this thesis been introduced to the scientific discussion as a transfer example, contributing to the broadening of branding and stemming to a certain extent from, but being distinct of corporate branding.

It can be seen as a sub-system of corporate branding – and while being an own field of research and application – it must not be seen as an own individual subject, but must always be understood in the overall organizational context and will be subject to constraints of corporate branding. Likewise, however it can be seen as an important contributor to corporate branding itself. This interplay is of significant importance for future research how the brand equity of a firm is influenced by its ability to manage a portfolio of departmental brands in the context of a corporate brand.

The managerial implications are also of their own significance. Management of internal support functions and other departments now has a tested model how to improve the legitimacy and perceived value of their own organizations. The thesis also highlights to management that there is a continuous co-existence between the brand of the department and the corporate brand. For the CEO of a corporation with many different divisions of businesses, this thesis contributes to a potentially new understanding to pro-actively foster departmental brands from a portfolio perspective: Each division is an own asset that contributes to the value of the corporation and its brand, or may be spun off and must achieve a maximum value for new stakeholders. Also, here a department with a brand is more valuable than one without. See for example the case of Siemens Healthineers that was a former division of Siemens AG and has become its own brand and corporation (Siemens Healthineers 2016, 2020b).

There are also risks in departmental branding. While the preceding argumentation may lead to incline that many departmental brands increase the value of the corporation, there may also be a limit to the number of brands that can co-exist in a corporation without them being of dilutive value to the overall corporation. Furthermore, there is a natural limitation for corporations how many departmental brands are cost-efficient to manage concurrently. Last but not least, any departmental brand is always in competition to a corporate brand in one way or the other. In the competition between corporate branding to retain control and departmental brands to build identity, visibility and legitimacy, or alternatively, that the corporate and departmental brands cannibalize each other in their effects.

6.3 Limitations and further research

The foundational nature of this thesis brings with it a wide range of logical limitations and areas for further research. These are discussed with relevance to the thesis and with relevance to the model.

The thesis was not able to prove the model in the time frame available. It may also be derived that time to execute itself is a limiting factor for the model. Despite working with a research partner having numerous facilitating factors, the implementation took more than three years and even then, was not completely implemented in the organization. This could be a focus of further research to complete the model.

The aspect of focusing on internal support functions being representative of a department may be considered as a limitation. It is not said that other departments may not have other challenges or may have other weighting of their challenges. As such the relevance of the model may differ by department type, e.g. sales or manufacturing, or internal CRM departments. And even if the challenges are of the same nature – especially in the area of visibility and legitimacy – there may also be completely different methods to improve this need. As stated in Section 2.4.2 there are other methods to create legitimacy, foremost that organizations can change their own behaviors, resources and processes – as Ashforth and Gibbs (1990, p. 178) called “substantive management.” Thus, this view also reveals a limitation to the effect of the departmental branding model. The model cannot bridge the gap between fundamental misappropriate behaviors, resources and processes in the face of the stakeholder expectations. The output must meet a certain level of expectation. This co-existence in legitimation management of substantive management and a departmental branding model is an area of further research that can be recommended.

A limitation of the model is within departmental brand equity. Here an association is made between brand equity and its effect on the legitimacy of the department. It must be said however, that there is a difference between brand awareness, visibility, acceptance and ultimately legitimacy. The model does not prove this effect – it assumes it. This relational aspect with the internal customer, the difference of being known, liked or respected, is an area where further research can develop a better understanding for the transfer mechanism of brand equity to legitimacy.

The departmental brand model consciously is built on seeing the internal customer as the main object of focus for visibility and legitimacy. What the model does not convey is how external stakeholders may have an effect on the perception and legitimacy of the internal department when the departmental branding model is extended to include external stakeholders. It may be assumed that in some cases this can have an impact on the legitimacy of specific departments. Examples of such movements can be seen in shareholder and investor focus of companies in their view on diversity, sustainability and sourcing of materials (Hawn, Chatterji, and Mitchell 2018; Stuart 2012; Wang and Li 2016) – all these may have forced top management to make support function topics a focus of their work – and have possibly indirectly affected the department's legitimacy. Or in other example, in the case of conglomerate discount shareholders see more value in individual parts of the firm versus it being a corporation (Burch and Nanda 2003; Chaganti 2019). Here it can be seen that the shareholder already expresses an own legitimacy of internal departments, albeit generally bigger divisions. In terms of further research, it is questionable how much impact individual measures from an internal department can have or should have on external stakeholders, also under consideration how efficient this is – or – if these are more influenced by the market environment and cannot be influenced efficiently by the department or division itself.

List of References

Aaker, David A. (1989), "Managing Assets and Skills: The Key To a Sustainable Competitive Advantage," *California Management Review*, 31 (2), 91–106.

Aaker, David A. (1991), *Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*, New York, NY: Free Press.

Aaker, David A. (1996a), *Building strong brands*, New York, NY: Free Press.

Aaker, David A. (1996b), "Measuring Brand Equity Across Products and Markets," *California Management Review*, 38 (3), 102–20.

Aaker, David. A. (2004), "Leveraging the Corporate Brand," *California Management Review*, 46 (3), 1–18.

Aaker, David A. and Erich Joachimsthaler (2000a), "The Brand Relationship Spectrum: THE KEY TO THE BRAND ARCHITECTURE CHALLENGE," *California Management Review*, 42 (4), 8–23.

Aaker, David A. and Erich Joachimsthaler (2000b), *Brand Leadership*, New York: Free Press.

Aaker, Jennifer L. (1997), "Dimensions of Brand Personality," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34 (3), 347–56.

Aaker, Jennifer L. (1999), "The Malleable Self: The Role of Self-Expression in Persuasion," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36 (1), 45–57.

Abbing, Erik Roscam (2010), *Brand Driven Innovation: Strategies for Development and Design*, Lausanne: AVA Publishing SA.

Abratt, Russell (1989), "A New Approach to the Corporate Image Management Process," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 5 (1), 63–76.

Aburoub, Abdelmoti Suleiman, Abdullah Mohammad Hersh, and Kalil Aladwan (2011), "Relationship between Internal Marketing and Service Quality with Customers' Satisfaction," *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 3 (2), 107–18.

Abzari, Mehdi, Hassan Ghorbani, and Fatemeh Alsadat Madani (2011), "The Effect of Internal Marketing on Organizational Commitment from Market-Orientation Viewpoint in Hotel Industry in Iran," *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 3 (1), 147–55.

Achrol, Ravi and Philip Kotler (2012), "Frontiers of the marketing paradigm in the third millennium," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40 (1), 35–52.

Achrol, Ravi S. (1991), "Evolution of the Marketing Organization: New Forms for Turbulent Environments," *Journal of Marketing*, 55 (4), 77–93.

Achrol, Ravi S. and Philip Kotler (1999), "Marketing in the Network Economy," *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (4), 146–63.

Achrol, Ravi S. and Philip Kotler (2006), "The Service-Dominant Logic for Marketing: A Critique," in *The Service-Dominant Logic of Marketing: Dialog, Debate, and Directions*, R. F. Lusch and S. L. Vargo, eds., Armonk: M.E. Sharpe, 320–33.

Adaval, Rashmi and Robert S. Wyer Jr. (1998), "The Role of Narratives in Consumer Information Processing," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 7 (3), 207–45.

Adidas (2017), "Adidas Original Products," (accessed December 15, 2017), [available at http://www.adidas.de/originals].

Adithipyangkul, Pattarin and Pattarawan Prasarnphanich (2008), "Descriptive Case Study of the Use of Non Cash and Informal Compensation in Thailand," *Research & Practice in Human Resource Management*, 16 (2), 62–80.

Aggarwal, Pankaj (2004), "The Effects of Brand Relationship Norms on Consumer Attitudes and Behavior," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (1), 87–101.

Ailawadi, Kusum L., Scott A. Neslin, and Donald R. Lehmann (2003), "Revenue Premium as an Outcome Measure of Brand Equity," *Journal of Marketing*, 67 (4), 1–17.

Aitken, Robert, Carolyn Stringer, and David Ballantyne (2012), "Service integration and coordination in a complex world," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28 (13/14), 1487–90.

Akrout, Houcine, Mbaye Fall Diallo, Wafa Akrout, and Jean-Louis Chandon (2016), "Affective trust in buyer-seller relationships: a two-dimensional scale," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 31 (2), 260–73.

Albert, Stuart and David A. Whetten (1985a), "Organizational identity," *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 7, 263–95.

Albert, Stuart and David A. Whetten (1985b), "Organizational Identity," *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 7, 263–95.

Allenby, Brad and Joseph Roitz (2005), "Building the resilient firm: The new challenge to EHS organizations," *Environmental Quality Management*, 15 (2), 27–36.

Alnawas, Ibrahim and Shadi Altarifi (2015), "Exploring the role of brand identification and brand love in generating higher levels of brand loyalty," *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 22 (2), 1–18.

Alonso, Alexander, James N. Kurtessis, Andrew A. Schmidt, Kari Strobel, and Brian Dickson (2015), "A Competency-Based Approach to Advancing HR," *People & Strategy*, 38 (4), 38–44.

Ambler, Tim (2006), "The New Dominant Logic of Marketing: Views of the Elephant," in *The Service-Dominant Logic of Marketing: Dialog, Debate, and Directions*, R. F. Lusch and S. L. Vargo, eds., Armonk: M.E. Sharpe, 286–95.

Ambler, Tim and Simon Barrow (1996), "The employer brand," *Journal of Brand Management*, 4, 185–206.

American Marketing Association (1948), "Report of the Definitions Committee," *Journal of Marketing*, 13 (2), 202–17.

Amyx, Douglas, Dheeraj Sharma, and Bruce L. Alford (2014), "The Influence of Role Ambiguity and Goal Acceptance on Salesperson Performance and Commitment," *Marketing Management Journal*, 24 (1), 52–65.

Anderson, Erin and Barton Weitz (1989), "Determinants of Continuity in Conventional Industrial Channel Dyads," *Marketing Science*, 8 (4), 310–23.

Anderson, James C., Håkan Håkansson, and Jan Johanson (1994), "Dyadic business relationships within a business network context," *Journal of Marketing*, 58 (4), 1–15.

Anderson, James C., Dipak C. Jain, and Pradeep K. Chintagunta (1993), "Customer Value Assessment in Business Markets: A State-of-Practice Study," *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, 1 (1), 3–29.

Anderson, James C. and James A. Narus (1990), "A Model of Distributor Firm and Manufacturer Firm Working Partnerships," *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (1), 42–58.

Andreasen, Alan R. and Philip Kotler (2007), *Strategic Marketing for Non-Profit Organizations*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Anosike, Uchenna Paschal and Riyad Eid (2011), "Integrating internal customer orientation, internal service quality, and customer orientation in the banking sector: an empirical study," *Service Industries Journal*, 31 (14), 2487–2505.

Ansari, Sarah Majid and Serjosha Wulf (2016), "Company-Specific Selection of Resource Efficiency Methods," *Global Business & Economics Anthology*, 1, 12–20.

Arbeitskreis Dr. Krähe der Schmalenbach-Gesellschaft (1952), *Konzern-Organisation: Aufgaben- und Abteilungsgliederung im industriellen Unternehmungsverbund*, Köln und Opladen: Westdeutscher Verlag.

Archpru Akaka, Melissa and Jennifer D. Chandler (2011), "Roles as resources: A social roles perspective of change in value networks," *Marketing Theory*, 11 (3), 243–60.

Argenti, Paul A. (1996), "Corporate Communication as a Discipline - Toward a Definition," *Management Communication Quarterly*, 10 (1), 73–97.

Armistead, Colin G. and Graham Clark (1993), "Resource Activity Mapping: The Value Chain in Service Operations Strategy," *Service Industries Journal*, 13 (4), 221–39.
Arndt, Johan (1981), "The Political Economy of Marketing Systems: Reviving the Institutional Approach," *Journal of Macromarketing*, 1 (2), 36–47.
Arndt, Johan (1983), "The Political Economy Paradigm: Foundation for Theory Building in Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 47 (4), 44–54.
Arthur, Winfred, Jr., Suzanne T. Bell, Anton J. Villado, and Dennis Doverspike (2006), "The Use of Person-Organization Fit in Employment Decision Making: An Assessment of Its Criterion-Related Validity," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91 (4), 786–801.
Asha, C. S. and P. Jyothi (2013), "Internal Branding: A Determining Element of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour," *Journal of Contemporary Management Research*, 7 (1), 37–57.
Ashford, Susan J. and L.l. Cummings (1985), "Proactive feedback seeking: The instrumental use of the information environment," *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 58 (1), 67–79.
Ashforth, Blake E. (1993), "Emotional Labor in Service Roles: The Influence of Identity," *Academy of Management Review*, 18 (1), 88–115.
Ashforth, Blake E. (2001), *Role transitions in organizational life: An identity-based perspective*, Role transitions in organizational life: An identity-based perspective, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers, xvi, 353.
Ashforth, Blake E. and Barrie W. Gibbs (1990), "The Double-Edge of Organizational Legitimation," *Organization Science*, 1 (2), 177–94.
Ashforth, Blake E., Spencer H. Harrison, and Kevin G. Corley (2008), "Identification in Organizations: An Examination of Four Fundamental Questions," *Journal of Management*, 34 (3), 325–74.
Ashforth, Blake E. and Fred Mael (1989), "Social Identity Theory and the Organization," *Academy of Management Review*, 14 (1), 20–39.
Ashworth, Gregory and Mihalis Kavaratzis (2009), "Beyond the logo: Brand management for cities," *Journal of Brand Management*, 16 (8), 520–31.
Asif, Saadia and Adrian Sargeant (2000), "Modelling internal communications in the financial services sector," *European Journal of Marketing*, 34 (3/4), 299–318.
Auh, Seigyoung, Simon J. Bell, Colin S. McLeod, and Eric Shih (2007a), "Co-production and customer loyalty in financial services," *Journal of Retailing*, 83 (3), 359–70.
Auh, Seigyoung, Simon J. Bell, Colin S. McLeod, and Eric Shih (2007b), "Co-production and customer loyalty in financial services," *Journal of Retailing*, 83 (3), 359–70.
Aurand, Timothy W, Linda Gorchels, and Terrence R Bishop (2005), "Human resource management's role in internal branding: an opportunity for cross-functional brand message synergy," *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 14 (3), 163–69.
Avery, Jill, Susan Fournier, and John Wittenbraker (2014), "Unlock the Mysteries of Your Customer Relationships," *Harvard Business Review*, 92 (7/8), 72–81.
Avolio, Bruce J., Bernard M. Bass, and Dong I. Jung (1999), "Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire," *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 72 (4), 441–62.
Babin, Barry J., William R. Darden, and Mitch Griffin (1994), "Work and/or Fun: Measuring Hedonic and Utilitarian Shopping Value," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20 (4), 644–56.
Backhaus, Klaus, Bernd Erichson, Wulff Plinke, and Rolf Weiber (2011), *Multivariate Analysemethoden: Eine anwendungsorientierte Einführung*, Berlin et al.: Springer.
Backhaus, Kristin and Surinder Tikoo (2004), "Conceptualizing and researching employer branding," *Career Development International*, 9 (5), 501–17.
Bagozzi, Richard P. (1975), "Marketing as Exchange," *Journal of Marketing*, 39 (4), 32–39.
Bagozzi, Richard P. (1978), "Marketing as Exchange: A Theory of Transactions in the Marketplace," *American Behavioral Scientist*, 21 (4), 535–56.

Bagozzi, Richard P. and Utpal M. Dholakia (2006), "Antecedents and purchase consequences of customer participation in small group brand communities," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 23 (1), 45–61.

Baker, Bill and Cookie Boyle (2009), "The timeless power of storytelling," *Journal of Sponsorship*, 3 (1), 79–87.

Baker, Edwin L. (1980), "Managing organizational culture," *Management Review*, 69 (7), 8–13.

Ballantyne, David (1997), "Internal Networks for Internal Marketing," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 13 (5), 343–66.

Ballantyne, David and Robert Aitken (2007), "Branding in B2B markets: insights from the service-dominant logic of marketing," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 22 (6), 363–71.

Ballantyne, David, Martin Christopher, and Adrian Payne (1995), "Improving the Quality of Services Marketing: Service (Re)design is the Critical Link," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 11 (1–3), 7–24.

Ballantyne, David and Richard J. Varey (2006), "Creating value-in-use through marketing interaction: the exchange logic of relating, communicating and knowing," *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 335–48.

Ballantyne, David and Richard J. Varey (2008), "The service-dominant logic and the future of marketing," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36 (1), 11–14.

Ballantyne, Ronnie, Anne Warren, and Karinna Nobbs (2006), "The evolution of brand choice," *Journal of Brand Management*, 13 (4/5), 339–52.

Balmer, John M T (2004), "The Corporate Branding Triumvarite: Values, Promise and Behavior?," *Working Papers Series of the Bradford University School of Management*, 4 (31), 2–16.

Balmer, John M. T. and Stephen A. Greyser (2002), "Managing the Multiple Identities of the Corporation," *California Management Review*, 44 (3), 72–86.

Balmer, John M. T. and Guillaume B. Soenen (1999), "The Acid Test of Corporate Identity Management™," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15 (1–3), 69–92.

Balmer, John M. T., Helen Stuart, and Stephen A. Greyser (2009), "Aligning Identity and Strategy: CORPORATE BRANDING AT BRITISH AIRWAYS IN THE LATE 20TH CENTURY," *California Management Review*, 51 (3), 6–23.

Balmer, John M.T. (1995), "Corporate Branding and Connoisseurship," *Journal of General Management*, 21 (1), 24–46.

Balmer, John M.T. (2001a), "Corporate identity, corporate branding and corporate marketing - Seeing through the fog," *European Journal of Marketing*, 35 (3/4), 248–91.

Balmer, John M.T. (2001b), "From the Pentagon: A New Identity Framework," *Corporate Reputation Review*, 4 (1), 11–22.

Balmer, John M.T. and Edmund R. Gray (2003), "Corporate brands: what are they? What of them?," *European Journal of Marketing*, 37 (7/8), 972–97.

Balmer, John M.T. and Adrian Wilkinson (1991), "Building Societies: Change, Strategy and Corporate Identity," *Journal of General Management*, 17 (2), 20–33.

Bansal, Pratima and Iain Clelland (2004), "Talking Trash: Legitimacy, Impression Management, and Unsystematic Risk in the Context of the Natural Environment," *Academy of Management Journal*, 47 (1), 93–103.

Bargal, David (2006), "Personal and intellectual influences leading to Lewin's paradigm of action research: Towards the 60th anniversary of Lewin's 'Action research and minority problems' (1946)," *Action Research*, 4 (4), 367–88.

Barki, Henri and Alain Pinsonneault (2005), "A Model of Organizational Integration, Implementation Effort, and Performance," *Organization Science*, 16 (2), 165–79.

Barksdale, Hiram C. and Bill Darden (1971), "Marketers' Attitudes Toward the Marketing Concept," *Journal of Marketing*, 35 (4), 29–36.

Barnard, Chester I. (1962), "Chapter Vi: The Definition of Formal Organization," in *Functions of the Executive*, Harvard University Press, 65–81.
Barnard, Chester I. (1968), *The Functions of the Executive: 30th Anniversary Edition*, Cambridge, MA.: Harvard University Press.
Barnes, Bradley R., Martin T. Fox, and D. S. Morris (2004), "Exploring the Linkage between Internal Marketing, Relationship Marketing and Service Quality," *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 15 (5/6), 593–601.
Barney, Jay (1991), "Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage," *Journal of Management*, 17 (1), 99–120.
Barney, Jay B. (1986a), "Organizational Culture: Can It Be a Source of Sustained Competitive Advantage?," *Academy of Management Review*, 11 (3), 656–65.
Barney, Jay B. (1986b), "Strategic Factor Markets: Expectations, Luck, and Business Strategy," *Management Science*, 32 (10), 1231–41.
Baron, Steve, Anthony Patterson, Gary Warnaby, and Kim Harris (2010), "Service-dominant logic: marketing research implications and opportunities," *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 9 (3), 253–64.
Baron, Steve and Gary Warnaby (2011), "Individual customers' use and integration of resources: Empirical findings and organizational implications in the context of value co-creation," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 40 (2), 211–18.
Baron, Steve, Gary Warnaby, and Philippa Hunter-Jones (2014), "Service(s) Marketing Research: Developments and Directions," *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 16 (2), 150–71.
Bartels, Robert (1974), "The Identity Crisis in Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 38 (4), 73–76.
Bartram, Timothy and Gian Casimir (2007), "The relationship between leadership and follower in-role performance and satisfaction with the leader: The mediating effects of empowerment and trust in the leader," *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 28 (1), 4–19.
Bass, Bernard M. (1985), *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, New York; London: Free Press.
Bass, Bernard M., Bruce J. Avollo, and Laurie Goodheim (1987), "Biography and the Assessment of Transformational Leadership at the World-Class Level," *Journal of Management*, 13 (1), 7–19.
Bass, Bernard M., Dong I. Jung, Bruce J. Avolio, and Yair Berson (2003), "Predicting Unit Performance by Assessing Transformational and Transactional Leadership," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88 (2), 207–18.
Bastos, Wilson and Sidney J. Levy (2012), "A history of the concept of branding: practice and theory," *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing*, 4 (3), 347–68.
Bateman, Thomas S. and Dennis W. Organ (1983), "Job Satisfaction and the Good Soldier: The Relationship Between Affect and Employee 'Citizenship,'" *Academy of Management Journal*, 26 (4), 587–95.
Bateson, John E. G. (1979), "Why We Need Service Marketing," in *Conceptual and Theoretical Developments in Marketing*, O. C. Ferrell, S. W. Brown, and C. W. Lamb, eds., Chicago: American Marketing Association, 131–46.
Bateson, John E. G. (1989), *Managing Services Marketing: Text and Readings*, Chicago, IL: Dryden Press.
Batt, Verena (2012), "Qualität der Internen Markenführung: Konzeptualisierung, empirische Befunde und Steuerung eines markenkonformen Mitarbeiterverhaltens," Wiesbaden: Universität Basel.
Baxter, Jessica, Greg Kerr, and Rodney J. Clarke (2013), "Brand orientation and the voices from within," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29 (9/10), 1079–98.

Baxter, Pamela and Susan Jack (2008), "Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers," *The Qualitative Report*, 13 (4), 544–59.

Beatty, Richard W. (Dick) and Craig Eric Schneier (1997), "New HR Roles to Impact Organizational Performance: From 'Partners' to 'Players,'" *Human Resource Management*, 36 (1), 29–37.

Beck, Christoph (2010), "Eine eigene Marke als Chance," *Personalmagazin*, (9), 16–19.

Beck, Christoph and Frauke Bastians (2011), "HR-Image 2011: Die Personalabteilung: Fremd- und Eigenbild," Haufe Lexware GmbH & Co. KG.

Beck, Christoph and Frauke Bastians (2013), "HR-Image 2013: Die Personalabteilung: Fremd- und Eigenbild," Haufe Lexware GmbH & Co. KG.

Beck, Christoph, Andreas Schubert, and Jennifer L. Sparr (2009), "HR-Image 2009: Die Personalabteilung im Spiegel ihrer Zielgruppen -Studienbericht-," Rudolf Haufe Verlag GmbH & Co. KG.

Becker, Howard S. (1960), "Notes on the Concept of Commitment," *American Journal of Sociology*, 66 (1), 32–40.

Beechler, Schon and Ian C. Woodward (2009), "The global 'war for talent,'" *Journal of International Management*, 15 (3), 273–85.

Beer, Martin (1997), *Outsourcing unternehmensinterner Dienstleistungen: Optimierung des Outsourcing-Entscheidungsprozesses*, Wiesbaden: Deutscher Universitäts-Verlag.

Bejou, David, Christine T. Ennew, and Adrian Palmer (1998), "Trust, ethics and relationship satisfaction," *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 16 (4/5), 170–75.

Bell, Martin L. and C. William Emory (1971), "The Faltering Marketing Concept," *Journal of Marketing*, 35 (4), 37–42.

Bendixen, Mike, Kalala A. Bukasa, and Russell Abratt (2004), "Brand equity in the business-to-business market," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 33 (5), 371–80.

Benson, J. Kenneth (1975), "The Interorganizational Network as a Political Economy," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20 (2), 229–49.

Benson, Joseph and Bret Kinsella (2017), "The Benefits Of Owning And Building A Department Brand," *Brands & Branding*, (accessed September 4, 2017), [available at http://www.brandsandbranding.co.za/the-benefits-of-owning-and-building-a-department-brand/].

Bergami, Massimo and Richard P. Bagozzi (2000), "Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization," *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 39 (4), 555–77.

Bergstrom, Alan, Dannielle Blumenthal, and Scott Crothers (2002), "Why Internal Branding Matters: The Case of Saab," *Corporate Reputation Review*, 5 (2/3), 133.

Bernardez, Mariano L. and Roger Kaufman (2013), "Turning Social Capital Into Social Performance: Three Case Studies and a New Framework for Value Creation," *Performance Improvement*, 52 (5), 5–18.

Bernstein, David (2009), "Rhetoric and reputation: some thoughts on corporate dissonance," *Management Decision*, 47 (4), 603–15.

Berry, Leonard L. (1980), "Services Marketing Is Different," *Business Week*, 24–29.

Berry, Leonard L. (1995), "Relationship Marketing of Services-Growing Interest, Emerging Perspectives," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23 (4), 236–45.

Berry, Leonard L. (2000), "Cultivating Service Brand Equity," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28 (1), 128–37.

Berry, Leonard L., James S. Hensel, and Marian C. Burke (1976), "Improving Retailer Capability for Effective Consumerism Response," *Journal of Retailing*, 52 (3), 3–14.

Berry, Leonard L. and A. Parasuraman (1993), "Building a New Academic Field-- The Case of Services Marketing," *Journal of Retailing*, 69 (1), 13.

Bharadwaj, Sundar G., P. Rajan Varadarajan, and John Fahy (1993), "Sustainable competitive advantage in service industries: A conceptual model and research propositions," *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (4), 83–99.

Bharti, Kumkum, Rajat Agrawal, and Vinay Sharma (2015), "Value co-creation," *International Journal of Market Research*, 57 (4), 571–603.

Bhat, Subodh and Srinivas K. Reddy (1998), "Symbolic and functional positioning of brands," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 15 (1), 32–43.

Bhattacharya, C. B. and Sankar Sen (2003), "Consumer--Company Identification: A Framework for Understanding Consumers' Relationships with Companies," *Journal of Marketing*, 67 (2), 76–88.

Biddle, Bruce J. (1986), "Recent Developments in Role Theory," *Annual Review of Sociology*, 12 (1), 67–92.

Biedenbach, Galina, Peter Hultén, and Veronika Tarnovskaya (2019), "B2B brand equity: investigating the effects of human capital and relational trust," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 34 (1), 1–11.

Biel, Alexander L. (1992), "How Brand Image Drives Brand Equity," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 32 (6), 6–12.

Bird, M., C. Channon, and A. S. C. Ehrenberg (1970), "Brand Image and Brand Usage," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 7 (3), 307–14.

Bitektine, Alex (2011), "Toward a Theory of Social Judgments of Organizations: The Case of Legitimacy, Reputation, and Status," *Academy of Management Review*, 36 (1), 151–79.

Blackston, Max (1992), "Observations: Building Brand Equity by Managing the Brand's Relationships," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 32 (3), 79–83.

Blain, Carmen, Stuart E. Levy, and J. R. Brent Ritchie (2005), "Destination Branding: Insights and Practices from Destination Management Organizations," *Journal of Travel Research*, 43 (4), 328–38.

Blau, Peter M. (1964), *Exchange and power in social life*, New York: Wiley.

Blichfeldt, Bodil Stilling and J. R. Andersen (2006), "Creating a Wider Audience for Action Research: Learning from Case-Study Research," *Journal of Research Practice*, 8 (1), 1–15.

Blombäck, Anna and Olof Brunninge (2009), "Corporate identity manifested through historical references," *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 14 (4), 404–19.

Boles, James S. and Barry J. Babin (1994), "Role Stress Revisited: One or Two Constructs?," *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice*, 2 (3), 57–69.

Bolino, Mark C., William H. Turnley, and James M. Bloodgood (2002), "Citizenship Behavior and the Creation of Social Capital in Organizations," *Academy of Management Review*, 27 (4), 505–22.

Bolton, Ruth N. (2004), "Linking Marketing to Financial Performance and Firm Value," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (4), 73–75.

Bolton, Ruth N., George S. Day, John Deighton, Das Narayandas, Evert Gummesson, Shelby D. Hunt, C. K. Prahalad, Roland T. Rust, and Steven M. Shugan (2004), "Invited Commentaries on 'Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing,'" *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (1), 18–27.

Bonoma, Thomas V. and Bruce H. Clark (1988), *Marketing Performance Assessment*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Boo, Soyoung, James Busser, and Seyhmus Baloglu (2009), "A model of customer-based brand equity and its application to multiple destinations," *Tourism Management*, 30 (2), 219–31.

Bouranta, Nancy, Leonidas Chitiris, and John Paravantis (2009), "The relationship between internal and external service quality," *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21 (3), 275–93.

Bowen, David E. and Gareth R. Jones (1986), “Transaction Cost Analysis of Service Organization-Customer Exchange,” *Academy of Management Review*, 11 (2), 428–41.

Boyd, G. and M. Sutherland (2006), “Obtaining employee commitment to living the brand of the organisation,” *South African Journal of Business Management*, 37 (1), 9–20.

Braaksma, A.j.j., W. Klingenberg, and J. Veldman (2013), “Failure mode and effect analysis in asset maintenance: a multiple case study in the process industry,” *International Journal of Production Research*, 51 (4), 1055–71.

Bradach, Jeffrey L. and Robert G. Eccles (1989), “Price, Authority, and Trust: From Ideal Types to Plural Forms,” *Annual Review of Sociology*, 15 (1), 97–118.

Brakus, J. Joško, Bernd H Schmitt, and Lia Zarantonello (2009), “Brand Experience: What Is It? How Is It Measured? Does It Affect Loyalty?,” *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (3), 52–68.

Branaghan, Russell J. and Emily A. Hildebrand (2011), “Brand personality, self-congruity, and preference: A knowledge structures approach,” *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 10 (5), 304–12.

Brandon-Jones, Alistair and Rhian Silvestro (2010), “Measuring internal service quality: comparing the gap-based and perceptions-only approaches,” *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 30 (12), 1291–1318.

Brewer, Marilynn B. (1991), “The Social Self: On Being the Same and Different at the Same Time,” *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17 (5), 475–82.

Breyer, Ralph Frederick (1934), *The Marketing Institution*, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Brodie, Roderick J., Mark S . Glynn, and Joel Van Durme (2002), “Towards a theory of marketplace equity: integrating branding and relationship thinking with financial thinking,” *Marketing Theory*, 2 (1), 5–28.

Brodie, Roderick J., Mark S. Glynn, and Victoria Little (2006), “The service brand and the service-dominant logic: missing fundamental premise or the need for stronger theory?,” *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 363–79.

Brodie, Roderick J., James R.M. Whittome, and Gregory J. Brush (2009), “Investigating the service brand: A customer value perspective,” *Journal of Business Research*, 62 (3), 345–55.

Brown, Andrew D. (1994), “Politics, Symbolic Action and Myth Making in Pursuit of Legitimacy,” *Organization Studies*, 15 (6), 861–78.

Brown, Tom J., Peter A. Dacin, Michael G. Pratt, and David A. Whetten (2006), “Identity, Intended Image, Construed Image, and Reputation: An Interdisciplinary Framework and Suggested Terminology,” *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34 (2), 99–106.

Bruhn, Manfred (1999), “Verfahren zur Messung der Qualität interner Dienstleistungen - Ansätze für einen Methodentransfer aus dem (externen) Dienstleistungsmarketing,” in *Internes Marketing - Integration der Kunden- und Mitarbeiterorientierung; Grundlagen - Implementierung - Praxisbeispiele*, M. Bruhn, ed., Wiesbaden: Gabler, 537–76.

Bruton, Henry J. (1969), “The Two Gap Approach to Aid and Development: Comment,” *American Economic Review*, 59 (3), 439–46.

Bucklin, Louis P. and Sanjit Sengupta (1993), “Organizing successful co-marketing alliances,” *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (2), 32–46.

Buil, Isabel, Sara Catalán, and Eva Martínez (2016), “The importance of corporate brand identity in business management: An application to the UK banking sector,” *BRQ Business Research Quarterly*, 19 (1), 3–12.

Buky Folami, Lookman, Kwadwo Asare, Eileen Kwesiga, and Dennis Bline (2014), “The Impact of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Context Variables on Organizational Commitment,” *International Journal of Business & Public Administration*, 11 (1), 1–18.

Burch, Timothy R. and Vikram Nanda (2003), “Divisional diversity and the conglomerate discount: evidence from spinoffs,” *Journal of Financial Economics*, 70 (1), 69–99.

Burmann, Christoph, Tilo Halaszovich, and Frank Hemmann (2012), *Identitätsbasiertes Markenmanagement: Grundlagen – Strategie – Umsetzung – Controlling*, Wiesbaden: Gabler.

Burmann, Christoph, Sabrina Hegner, and Nicola Riley (2009), "Towards an identity-based branding," *Marketing Theory*, 9 (1), 113–18.

Burmann, Christoph and Verena König (2011), "Does Internal Brand Management really drive Brand Commitment in Shared-Service Call Centers?," *Journal of Brand Management*, 18 (6), 374–93.

Burmann, Christoph and Heribert Meffert (2005), "Managementkonzept der identitätsorientierten Markenführung," in *Markenmanagement: Identitätsorientierte Markenführung und praktische Umsetzung*, H. Meffert, C. Burmann, and M. Koers, eds., Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler, 73–112.

Burmann, Christoph and Sabrina Zeplin (2005), "Building brand commitment: A behavioural approach to internal brand management," *Journal of Brand Management*, 12 (4), 279–300.

Burmann, Christoph, Sabrina Zeplin, and Nicola Riley (2009), "Key determinants of internal brand management success: An exploratory empirical analysis," *Journal of Brand Management*, 16 (4), 264–84.

Burns, James MacGregor (1978), *Leadership*, New York: Harper & Row.

Butz Jr., Howard E. and Leonard D. Goodstein (1996), "Measuring Customer Value: Gaining the Strategic Advantage," *Organizational Dynamics*, 24 (3), 63–77.

Camacho, Nuno, Martijn De Jong, and Stefan Stremersch (2014), "The effect of customer empowerment on adherence to expert advice," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 31 (3), 293–308.

Camp, Lucian (1996), "Latest thinking on the optimisation of brand use in financial services marketing," *Journal of Brand Management*, 3 (4), 241–47.

Campbell, Donald T. (1975), "III. 'Degrees of Freedom' and the Case Study," *Comparative Political Studies*, 8 (2), 178–93.

Cannon, Joseph P. and William D. Perreault Jr. (1999), "Buyer-Seller Relationships in Business Markets," *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 36 (4), 439–60.

Cappelli, Peter (2015), "Why We Love to Hate HR...and What HR Can Do About It," *Harvard Business Review*, 93 (7/8), 54–61.

Caprariello, Peter A., Amy J. C. Cuddy, and Susan T. Fiske (2009), "Social Structure Shapes Cultural Stereotypes and Emotions: A Causal Test of the Stereotype Content Model," *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 12 (2), 147–55.

Carman, James M. and Eric Langeard (1980), "Growth Strategies for Service Firms," *Strategic Management Journal*, 1 (1), 7–22.

Cascio, Wayne F. (2014), "Leveraging employer branding, performance management and human resource development to enhance employee retention," *Human Resource Development International*, 17 (2), 121–28.

Castanias, Richard P and Constance E. Helfat (1991), "Managerial Resources and Rents," *Journal of Management*, 17 (1), 155–71.

Caudron, Shari (1999), "Brand HR.," *Workforce*, 78 (11), 30–33.

Causon, Jo (2004), "The internal brand: successful cultural change and employee empowerment," *Journal of Change Management*, 4 (4), 297–307.

Cavusgil, S. Tamer (1998), "Executive Insights: International Partnering - A Systematic Framework for Collaborating with Foreign Business Partners," *Journal of International Marketing*, 6 (1), 91–107.

Chaganti, Rajeswararao (2019), "GE and Alphabet: A Tale of Two Conglomerates," *Rutgers Business Review*, 4 (1), 31–45.

Chalvron, J. G. de and N. Curien (1978), "Information, Energy and Labour Force," in *Evaluating New Telecommunications Services*, Nato Conference Series, M. C. J. Elton, W. A. Lucas, and D. W. Conrath, eds., Springer US, 615–42.
Champagne, Tina (2011), "The influence of posttraumatic stress disorder, depression, and sensory processing patterns on occupational engagement: A case study," *Work*, 38 (1), 67–75.
Chandler, Jennifer D. and Robert F. Lusch (2015), "Service Systems: A Broadened Framework and Research Agenda on Value Propositions, Engagement, and Service Experience," *Journal of Service Research*, 18 (1), 6–22.
Chang, Aihwa, Hsu-Hsin Chiang, and Tzu-Shian Han (2012), "A multilevel investigation of relationships among brand-centered HRM, brand psychological ownership, brand citizenship behaviors, and customer satisfaction," *European Journal of Marketing*, 46 (5), 626–62.
Charan, Ram (2014), "It's Time to Split HR," *Harvard Business Review*, 92 (7/8), 34–34.
Chatman, Jennifer A. (1989), "Improving Interactional Organizational Research: A Model of Person-Organization Fit," *Academy of Management Review*, 14 (3), 333–49.
Chatman, Jennifer A. (1991), "Matching People and Organizations: Selection and Socialization in Public Accounting Firms," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36 (3), 459–84.
Chaudhuri, Arjun and Morris B. Holbrook (2001), "The Chain of Effects from Brand Trust and Brand Affect to Brand Performance: The Role of Brand Loyalty," *Journal of Marketing*, 65 (2), 81–93.
Chen, Yu-Shan (2010), "The Drivers of Green Brand Equity: Green Brand Image, Green Satisfaction, and Green Trust," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93 (2), 307–19.
de Chernatony, L. (2009), "Towards the holy grail of defining `brand'," *Marketing Theory*, 9 (1), 101–5.
de Chernatony, Leslie (1993), "Categorizing Brands: Evolutionary Processes Underpinned by Two Key Dimensions," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 9 (2), 173–88.
de Chernatony, Leslie (1999), "Brand Management Through Narrowing the Gap Between Brand Identity and Brand Reputation," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15 (1–3), 157–79.
de Chernatony, Leslie (2001), "A model for strategically building brands," *Journal of Brand Management*, 9 (1), 32–44.
de Chernatony, Leslie (2010), *From Brand Vision to Brand Evaluation: The Strategic Process of Growing and Strengthening Brands*, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
de Chernatony, Leslie and Francesca Dall'Olmo Riley (1999), "Expert's Views About Defining Services Brands and the Principles of Services Branding," *Journal of Business Research*, 46 (2), 181–92.
de Chernatony, Leslie and Francesca Dall'Olmo Riley (1998), "Defining A 'Brand': Beyond The Literature With Experts' Interpretations," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 14 (4/5), 417–43.
Chernev, Alexander, Ryan Hamilton, and David Gal (2011), "Competing for Consumer Identity: Limits to Self-Expression and the Perils of Lifestyle Branding," *Journal of Marketing*, 75 (3), 66–82.
Cherrier, Hélène and Lauren Gurrieri (2014), "Framing social marketing as a system of interaction: A neo-institutional approach to alcohol abstinence," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 30 (7/8), 607–33.
Cheskis, Andrew L. (2012), "What's Your Brand?," *Internal Auditor*, 69 (5), 58–62.
Chhabra, Neeti Leekha and Aparna Mishra (2008), "Talent Management and Employer Branding: Retention Battle Strategies," *ICFAI Journal of Management Research*, 7 (11), 50–61.
Chiu, Hung-Chang, Yi-Ching Hsieh, and Yi-Chu Kuo (2012), "How to Align your Brand Stories with Your Products," *Journal of Retailing*, 88 (2), 262–75.

Cho, Charles H., Giovanna Michelon, and Dennis M. Patten (2012), “Impression Management in Sustainability Reports: An Empirical Investigation of the Use of Graphs,” *Accounting & the Public Interest*, 12 (1), 16–37.
Chong, Mark (2007), “The Role of Internal Communication and Training in Infusing Corporate Values and Delivering Brand Promise: Singapore Airlines’ Experience,” *Corporate Reputation Review*, 10 (3), 201–12.
Chreim, Samia (2007), “Social and Temporal Influences on Interpretations of Organizational Identity and Acquisition Integration,” *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43 (4), 449–80.
Christodoulides, George (2008), “Conference Commentary: Breaking free from the industrial age paradigm of branding,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 15 (4), 291–93.
Cian, Luca, Aradhna Krishna, and Ryan S. Elder (2014), “This Logo Moves Me: Dynamic Imagery from Static Images,” *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 51 (2), 184–97.
Cifci, Semra Dogan and B. Zafer Erdogan (2016), “Antecedents and measurement of brand commitment and behavioural loyalty,” *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 15 (4), 321–36.
Claycomb, Cindy, Cynthia A. Lengnick-Hall, and Lawrence W. Inks (2001), “The customer as a productive resource: A pilot study and strategic implications,” *Journal of Business Strategies,* 18 (1), 47–69.
Clements, Michael D. (2009), “How Buyers and Sellers Value B2B Relationships: A Relationship Value Continuum for Internet Based Exchange,” *Journal of Internet Business*, (6), 56–80.
Coen, David (1999), “The Impact of U.S. Lobbying Practice on the European Business-Government Relationship,” *California Management Review*, 41 (4), 27–44.
Coghlan, David (2002), “Putting ‘Research’ Back into OD and Action Research: A Call to OD Practitioners,” *Organization Development Journal*, 20 (1), 62–66.
Coghlan, David (2011), “Action Research: Exploring Perspectives on a Philosophy of Practical Knowing,” *Academy of Management Annals*, 5 (1), 53–87.
Cohen, Irit and Ran Lachman (1988), “The Generality of the Strategic Contingencies Approach to Sub-unit Power,” *Organization Studies*, 9 (3), 371–91.
Collins, Hilary, Florence Crespin-Mazet, and Karine Goglio-Primard (2011), “Using branding to effect internal change at Spie Batignolles,” *Global Business & Organizational Excellence*, 31 (1), 63–70.
Collins, James C. and Jerry I. Porras (1991), “Organizational Vision and Visionary Organizations,” *California Management Review*, 34 (1), 30–52.
Collins, James C. and Jerry I. Porras (1996), “Building Your Company’s Vision,” *Harvard Business Review*, 74 (5), 65–77.
Collinson, David and Dennis Tourish (2015), “Teaching Leadership Critically: New Directions for Leadership Pedagogy,” *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 14 (4), 576–94.
Conduit, Jodie and Felix T. Mavondo (2001), “How critical is internal customer orientation to market orientation?,” *Journal of Business Research*, 51 (1), 11–24.
Conner, Kathleen R. and C. K. Prahalad (1996), “A Resource-based Theory of the Firm: Knowledge Versus Opportunism,” *Organization Science*, 7 (5), 477–501.
Constantin, James A. and Robert F. Lusch (1994), *Understanding Resource Management*, Oxford, OH: Planning Forum.
Cooper-Thomas, Helena and Neil Anderson (2002), “Newcomer adjustment: The relationship between organizational socialization tactics, information acquisition and attitudes,” *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 75 (4), 423–37.
Copeland, Melvin T. (1923), “Relation of Consumers’ Buying Habits to Marketing Methods,” *Harvard Business Review*, 1 (3), 282–89.
Copeland, Melvin Thomas (1920), *Marketing problems*, New York, NY: A. W. Shaw company.

Cornelissen, Joep P., S. Alexander Haslam, and John M. T. Balmer (2007), "Social Identity, Organizational Identity and Corporate Identity: Towards an Integrated Understanding of Processes, Patternings and Products," *British Journal of Management*, 18, 1–16.

Corsaro, Daniela and Ivan Snehota (2011), "Alignment and Misalignment in Business Relationships," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 40 (6), 1042–54.

Corsten, Hans and Ralf Gössinger (2007), *Dienstleistungsmanagement*, Lehr- und Handbücher der Betriebswirtschaftslehre, München et al.: Oldenbourg.

Coskun, A. and Cheryl J. Frohlich (1992), "Service: The Competitive Edge in Banking," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 6 (1), 15–22.

Costarelli, Sandro and Rose Marie Callà (2007), "Cross-Dimension-Ambivalent In-Group Stereotypes: The Moderating Roles of Social Context of Stereotype Endorsement and In-Group Identification," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 147 (5), 543–54.

Coughlan, Paul and David Coghlan (2002), "Action research for operations management," *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 22 (2), 220–40.

Coulson-Thomas, Colin (1991), "Customers, Marketing and the Network Organization," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 7 (3), 237–55.

Cova, Bernard and Daniele Dalli (2009), "Working consumers: the next step in marketing theory?," *Marketing Theory*, 9 (3), 315–39.

Cova, Bernard and Tim White (2010), "Counter-brand and alter-brand communities: the impact of Web 2.0 on tribal marketing approaches," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 26 (3/4), 256–70.

Cretu, Anca E. and Roderick J. Brodie (2007), "The influence of brand image and company reputation where manufacturers market to small firms: A customer value perspective," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 36 (2), 230–40.

Crombie, Brian (2011), "Branding Cities and Clusters for Economic Development," *ISM Journal of International Business*, 1 (3), 1–20.

Cropanzano, Russell and Marie S. Mitchell (2005), "Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review," *Journal of Management*, 31 (6), 874–900.

Crosby, Lawrence A., Kenneth R. Evans, and Deborah Cowles (1990), "Relationship Quality in Services Selling: An Interpersonal Influence Perspective," *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (3), 68–81.

Czarniawska, Barbara and Rolf Wolff (1998), "Constructing New Identities in Established Organization Fields: Young Universities in Old Europe," *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 28 (3), 32–56.

Czepiel, John A. (1990), "Service encounters and service relationships: Implications for research," *Journal of Business Research*, 20 (1), 13–21.

Daft, Richard L. (1983), "Symbols in organizations: a dual content framework for analysis," in *Organizational symbolism*, L. R. Pondy, P. J. Frost, G. Morgan, and T. C. Dandridge, eds., Greenwich, CN: JAI Press, 3–35.

Dall'Olmo Riley, Francesca and Leslie de Chernatony (2000), "The Service Brand as Relationships Builder," *British Journal of Management*, 11 (2), 137–50.

Danaher, Peter J. and Jan Mattsson (1994), "Customer Satisfaction during the Service Delivery Process," *European Journal of Marketing*, 28 (5), 5–16.

Davis, Tim R.V. (1991), "Internal Service Operations: Strategies for Increasing Their Effectiveness and Controlling Their Cost," *Organizational Dynamics*, 20 (2), 4–22.

Dawson, Leslie M. (1969), "The Human Concept: New Philosophy for Business," *Business Horizons*, 12 (6), 29–38.

Day, George S. (1994), "The capabilities of market-driven organizations," *Journal of Marketing*, 58 (4), 37–52.

Day, George S. and David B. Montgomery (1999), "Charting New Directions for Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (4), 3–13.
De Cremer, David (2001), "Relations of Self-Esteem Concerns, Group Identification, and Self-Stereotyping to In-Group Favoritism," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 141 (3), 389–400.
De Luca, Luigi M. and Kwaku Atuahene-Gima (2007), "Market Knowledge Dimensions and Cross-Functional Collaboration: Examining the Different Routes to Product Innovation Performance," *Journal of Marketing*, 71 (1), 95–112.
De Ridder, Jan A. (2004), "Organisational communication and supportive employees," *Human Resource Management Journal*, 14 (3), 20–30.
Dean, Dianne, Ramon E. Arroyo-Gamez, Khanyapuss Punjaisri, and Christopher Pich (2016), "Internal brand co-creation: The experiential brand meaning cycle in higher education," *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (8), 3041–48.
Dearborn, Dewitt C. and Herbert A. Simon (1958), "Selective perception: A note on the departmental identifications of executives," *Sociometry*, 21, 140–44.
DeConinck, James B. (2011), "The Effects of Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Identification on Performance and Turnover Among Salespeople," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 31 (1), 21–34.
DeConinck, James B. and Julie T. Johnson (2009), "The Effects of Perceived Supervisor Support, Perceived Organizational Support, and Organizational Justice on Turnover Among Salespeople," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29 (4), 333–50.
Dekimpe, Marnik G. and Dominique M. Hanssens (1995), "The Persistence of Marketing Effects on Sales," *Marketing Science*, 14 (1), 1–21.
Delery, John E. and D. Harold Doty (1996), "Modes of Theorizing in Strategic Human Resource Management: Tests of Universalistic, Contingency, and Configurations. Performance Predictions," *Academy of Management Journal*, 39 (4), 802–35.
Deluga, Ronald J. (1995), "The relation between trust in the supervisor and subordinate organizational citizenship behavior," *Military Psychology*, 7 (1), 1–16.
Dibb, Sally and Lyndon Simkin (1991), "Targeting, Segments and Positioning," *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 19 (3), 4–10.
DiMaggio, Paul J. and Walter W. Powell (1983), "The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields," *American Sociological Review*, 48 (2), 147–60.
Dobni, Dawn and George M. Zinkhan (1990), "In Search of Brand Image: A Foundation Analysis," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 17 (1), 110–19.
Doney, Patricia M. and Joseph P. Cannon (1997), "An examination of the nature of trust in buyer-seller relationships," *Journal of Marketing*, 61 (2), 35–51.
Dong, Beibei, Kenneth R. Evans, and Shaoming Zou (2008), "The effects of customer participation in co-created service recovery," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36 (1), 123–37.
Donnelly, James H. Jr. (1976), "Marketing Intermediaries in Channels of Distribution for Services," *Journal of Marketing*, 40 (1), 55–57.
Douglas, Susan P., C. Samuel Craig, and Edwin J. Nijssen (2001), "Executive Insights: Integrating Branding Strategy Across Markets: Building International Brand Architecture," *Journal of International Marketing*, 9 (2), 97–114.
Dowling, Grahame R. (1993), "Developing your company image into a corporate asset," *Long Range Planning*, 26 (2), 101–9.
Dowling, Grahame R. and Tayo Otubanjo (2011), "Corporate and organizational identity: two sides of the same coin," *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 1 (3–4), 171–82.
Dowling, John and Jeffrey Pfeffer (1975), "Organizational Legitimacy: Social Values and Organizational Behavior," *The Pacific Sociological Review*, 18 (1), 122–36.

Downey, Stephen M. (1986), “The Relationship Between Corporate Culture and Corporate Identity,” *Public Relations Quarterly*, 31 (4), 7–12.

Doz, Yves L. (1996), “The Evolution of Cooperation in Strategic Alliances: Initial Conditions or Learning Processes?,” *Strategic Management Journal*, 17, 55–83.

Drori, Israel and Benson Honig (2013), “A Process Model of Internal and External Legitimacy,” *Organization Studies (01708406)*, 34 (3), 345–76.

Dubin, Robert (1963), “Power, Function, and Organization,” *The Pacific Sociological Review*, 6 (1), 16–24.

DuBois Gelb, Betsy and Deva Rangarajan (2014), “Employee Contributions to Brand Equity,” *California Management Review*, 56 (2), 95–112.

Duncan, Thomas R. and Stephen E. Everett (1993), “Client Perceptions of Integrated Marketing Communications,” *Journal of Advertising Research*, 33 (3), 30–39.

Dunn, Michael and Scott Davis (2003), “Building brands from the inside,” *Marketing Management*, 12 (3), 32–37.

Dutton, Jane E. and Janet M. Dukerich (1991), “Keeping an Eye on the Mirror: Image and Identity in Organizational Adaptation,” *Academy of Management Journal*, 34 (3), 517–54.

Dutton, Jane E., Janet M. Dukerich, and Celia V. Harquail (1994), “Organizational Images and Member Identification,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39 (2), 239–63.

Dwyer, F. Robert, Paul H. Schurr, and Sejo Oh (1987), “Developing Buyer-Seller Relationships,” *Journal of Marketing*, 51 (2), 11–27.

Ebrahim, Reham, Ahmad Ghoneim, Zahir Irani, and Ying Fan (2016), “A brand preference and repurchase intention model: the role of consumer experience,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 32 (13–14), 1230–59.

Eckstein, Harry (2000), “Case Study and Theory in Political Science,” in *Case Study Method: Key Issues, Key Texts*, R. Gomm, M. Hammersley, and P. Foster, eds., London: SAGE Publications Inc., 119–64.

Edvardsson, Bo, Bård Tronvoll, and Thorsten Gruber (2011), “Expanding understanding of service exchange and value co-creation: a social construction approach,” *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39 (2), 327–39.

Eisenhardt, Kathleen M. (1989), “Building Theories from Case Study Research,” *Academy of Management Review*, 14 (4), 532–50.

Eisenstat, Russell A (1990), “Corporate Staff Work in Divisionalized Corporations,” Working Paper, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School, 1–85.

Eisenstat, Russell A. (1996), “What Corporate Human Resources Brings to the Picnic: Four Models for Functional Management,” *Organizational Dynamics*, 25 (2), 6–21.

Elbedweihy, Alaa M. and Chanaka Jayawardhena (2014), “Consumer-brand identification: A social identity based review and research directions,” *Marketing Review*, 14 (2), 205–28.

Elliott, Richard and Kritsadarat Wattanasuwan (1998), “Brand as symbolic resources for the construction of identity,” *International Journal of Advertising*, 17 (2), 131–44.

ELSamen, Amjad Abu and Muhammad Alshurideh (2012), “The Impact of Internal Marketing on Internal Service Quality: A Case Study in a Jordanian Pharmaceutical Company,” *International Journal of Business & Management*, 7 (19), 84–95.

Elsbach, Kimberly D. (1994), “Managing Organizational Legitimacy in the California Cattle Industry: The Construction and Effectiveness of Verbal Accounts,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39 (1), 57–88.

Elsbach, Kimberly D. and Robert I. Sutton (1992), “Acquiring Organizational Legitimacy Through Illegitimate Actions: A Marriage of Institutional and Impression Management Theories,” *Academy of Management Journal*, 35 (4), 699–738.

Enis, Ben M. (1973), “Deepening the Concept of Marketing,” *Journal of Marketing*, 37 (4), 57–62.

Enns, Harvey G., Ferratt Thomas W., and Jayesh Prasad (2006), "Beyond Stereotypes of It Professionals: Implications for It Hr Practices," *Communications of the ACM*, 49 (4), 105–9.

Escalas, Jennifer Edson and James R. Bettman (2005), "Self-Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32 (3), 378–89.

Esch, Franz-Rudolf, Tobias Langner, Bernd H. Schmitt, and Patrick Geus (2006), "Are brands forever? How brand knowledge and relationships affect current and future purchases," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 15 (2/3), 98–105.

Esch, Franz-Rudolf, Torsten Tomczak, Joachim Kernstock, Tobias Langner, and Jörn Redler (Eds.) (2014), *Corporate Brand Management: Marken als Anker strategischer Führung von Unternehmen*, Wiesbaden: Springer-Verlag.

Eshuis, Jasper, Erik Braun, and Erik-Hans Klijn (2013), "Place Marketing as Governance Strategy: An Assessment of Obstacles in Place Marketing and Their Effects on Attracting Target Groups," *Public Administration Review*, 73 (3), 507–16.

Esser, Marco and Bernhard Schelenz (2011), *Erfolgsfaktor HR Brand: Den Personalbereich und Seine Listungen als Marke Managen*, Erlangen: Publicis Publishing.

Faircloth, James B., Louis M. Capella, and Bruce L. Alford (2001), "The Effect of Brand Attitude and Brand Image on Brand Equity," *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 9 (3), 61–75.

Fan, Ying (2010), "Branding the nation: Towards a better understanding," *Place Branding & Public Diplomacy*, 6 (2), 97–103.

Farner, Steve, Fred Luthans, and Steven M. Sommer (2001), "An empirical assessment of internal customer service," *Managing Service Quality*, 11 (5), 350–58.

Farquhar, Peter H. (1990), "Managing Brand Equity," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 30 (4), 7–12.

Faust, William H. and Arthur Eilertson (1994), "You've got a logo, you need a brand," *ABA Banking Journal*, 86 (10), 86–90.

Fayol, Henri (1949), *General and Industrial Mangement*, London: Pitman.

Feldman, Daniel (1989), "Socialization, Resocialization, and Training: Reframing the Research Agenda," I. L. Goldstein, ed., San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 376–416.

Feldman, Daniel Charles (1976), "A Contingency Theory of Socialization," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21 (3), 433–52.

Feldman, Martha S. and James G. March (1981), "Information in Organizations as Signal and Symbol," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26 (2), 171–86.

Feldman, Stuart (1991), "Keeping the Customer Satisfied--Inside and Out," *Management Review*, 80 (11), 58–59.

Felton, Arthur P. (1959), "Making the Marketing Concept Work," *Harvard Business Review*, 37 (4), 55–65.

Ferdous, Ahmed Shahriar (2008), "Integrated Internal Marketing Communication (IIMC)," *Marketing Review*, 8 (3), 223–35.

Ferguson, Robert (1864), *The Teutonic Name-system, Applied to the Family Names of France, England and Germany*, London: Williams & Norgate.

Fetscherin, Marc and Pascal Marmier (2010), "Switzerland's nation branding initiative to foster science and technology, higher education and innovation: A case study," *Place Branding & Public Diplomacy*, 6 (1), 58–67.

Finch, David J., Gashaw Abeza, Norm O'Reilly, and Carola Hillenbrand (2018), "Organizational identification and independent sales contractor performance in professional services," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 32 (4), 373–86.

Finn, David W., Julie Baker, Greg W. Marshall, and Roy Anderson (1996), "Total Quality Management and Internal Customers: Measuring Internal Service Quality," *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice*, 4 (3), 36–51.

Fiol, C. Marlene (1991), "Managing Culture as a Competitive Resource: An Identity-Based View of Sustainable Competitive Advantage," *Journal of Management*, 17 (1), 191–211.

Fiol, C. Marlene (2001), "Revisiting an identity-based view of sustainable competitive advantage," *Journal of Management*, 27 (6), 691–699.
Firat, A. Fuat and Alladi Venkatesh (1995), "Liberatory Postmodernism and the Reenchantment of Consumption," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22 (3), 239–67.
Fisk, Raymond P., Stephen W. Brown, and Mary Jo Bitner (1993), "Tracking the Evolution of Services Marketing Literature," *Journal of Retailing*, 69 (1), 61–103.
Fitzgerald, Thomas J. (1988), "Understanding the Differences and Similarities Between Services and Products to Exploit Your Competitive Advantage," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 2 (1), 25–30.
Flecker, Jörg, Bettina Haidinger, and Annika Schönauer (2013), "Divide and Serve: The Labour Process in Service Value Chains and Networks," *Competition & Change*, 17 (1), 6–23.
Fondas, Nanette and Rosemary Stewart (1994), "Enactment in Managerial Jobs: A Role Analysis," *Journal of Management Studies (Wiley-Blackwell)*, 31 (1), 83–103.
Foreman, Susan K. and Arthur H. Money (1995), "Internal Marketing: Concepts, Measurement and Application," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 11 (8), 755–68.
Fornell, Claes and David F. Larcker (1981), "Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (1), 39–50.
Foster, Michael (1972), "An Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Action Research in Work Organizations," *Human Relations*, 25 (6), 529–56.
Fournier, Susan (1998), "Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24 (4), 343–73.
Fredendall, Lawrence D., Christopher D. Hopkins, and Amit Bhonsle (2005), "Purchasing's Internal Service Performance: Critical External and Internal Determinants," *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 41 (2), 26–38.
Frese, Erich, Axel v. Werder, and Werner Maly (Eds.) (1993), *Zentralbereiche : Theoretische Grundlagen und praktische Erfahrungen*, Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel.
Friedman, Howard S (1980), "Understanding and Assessing Nonverbal Expressiveness: The Affective Communication Test.," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39 (2), 333–51.
Friedman, Robert (2012), "EHS Governance Taks within Healthcare Sector."
Gabriel, Patrick (2003), "Le Marketing Comme Moyen De Légitimation Des Entreprises Dans Une Perspective De Développement Durable," *Decisions Marketing*, (29), 67–76.
Gadde, Lars-Erik and Lars-Gunnar Mattsson (1987), "Stability and change in network relationships," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 4 (1), 29–41.
Gallardo-Gallardo, Eva, Nicky Dries, and Tomás F. González-Cruz (2013), "What is the meaning of 'talent' in the world of work?," *Human Resource Management Review*, 23 (4), 290–300.
Gamble, Jordan, Audrey Gilmore, Danielle McCartan-Quinn, and Paula Durkan (2011), "The Marketing concept in the 21st century: A review of how Marketing has been defined since the 1960s," *Marketing Review*, 11 (3), 227–48.
Gammoh, Bashar S., Michael L. Mallin, and Ellen Bolman Pullins (2014), "Antecedents and consequences of salesperson identification with the brand and company," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34 (1), 3–18.
Gardner, Burleigh B. and Sidney J. Levy (1955), "The Product and the Brand," *Harvard Business Review*, 33 (2), 33–39.
Gardner, Heidi K., N. Anand, and Timothy Morris (2008), "Chartering new territory: diversification, legitimacy, and practice area creation in professional service firms," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29 (8), 1101–21.
Garella, Paolo G. and Martin Peitz (2007), "Alliances Between Competitors and Consumer Information," *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 5 (4), 823–45.

Gassenheimer, Jule B., Franklin S. Houston, and J. Charlene Davis (1998), "The Role of Economic Value, Social Value, and Perceptions of Fairness in Interorganizational Relationship Retention Decisions," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26 (4), 322–37.

Gebhardt, Gary F., Gregory S. Carpenter, and John F. Sherry (2006), "Creating a Market Orientation: A Longitudinal, Multifirm, Grounded Analysis of Cultural Transformation," *Journal of Marketing*, 70 (4), 37–55.

Geller, Jason and Arthur H. Mazor (2011), "Global Business Driven HR Transformation: The Journey Continues," Deloitte Development LLC, 140.

George, William R. (1990), "Internal Marketing and Organizational Behavior: A Partnership in Developing Customer-Conscious Employees at Every Level," *Journal of Business Research*, 20 (1), 63–70.

George, William R. and Hiram C. Barksdale (1974), "Marketing Activities in the Service Industries," *Journal of Marketing*, 38 (4), 65–70.

George, William R. and Leonard L. Berry (1981), "Guidelines for the Advertising of Services," *Business Horizons*, 24 (4), 52–56.

Gerstner, Charlotte R. and David V. Day (1997), "Meta-Analytic Review of Leader-Member Exchange Theory: Correlates and Construct Issues," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82 (6), 827–44.

Gheysari, Hamed, Amran Rasli, Parastoo Roghanian, and Nadhirah Norhalim (2012), "A Review on the Market Orientation Evolution," *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Asia Pacific Business Innovation and Technology Management Society, 40 (2012), 542–49.

Glaister, Alison J. (2014), "HR outsourcing: the impact on HR role, competency development and relationships," *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24 (2), 211–26.

Goffman, Erving (1956), *The presentation of self in everyday life*, Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh.

Goldberg, Victor P. (1980), "Relational Exchange Economics and Complex Contracts," *American Behavioral Scientist*, 23 (3), 337–52.

Gosh, D.K. and Shweta Kulshrestha (2016), "Employee Branding – Becoming a New Mantra for Employee Engagement," *International Journal of Science and Research*, 5 (6), 2081–86.

Gotsi, Manto and Alan Wilson (2001), "Corporate reputation management: 'living the brand,'" *Management Decision*, 39 (2), 99–104.

Gounaris, Spiros P. (2006), "Internal-market orientation and its measurement," *Journal of Business Research*, 59 (4), 432–48.

Grace, Debra and Joseph Lo Iacono (2015a), "Value creation: an internal customers' perspective," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 29 (6/7), 560–70.

Grace, Debra and Joseph Lo Iacono (2015b), "Value creation: an internal customers' perspective," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 29 (6/7), 560–70.

Grace, Debra and Aron O'Cass (2004), "Examining service experiences and post-consumption evaluations," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 18 (6), 450–61.

Graen, George Bearnard and Terri A. Scandura (1987), "Toward a Psychology of Dyadic Organizing," *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 9, 175–208.

Graham, Peter (1993), "Marketing's domain: A critical review of the development of the marketing concept," *Marketing Bulletin*, 4, 1–11.

Granovetter, Mark (1985), "Economic Action and Social Structure: The Problem of Embeddedness," *American Journal of Sociology*, 91 (3), 481–510.

Gremler, Dwayne D., Mary Jo Bitner, and Kenneth R. Evans (1995), "The internal service encounter," *Logistics Information Management*, 8 (4), 28–34.

Griffeth, Rodger W., Peter W. Hom, and Stefan Gaertner (2000), "A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Correlates of Employee Turnover: Update, Moderator Tests, and Research Implications for the Next Millennium," *Journal of Management*, 26 (3), 463–88.

Griffin, Andrea E.C., Adrienne Colella, and Srikanth Goparaju (2000), “Newcomer and Organizational Socialization Tactics: An Interactionist Perspective,” *Human Resource Management Review*, 10 (4), 453–74.

Grönroos, Christian (1978), “A Service-Orientated Approach to Marketing of Services,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 12 (8), 588–601.

Grönroos, Christian (1982), “An Applied Service Marketing Theory,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 16 (7), 30–41.

Grönroos, Christian (1984), “A Service Quality Model and its Marketing Implications,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 18 (4), 36–44.

Grönroos, Christian (1991), “The Marketing Strategy Continuum: A Marketing Concept for the 1990s,” *Management Decision*, 29 (1), 7–13.

Grönroos, Christian (1998), “Marketing services: The case of a missing product,” *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 13 (4/5), 322–38.

Grönroos, Christian (2000), *Service Management and Marketing: A Customer Relationship Management Approach*, Chichester: Wiley.

Grönroos, Christian (2006), “Adopting a service logic for marketing,” *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 317–33.

Grönroos, Christian (2008), “Service logic revisited: who creates value? And who co-creates?,” *European Business Review*, 20 (4), 298–314.

Grönroos, Christian (2011a), “A service perspective on business relationships: The value creation, interaction and marketing interface,” *Industrial Marketing Management*, 40 (2), 240–47.

Grönroos, Christian (2011b), “Value co-creation in service logic: A critical analysis,” *Marketing Theory*, 11 (3), 279–301.

Grönroos, Christian (2012), “Conceptualising value co-creation: A journey to the 1970s and back to the future,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28 (13/14), 1520–34.

Grönroos, Christian and Annika Ravald (2009), “Marketing and the Logic of Service: Value Facilitation, Value Creation and Co-creation, and Their Marketing Implications,” Working Paper, Hanken School of Economics.

Grönroos, Christian and Annika Ravald (2011), “Service as business logic: implications for value creation and marketing,” *Journal of Service Management*, 22 (1), 5–22.

Gruen, Thomas W., John O. Summers, and Frank Acito (2000), “Relationship Marketing Activities, Commitment, and Membership Behaviors in Professional Associations,” *Journal of Marketing*, 64 (3), 34–49.

Gulati, Ranjay (1998), “Alliances and networks,” *Strategic Management Journal*, 19 (4), 293–317.

Gummesson, Evert (1980), “Toward a Theory of Professional Service Marketing,” *Industrial Marketing Management*, 9 (1), 89–95.

Gummesson, Evert (1987), “The New Marketing - Developing Long term Interactive Relationships,” *Long Range Planning*, 20 (4), 10–20.

Gundlach, Gregory T. and Ernest R. Cadotte (1994), “Exchange Interdependence and Interfirm Interaction: Research in a Simulated Channel Setting,” *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 31 (4), 516–32.

Hadi, Noor Ul and Shahjehan Ahmed (2018), “Role of Employer Branding Dimensions on Employee Retention: Evidence from Educational Sector,” *Administrative Sciences (2076-3387)*, 8 (3), 1–15.

Hadjikhani, Amjad and Peter LaPlaca (2013), “Development of B2B marketing theory,” *Industrial Marketing Management*, 42 (3), 294–305.

Hair, Jr. Joseph F., William C. Black, Barry J. Babin, and Rolph E. Anderson (2009), *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Higher Education.

Haller, Sabine (2012), *Dienstleistungsmanagement - Grundlagen - Konzepte - Instrumente*, Wiesbaden: Gabler.

Hallowell, Roger, Leonard A. Schlesinger, and Jeffrey Zornitsky (1996), "Internal Service Quality, Customer and Job Satisfaction: Linkages and Implications for Management," *Human Resource Planning*, 19 (2), 20–31.

Hammonds, Keith H. (2005), "Why we hate HR," *Fast Company*, 97, 40–47.

Hampf, Anders and Kirsti Lindberg-Repo (2011), "Branding: The Past, Present, and Future: A Study of the Evolution and Future of Branding," Working Paper, Hanken School of Economics.

Hankinson, Graham (2007), "The management of destination brands: Five guiding principles based on recent developments in corporate branding theory," *Journal of Brand Management*, 14 (3), 240–54.

Hanna, Sonya and Jennifer Rowley (2008), "An analysis of terminology use in place branding," *Place Branding & Public Diplomacy*, 4 (1), 61–75.

Harkness, James (1999), "Living and breathing the brand: The role of internal communication," *Journal of Communication Management*, 4 (1), 87–94.

Harris, Fiona and Leslie de Chernatony (2001), "Corporate branding and corporate brand performance," *European Journal of Marketing*, 35 (3/4), 441–56.

Hart, Christopher W. and Michael D. Johnson (1999), "A Framework for Developing Trust Relationships," *Marketing Management*, 8 (1), 20–22.

Hartmann, Patrick and Vanessa Apaolaza-Ibáñez (2012), "Consumer attitude and purchase intention toward green energy brands: The roles of psychological benefits and environmental concern," *Journal of Business Research*, 65 (9), 1254–63.

Harvard Business Review (1925), "Case Studies in Business:: Preliminary Analysis of the Advertising Possibilities of a Product," *Harvard Business Review*, 4 (1), 111–21.

Haslam, S and Naomi Ellemers (2005), "Social Identity in Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Concepts, Controversies and Contributions," in *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, G. P. Hodgkinson and K. J. Ford, eds., Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd., 39–118.

Hatch, Mary Jo and Maijken Schultz (1997), "Relations between organizational culture, identity and image," *European Journal of Marketing*, 31 (5/6), 972–97.

Hatch, Mary Jo and Majken Schultz (2003), "Bringing the corporation into corporate branding," *European Journal of Marketing*, 37 (7/8), 1041–64.

Hatch, Mary Jo and Majken Schultz (2010), "Toward a theory of brand co-creation with implications for brand governance," *Journal of Brand Management*, 17 (8), 590–604.

Hauser, John R., Duncan I. Simester, and Birger Wernerfelt (1996), "Internal Customers and Internal Suppliers," *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 33 (3), 268–80.

Hawn, Olga, Aaron K. Chatterji, and Will Mitchell (2018), "Do investors actually value sustainability? New evidence from investor reactions to the Dow Jones Sustainability Index (DJSI)," *Strategic Management Journal (John Wiley & Sons, Inc.)*, 39 (4), 949–76.

Hayward, Simon (2006), "Transforming HR for strategic impact at AstraZeneca: How centralized HR support improved internal customer service," *Strategic HR Review*, 5 (2), 16–19.

HC QT EHS (2015a), "EHS Story Book."

HC QT EHS (2015b), "EHS Overview Presentation."

He, Hongwei, Lloyd C. Harris, Weiyue Wang, and Kamran Haider (2016), "Brand identity and online self-customisation usefulness perception," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 32 (13–14), 1308–32.

He, Hongwei and Yan Li (2011), "Key service drivers for high-tech service brand equity: The mediating role of overall service quality and perceived value," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27 (1/2), 77–99.

Heide, Jan B. (1994), "Interorganizational Governance in Marketing Channels," *Journal of Marketing*, 58 (1), 71–85.

Heide, Jan B. and George John (1992), “Do Norms Matter in Marketing Relationships?,” *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (2), 32–44.

Helm, Clive and Richard Jones (2010), “Extending the value chain – A conceptual framework for managing the governance of co-created brand equity,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 17 (8), 579–89.

Hemsley-Brown, Jane, T. C. Melewar, Bang Nguyen, and Elizabeth J. Wilson (2016), “Exploring brand identity, meaning, image, and reputation (BIMIR) in higher education: A special section,” *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (8), 3019–22.

Henkel, Sven, Torsten Tomczak, Mark Heitmann, and Andreas Herrmann (2007), “Managing brand consistent employee behaviour: relevance and managerial control of behavioural branding,” *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 16 (4/5), 310–20.

Herington, Carmel, Lester W. Johnson, and Don Scott (2006), “Internal relationships: Linking practitioner literature and relationship marketing theory,” *European Business Review*, 18 (5), 364–81.

Herriot, Peter (2002), “Selection and self: Selection as a social process,” *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 11 (4), 385–402.

Herskovitz, Stephen and Malcolm Crystal (2010), “The essential brand persona: storytelling and branding,” *Journal of Business Strategy*, 31 (3), 21–28.

Herstein, Ram and Ron Berger (2013), “A country as a brand: Israel’s evolving branding strategy,” *Journal of Brand Strategy*, 2 (2), 177–86.

Heskett, James L., Thomas O. Jones, Gary W. Loveman, W. Earl Sasser Jr., and Leonard A. Schlesinger (1994), “Putting the Service-Profit Chain to Work,” *Harvard Business Review*, 72 (2), 164–70.

Heskett, James L., Thomas O. Jones, Gary W. Loveman, Jr. Sasser W. Earl, and Leonard A. Schlesinger (2008), “Putting the Service-Profit Chain to Work,” *Harvard Business Review*, 86 (7/8), 118–29.

Heskett, James L., W. Earl Sasser, Jr., and Christopher W.L. Hart (1990), *Service Breakthroughs: Changing the Rules of the Game*, New York, NY: Free Press.

Higgins, James M., Craig McAllaster, Samuel C. Certo, and James P. Gilbert (2006), “Using Cultural Artifacts to Change and Perpetuate Strategy,” *Journal of Change Management*, 6 (4), 397–415.

Higgins, Monica C. and Ranjay Gulati (2006), “Stacking the Deck: The Effects of Top Management Backgrounds on Investor Decisions,” *Strategic Management Journal*, 27 (1), 1–25.

Hilton, James L. and William von Hippel (1996), “Stereotypes,” *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47 (1), 237–71.

Hilton, Toni and Tim Hughes (2013), “Co-production and self-service: The application of Service-Dominant Logic,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29 (7/8), 861–81.

Hoekstra, Janny C., Peter S. H. Leeflang, and Dick R. Wittink (1999), “The Customer Concept: The Basis for a New Marketing Paradigm,” *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, 4 (1), 43–76.

Hogan, Suzanne, Eric Almquist, and Simon E. Glynn (2005), “Brand-building: finding the touchpoints that count,” *Journal of Business Strategy*, 26 (2), 11–18.

Hogg, Gililan, Sara Carter, and Anne Dunne (1998), “Investing in People: Internal Marketing and Corporate Culture,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 14 (8), 879–95.

Hollebeek, Linda (2011), “Exploring customer brand engagement: definition and themes,” *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 19 (7), 555–73.

Hollenbeck, Candice R., Cara Peters, and George M. Zinkhan (2008), “Retail Spectacles and Brand Meaning: Insights from a Brand Museum Case Study,” *Journal of Retailing*, 84 (3), 334–53.

Holmberg, Ingalill and Lars Strannegård (2015), “Students’ Self-Branding in a Swedish Business School,” *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 45 (2), 180–92.

Holt, Douglas B. (2003), "What Becomes an Icon Most?," *Harvard Business Review*, 81 (3), 43–49.
Homburg, Christian, Alexander Hahn, Torsten Bornemann, and Philipp Sandner (2014), "The Role of Chief Marketing Officers for Venture Capital Funding: Endowing New Ventures with Marketing Legitimacy," *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 51 (5), 625–44.
Homburg, Christian, John P. Workman Jr., and Ove Jensen (2000), "Fundamental Changes in Marketing Organization: The Movement Toward a Customer-Focused Organizational Structure," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28 (4), 459.
Hooley, Graham Hooley Corresponding and Gordon Greenley (2005), "The resource underpinnings of competitive positions," *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 13 (2), 93–116.
Houston, Franklin S. (1986), "The Marketing Concept: What It Is and What It Is Not," *Journal of Marketing*, 50 (2), 81–87.
Houston, Franklin S. and Jule B. Gassenheimer (1987), "Marketing and Exchange," *Journal of Marketing*, 51 (4), 3–18.
Hughes, Douglas E and Michael Ahearne (2010), "Energizing the Reseller's Sales Force:The Power of Brand Identification," *Journal of Marketing*, 74 (4), 81–96.
Hulberg, Jon (2006), "Integrating corporate branding and sociological paradigms: A literature study," *Journal of Brand Management*, 14 (1/2), 60–73.
Humphreys, Michael and Andrew D. Brown (2002), "Narratives of Organizational Identity and Identification: A Case Study of Hegemony and Resistance," *Organization Studies*, 23 (3), 421–47.
Hunt, Shelby D. (1976), "The Nature and Scope of Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 40 (3), 17–28.
Hunt, Shelby D. (2000), *A General Theory of Competition: Resources, Competences, Productivity, Economic Growth*, Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
Hur, Won-Moo, Hanna Kim, and Jeong Woo (2014), "How CSR Leads to Corporate Brand Equity: Mediating Mechanisms of Corporate Brand Credibility and Reputation," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 125 (1), 75–86.
Hurrell, Scott A. and Dora Scholarios (2014), "'The People Make the Brand': Reducing Social Skills Gaps Through Person-Brand Fit and Human Resource Management Practices," *Journal of Service Research*, 17 (1), 54–67.
Hwang, Ing-San and Der-Jang Chi (2005), "Relationships among Internal Marketing, Employee Job Satisfaction and International Hotel Performance: An Empirical Study," *International Journal of Management*, 22 (2), 285–93.
Hybels, Ralph C. (1995), "On Legitimacy, Legitimation, and Organizations: A Critical Review and Integrative Theoretical Model," in *Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings*, Chicago, Illinois: Academy of Management, 241–45.
Iacobucci, Dawn and Nigel Hopkins (1992), "Modeling Dyadic Interactions and Networks in Marketing," *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 29 (1), 5–17.
Ind, Nicholas (2007), *Living the Brand: How to Transform Every Member of Your Organization Into a Brand Champion*, London; Philadelphia: Kogan Page Publishers.
Ind, Nicholas, Oriol Iglesias, and Majken Schultz (2013), "Building Brands Together: Emergence and Outcomes of Co-Creation," *California Management Review*, 55 (3), 5–26.
Ishikawa, Kaoru (1985), *What is Total Quality Control?: The Japanese Way*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.
Ivancevich, John M. and James H. Donnelly Jr. (1974), "A Study of Role Clarity and Need for Clarity for Three Occupational Groups," *Academy of Management Journal*, 17 (1), 28–36.
Jackson, Barbara Bund (1985), "Build customer relationships that last," *Harvard Business Review*, 63 (6), 120–28.
Jain, Pooja and Yukti Ahuja (2015), "Storytelling in Business: An Effective Brand Communication Tool," *Management & Change*, 19 (2), 131–63.

James, Keith and Ken Lahti (2011), “Organizational Vision and System Influences on Employee Inspiration and Organizational Performance,” *Creativity & Innovation Management*, 20 (2), 108–20.

Jankovic, Marija (2012), “Integrated Marketing Communications and Brand Identity Development,” *Management (1820-0222)*, (63), 91–100.

Janonis, Vytautas, Aistė Dovalienė, and Regina Virvilaitė (2007), “Relationship of Brand Identity and Image,” *Engineering Economics*, 51 (1), 69–79.

Jap, Sandy D. (1999), “Pie-Expansion Efforts: Collaboration Processes in Buyer-Supplier Relationships,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36 (4), 461–75.

Jaramillo, Fernando, Douglas B. Grisaffe, Lawrence B. Chonko, and James A. Roberts (2009), “Examining the Impact of Servant Leadership on Sales Force Performance,” *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29 (3), 257–75.

Jaramillo, Fernando, Jay Prakash Mulki, and Greg W. Marshall (2005), “A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational commitment and salesperson job performance: 25 years of research,” *Journal of Business Research*, Special Section: The Nonprofit Marketing Landscape, 58 (6), 705–14.

Jaworski, Bernard, Ajay K. Kohli, and Arvind Sahay (2000), “Market-Driven Versus Driving Markets,” *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28 (1), 45–54.

Jelinek, Ronald (2014), “Beyond commitment: entrenchment in the buyer–seller exchange,” *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34 (4), 272–84.

Jessl, Randolf (2010), “Und jetzt raus!,” *Personalmagazin*, (9), 14.

Jevons, Colin and Mark Gabbott (2000), “Trust, Brand Equity and Brand Reality in Internet Business Relationships: An Interdisciplinary Approach,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 16 (6), 619–34.

Ji, Mindy F. (2002), “Children’s Relationships with Brands: ‘True Love’ or ‘One-Night’ Stand?,” *Psychology & Marketing*, 19 (4), 369–87.

Jones, Richard (2005), “Finding sources of brand value: Developing a stakeholder model of brand equity,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 13 (1), 10–32.

Joo, Baek-Kyoo (Brian) (2010), “Organizational commitment for knowledge workers: The roles of perceived organizational learning culture, leader–member exchange quality, and turnover intention,” *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 21 (1), 69–85.

Joseph, W. Benoy (1996), “Internal Marketing Builds Service Quality,” *Journal of Health Care Marketing*, 16 (1), 54–59.

Juan, Y.-C. and C. Ou-Yang (2004), “Systematic approach for the gap analysis of business processes,” *International Journal of Production Research*, 42 (7), 1325–64.

Judd, Robert C. (1964), “The Case for Redefining Services,” *Journal of Marketing*, 28 (1), 58–59.

Judson, Kimberly M., Timothy W. Aurand, Linda Gorchels, and Geoffrey L. Gordo (2009), “Building a University Brand from Within: University Administrators’ Perspectives of Internal Branding,” *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 30 (1), 54–68.

Juntunen, Mari, Jouni Juntunen, and Jari Juga (2011), “Corporate brand equity and loyalty in B2B markets: A study among logistics service purchasers,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 18 (4/5), 300–311.

Juntunen, Mari, Saila Saraniemi, Milla Halttu, and Jaana Tähtinen (2010), “Corporate brand building in different stages of small business growth,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 18 (2), 115–33.

Juran, Joseph M. (1999), “How to Think about Quality,” in *Juran’s Quality Handbook*, J. M. Juran, A. Blanton Godfrey, R. E. Hoogstoel, and E. G. Schilling, eds., New York: McGraw Hill, 1730.

Kaldor, Andrew G. (1971), “Imbricative Marketing,” *Journal of Marketing*, 35 (2), 19–25.

Kalla, Hanna K (2005), “Integrated internal communications: a multidisciplinary perspective,” *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 10 (4), 302–14.

Kaltcheva, Velitchka and Barton Weitz (1999), "The Effects of Brand-Consumer Relationships Upon Consumers' Attributions and Reactions," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 26 (1), 455–62.

Kalwani, Manohar U. and Narakesari Narayandas (1995), "Long-term manufacturer-supplier relationships: Do they pay off for supplier firms?," *Journal of Marketing*, 59 (1), 1–16.

Kang, Gi-Du, Jeffrey Jame, and Kostas Alexandris (2002), "Measurement of internal service quality: application of the SERVQUAL battery to internal service quality," *Managing Service Quality*, 12 (5), 278–91.

Kapferer, Jean Noel (2008), *The New Strategic Brand Management: Creating and Sustaining Brand Equity Long Term*, London; Philadelphia: Kogan Page.

Kates, Steven M. (2004), "The Dynamics of Brand Legitimacy: An Interpretive Study in the Gay Men's Community," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (2), 455–64.

Katz, Daniel and Robert L Kahn (1966), *The social psychology of organizations*, New York: Wiley.

Kavaratzis, Michalis (2004), "From city marketing to city branding: Towards a theoretical framework for developing city brands," *Place Branding*, 1 (1), 58–73.

Kavaratzis, Mihalis (2009), "Cities and their brands: Lessons from corporate branding," *Place Branding & Public Diplomacy*, 5 (1), 26–37.

Keith, Robert J. (1960), "The Marketing Revolution," *Journal of Marketing*, 24 (3), 35–38.

Kelemen, Mihaela and Ioanna Papasolomou (2007), "Internal marketing: a qualitative study of culture change in the UK banking sector," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 23 (7/8), 745–67.

Keller, Kevin Lane (1993), "Conceptualizing, Measuring, Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity," *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (1), 1–22.

Keller, Kevin Lane and Donald R. Lehmann (2006), "Brands and Branding: Research Findings and Future Priorities," *Marketing Science*, 25 (6), 740–59.

Kelley, Scott W., James H. Donnelly Jr., and Steven J. Skinner (1990), "Customer Participation in Service Production and Delivery," *Journal of Retailing*, 66 (3), 315–35.

Kennedy, Sherril H. (1977), "Nurturing Corporate Images," *European Journal of Marketing*, 11 (3), 11–164.

Kerr, Jeffrey L and Ellen F. Jackofsky (1989), "Aligning managers with strategies: Management development versus selection," *Strategic Management Journal*, 10, 157–70.

Kiel, L. Douglas and Robert F. Lusch (1992), "Toward a new paradigm for marketing: The evolutionary exchange paradigm," *Behavioral Science*, 37 (1), 59–76.

Kieser, Alfred and Herbert Kubicek (1992), *Organisation*, de Gruyter.

Kim, Chung K., Dongchul Han, and Seung-Bae Park (2001), "The effect of brand personality and brand identification on brand loyalty: Applying the theory of social identification," *Japanese Psychological Research*, 43 (4), 195–206.

Kim, Deog Ki and Minjung Kim (2016), "Influence of Brand Awareness and Brand Attitude on Purchase," *Journal of Marketing Thought*, 3 (1), 16–26.

Kimpakorn, Narumon and Gerard Tocquer (2009), "Employees' commitment to brands in the service sector: Luxury hotel chains in Thailand," *Journal of Brand Management*, 16 (8), 532–44.

King, Ceridwyn and Debra Grace (2008), "Internal branding: Exploring the employee's perspective," *Journal of Brand Management*, 15 (5), 358–72.

King, Ceridwyn and Debra Grace (2010), "Building and measuring employee-based brand equity," *European Journal of Marketing*, 44 (7/8), 938–71.

King, Stephen (1991), "Brand-building in the 1990s," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 7 (1), 3–13.

Klein, Howard J. and Natasha A. Weaver (2000), "The Effectiveness of an Organizational-Level Orientation Training Program in the Socialization of New Hires," *Personnel Psychology*, 53 (1), 47–66.

Klipfel, Joseph A. L., Allen C. Barclay, and Kristi M. Bockorny (2014), "Self-Congruity: A Determinant of Brand Personality," *Journal of Marketing Development & Competitiveness*, 8 (3), 130–43.

van Knippenberg, Daan and Els C. M. van Schie (2000), "Foci and correlates of organizational identification," *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 73 (2), 137–47.

van Knippenberg, Daan and Ed Sleebos (2006), "Organizational identification versus organizational commitment: self-definition, social exchange, and job attitudes," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27 (5), 571–84.

Knox, Simon and David Bickerton (2003), "The six conventions of corporate branding," *European Journal of Marketing*, 37 (7/8), 998–1016.

Kock, Ned, David Avison, and Julien Malaurent (2017), "Positivist Information Systems Action Research: Methodological Issues," *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 34 (3), 754–67.

Kogut, Bruce (1991), "Joint Ventures and the Option to Expand and Acquire," *Management Science*, 37 (1), 19–33.

Kohli, Ajay K. and Bernard J. Jaworski (1990), "Market Orientation: The Construct, Research Propositions, and Managerial Implications," *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (2), 1–18.

Korsgaard, M. Audrey, Susan E. Brodt, and Ellen M. Whitener (2002), "Trust in the Face of Conflict: The Role of Managerial Trustworthy Behavior and Organizational Context," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (2), 312–19.

Kostova, Tatiana and Kendall Roth (2002), "Adoption of an Organizational Practice by Subsidiaries of Multinational Corporations: Institutional and Relational Effects," *Academy of Management Journal*, 45 (1), 215–33.

Kostova, Tatiana and Srilata Zaheer (1999), "Organizational Legitimacy Under Conditions of Complexity: The Case of the Multinational Enterprise," *Academy of Management Review*, 24 (1), 64–81.

Kotabe, Masaaki and K. Scott Swan (1995), "The Role of Strategic Alliances in High-Technology New Product Development," *Strategic Management Journal*, 16 (8), 621–36.

Kotler, Philip (1972), "A Generic Concept of Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 36 (2), 46–54.

Kotler, Philip (1979), "Strategies for Introducing Marketing into Nonprofit Organizations," *Journal of Marketing*, 43 (1), 37–44.

Kotler, Philip (1984), *Marketing Management: analysis, planning, and control*, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Kotler, Philip (1988), *Marketing Management Analysis, Planning, Implementation, and Control*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, Philip (2005), "The Role Played by the Broadening of Marketing Movement in the History of Marketing Thought," *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 24 (1), 114–16.

Kotler, Philip and David Gertner (2002), "Country as brand, products, and beyond: A place marketing and brand management perspective," *Journal of Brand Management*, 9 (4/5), 249–61.

Kotler, Philip and Sidney J. Levy (1969a), "Broadening the Concept of Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 33 (1), 10–15.

Kotler, Philip and Sidney J. Levy (1969b), "A New Form of Marketing Myopia: Rejoinder to Professor Luck," *Journal of Marketing*, 33 (3), 55–57.

Kotler, Philip and Gerald Zaltman (1971), "Social Marketing: An Approach to Planned Social Change," *Journal of Marketing*, 35 (3), 3–12.

Kotter, John P. and James L. Heskett (1992), *Corporate Culture and Performance*, New York, NY: Free Press.

Krishnan, Rekha, Inge Geyskens, and Jan-Benedict E. M. Steenkamp (2016), "The effectiveness of contractual and trust-based governance in strategic alliances under behavioral and environmental uncertainty," *Strategic Management Journal*, 37 (12), 2521–42.

Kristof, Amy L. (1996), “Person-Organization Fit: An Integrative Review of Its Conceptualizations, Measurement, and Implications,” *Personnel Psychology*, 49 (1), 1–49.
Krobath, Karin and Schmidt (Eds.) (2010), *Innen beginnen: Von der internen Kommunikation zum Internal Branding*, Wiesbaden: Gabler.
Krueger, Joachim I., Julie H. Hall, Paola Villano, and Meredith C. Jones (2008), “Attribution and Categorization Effects in the Representation of Gender Stereotypes,” *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 11 (3), 401–14.
Kuei, Chu-Hua (1999), “Internal service quality – an empirical assessment,” *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 16 (8), 783–91.
Kuenzel, Sven and Sue Vaux Halliday (2008), “Investing antecedents and consequences of brand identification,” *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 17 (5), 293–304.
Kumar, V and Denish Shah (2009), “Expanding the Role of Marketing: From Customer Equity to Market Capitalization,” *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (6), 119–36.
Künzel, Hansjörg (1999), *Management interner Kunden-Lieferanten-Beziehungen*, Wiesbaden: Deutscher Universitäts Verlag;Gabler.
Lacoste, Sylvie and Rhona E. Johnsen (2015), “Supplier–customer relationships: A case study of power dynamics,” *Journal of Purchasing & Supply Management*, 21 (4), 229–40.
Laforet, Sylvie (2015), “Managing brand portfolios: audit of leading grocery supplier brands 2004 to 2012,” *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 23 (1), 72–89.
Lambert, Douglas M. and Matias G. Enz (2012), “Managing and measuring value co-creation in business-to-business relationships,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28 (13/14), 1588–1625.
Lassar, Waifried, Banwari Mittal, and Arun Sharma (1995), “Measuring customer-based brand equity,” *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 12 (4), 11–19.
Lawrence, Paul R. and Jay W. Lorsch (1967), “Differentiation and Integration in Complex Organizations,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 12 (1), 1–47.
Lazzarini, Sergio G., Danny P. Claro, and Luiz F. Mesquita (2008), “Buyer–Supplier and Supplier–Supplier Alliances: Do They Reinforce or Undermine One Another?,” *Journal of Management Studies*, 45 (3), 561–84.
Leckie, Civilai, Munyaradzi W. Nyadzayo, and Lester W. Johnson (2016), “Antecedents of consumer brand engagement and brand loyalty,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 32 (5–6), 558–78.
Lee, Nancy R. and Philip A. Kotler (2015), *Social Marketing: Changing Behaviors for Good*, Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc.
Lees-Marshment, Jennifer (2014), *Political Marketing: Principles and Applications*, New York, NY: Routledge.
Lefaix-Durand, Aurélia and Robert Kozak (2009), “Integrating transactional and relational exchange into the study of Exchange Orientation in customer relationships,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25 (9/10), 1003–25.
Lehmann, Axel (1995), *Dienstleistungsmanagement: Strategien und Ansatzpunkte zur Schaffung von Servicequalität*, Stuttgart: Schäffer-Poeschel.
Lengnick-Hall, Cynthia A., Vincentia Claycomb, and Lawrence W. Inks (2000), “From recipient to contributor: examining customer roles and experienced outcomes,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 34 (3/4), 359–83.
Levinson, Harry (1965), “Reciprocation: The Relationship between Man and Organization,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 9 (4), 370–90.
Levitt, Theodore (1960), “Marketing Myopia,” *Harvard Business Review*, 38 (4), 45–56.
Levy, Jack S. (2008), “Case Studies: Type, Designs and Logics of Inference,” *Conflict Management and Peace Science*, 25 (1), 1–18.
Levy, Sidney J. (1959), “Symbols for Sale,” *Harvard Business Review*, 37 (4), 117–24.

Levy, Sidney J. and Philip Kotler (1969), "Beyond Marketing: The Furthering Concept," *California Management Review*, 12 (2), 67–73.

Lewin, Kurt (1997), "Action research and minority problems," in *Resolving Social Conflicts and Field Theory in Social Science*, K. Lewin, ed., Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 143–54.

Li, Fuan and J. a. F. Nicholls (2000), "Transactional or Relationship Marketing: Determinants of Strategic Choices," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 16 (5), 449–64.

Li, Sai and Grant Jones (2010), "A Study of the Effect of Functional Subcultures on the Performance of Hong Kong Construction Companies," *Systemic Practice & Action Research*, 23 (6), 509–28.

Lichtenthal, J. David and David T. Wilson (1992), "Becoming Market Oriented," *Journal of Business Research*, 24 (3), 191–207.

Lievens, Filip and Scott Highhouse (2003), "The Relation of Instrumental and Symbolic Attributes to a Company's Attractiveness as an Employer," *Personnel Psychology*, 56 (1), 75–102.

Lijphart, Arend (1971), "Comparative Politics and the Comparative Method," *The American Political Science Review*, 65 (3), 682–93.

Lim, Weng Marc and Ding Hooi Ting (2012), "Healthcare marketing: Contemporary salient issues and future research directions," *International Journal of Healthcare Management*, 5 (1), 3–11.

Lindgreen, Adam and Finn Wynstra (2005), "Value in business markets: What do we know? Where are we going?," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 34 (7), 732–48.

Lings, Ian N. (2004), "Internal market orientation: Construct and consequences," *Journal of Business Research*, 57 (4), 405.

Lings, Ian N. and Gordon E. Greenley (2005), "Measuring Internal Market Orientation," *Journal of Service Research*, 7 (3), 290–305.

Lippman, S. A. and R. P. Rumelt (1982), "Uncertain Imitability: An Analysis of Interfirm Differences in Efficiency under Competition," *The Bell Journal of Economics*, 13 (2), 418–38.

Liu, Gordon, Teck-Yong Eng, and Yasmin Kaur Sekhon (2014), "Managing Branding and Legitimacy A Study of Charity Retail Sector," *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43 (4), 629–51.

Louis, Meryl R., Barry Z. Posner, and Gary N. Powell (1983), "The Availability and Helpfulness of Socialization Practices," *Personnel Psychology*, 36 (4), 857–66.

Louis, Meryl Reis (1981), "A cultural perspective on organizations: the need for and consequences of viewing organizations as culture-bearing milieux," *Human Systems Management*, 2 (4), 246–58.

Louro, Maria Joao and Paulo Vieira Cunha (2001), "Brand Management Paradigms," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 17 (7/8), 849–75.

Lovelock, Christopher H. (1983), "Classifying Services to Gain Strategic Marketing Insights," *Journal of Marketing*, 47 (3), 9–20.

Lovelock, Christopher H. and Robert F. Young (1979), "Look to consumers to increase productivity," *Harvard Business Review*, 57 (3), 168–78.

Low, George S. and Ronald A. Fullerton (1994), "Brands, Brand Management, and the Brand Manager System: A Critical-Historical Evaluation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31 (2), 173–90.

Low, George S. and Charles W. Lamb (2000), "The measurement and dimensionality of brand associations," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 9 (6), 350–70.

Lowe, Ben, David Lynch, and Julian Lowe (2014), "The role and application of social marketing in managing water consumption: a case study," *International Journal of Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 19 (1), 14–26.

Luck, David J. (1969), “Broadening the Concept of Marketing-Too Far,” *Journal of Marketing*, 33 (3), 53–55.

Luo, Xueming, Aric Rindfleisch, and David K Tse (2007), “Working with Rivals: The Impact of Competitor Alliances on Financial Performance,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 44 (1), 73–83.

Lusch, Robert F and James R. Brown (1996), “Interdependency, Contracting, and Relational Behavior in Marketing Channels,” *Journal of Marketing*, 60 (4), 19–38.

Lusch, Robert F. and Stephen L. Vargo (2006), “Service-dominant logic: reactions, reflections and refinements,” *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 281–88.

Lusch, Robert F. and Stephen L. Vargo (2014), *The Service-dominant Logic of Marketing: Dialog, Debate, and Directions*, New York, NY: Routledge.

Lusch, Robert F., Stephen L. Vargo, and Matthew O’Brien (2007), “Competing through service: Insights from service-dominant logic,” *Journal of Retailing*, 83 (1), 5–18.

MacKenzie, Scott B., Philip M. Podsakoff, and Michael Ahearne (1998), “Some Possible Antecedents and Consequences of In-Role and Extra-Role Salesperson Performance,” *Journal of Marketing*, 62 (3), 87–98.

MacKenzie, Scott B., Philip M. Podsakoff, and Gregory A. Rich (2001), “Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Salesperson Performance,” *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29 (2), 115–34.

MacLaverty, Nina, Patricia McQuillan, and Hugh Oddie (2007), “Internal Branding Best Practices Study,” Canadian Marketing Association, 1–12.

MacLeod, David, Mike Emmott, Imelda Walsh, Dilys Robinson, Sarah Parkes, and Jane Pickard (2009), “Employee Branding,” *People Management*, 15 (23), 18–22.

MacMillan, Keith and David Farmer (1979), “Redefining the Boundaries of the Firm,” *The Journal of Industrial Economics*, 27 (3), 277–85.

Macrae, C. Neil, Alan B. Milne, and Galen V. Bodenhausen (1994), “Stereotypes as Energy-Saving Devices: A Peek Inside the Cognitive Toolbox,” *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 66 (1), 37–47.

Madupalli, Ramana, Gertrude Pannirselvam, and Clay Williams (2014), “Quality of Business-to-Business Relationships: Impact of Customer-Supplier Differences,” *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 18 (2), 149–67.

Mael, Fred and Blake E. Ashforth (1992), “Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification,” *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13 (2), 103–23.

Mahajan, Vijay, Vithala R. Rao, and Rajendra K. Srivastava (1994), “An Approach to Assess the Importance of Brand Equity in Acquisition Decisions,” *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 11 (3), 221–35.

Mahnert, Kai E. and Ann M. Torres (2007), “The Brand Inside: The Factors of Failure and Success in Internal Branding,” *Irish Marketing Review*, 19 (1/2), 54–63.

March, James G. and Herbert A. Simon (1958), *Organizations*, New York: Wiley.

Marsh, David and Paul Fawcett (2011), “Branding, politics and democracy,” *Policy Studies*, 32 (5), 515–30.

Marshall, Greg W., Julie Baker, and David W. Finn (1998), “Exploring internal customer service quality,” *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 13 (4/5), 381–92.

Martin, Charles L. (2012), “A quarter of a century: reflections of the first 25 years of the Journal of Services Marketing,” *Journal of Services Marketing*, 26 (1), 3–8.

Martineau, Pierre (1958), “Sharper Focus for the Corporate Image,” *Harvard Business Review*, 36 (6), 49–58.

Massey, Joseph Eric (2001), “Managing Organizational Legitimacy: Communication Strategies for Organizations in Crisis,” *Journal of Business Communication*, 38 (2), 153–82.

Matanda, Margaret Jekanyika and Nelson Oly Ndubisi (2013), "Internal marketing, internal branding, and organisational outcomes: The moderating role of perceived goal congruence," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29 (9/10), 1030–55.

Mathew, Veeva, Sam Thomas, and Joseph I Injodey (2012), "Direct and Indirect Effect of Brand Credibility, Brand Commitment and Loyalty Intentions on Brand Equity," *Economic Review: Journal of Economics & Business*, 10 (2), 73–82.

Mattsson, Lars-Gunnar (1997), "'Relationship Marketing' and the 'Markets-as-Networks Approach'- A comparative analysis of two evolving streams of research," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 13 (5), 447–61.

Matzler, Kurt, Elisabeth Pichler, Johann Fuller, and Todd A. Mooradian (2011), "Personality, person-brand fit, and brand community: An investigation of individuals, brands, and brand communities," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27 (9/10), 874–90.

Maxham III, James G. and Richard G. Netemeyer (2003), "Firms Reap What They Sow: The Effects of Shared Values and Perceived Organizational Justice on Customers' Evaluations of Complaint Handling," *Journal of Marketing*, 67 (1), 46–62.

Maxwell, Rachael and Simon Knox (2009), "Motivating employees to 'live the brand': a comparative case study of employer brand attractiveness within the firm," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25 (9/10), 893–907.

McAlexander, James H., John W. Schouten, and Harold F. Koenig (2002), "Building Brand Community," *Journal of Marketing*, 66 (1), 38–54.

McCann, Leo (2014), "Just what is it that makes today's employee branding so different, so appealing?," *Ephemera: Theory & Politics in Organization*, 14 (1), 143–50.

McCarthy, E. Jerome (1960), *Basic Marketing - A Managerial Approach*, Homewood, IL: R.D. Irwin.

McDonald, Paul (2002), "A Crash Course In Self-Marketing," *Financial Executive*, 18 (2), 60–62.

McKenna, Regis (1991), "Marketing Is Everything," *Harvard Business Review*, 69 (1), 65–79.

McManners, Peter (2016), "The action research case study approach: A methodology for complex challenges such as sustainability in aviation," *Action Research*, 14 (2), 201–16.

McNamara, Carlton P. (1972), "The Present Status of the Marketing Concept," *Journal of Marketing*, 36 (1), 50–57.

Meffert, Heribert (2000), *Marketing: Grundlagen marktorientierter Unternehmensführung. Konzepte - Instrumente - Praxisbeispiele. Mit neuer Fallstudie VW Golf*, Wiesbaden: Springer.

Memon, Muhammad Awais and Nadir Ali Kolachi (2012), "Towards Employee Branding: A Nexus of Hr & Marketing," *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4 (2), 46–61.

Menon, Jaya Smitha (2012), "IT Department still Undermined and Underfunded in many Organizations," *Siliconindia*, 15 (1), 42–43.

Merz, Michael A., Yi He, and Stephen L. Vargo (2009), "The evolving brand logic: a service-dominant logic perspective," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37 (3), 328–44.

Meyer, John P. and Natalie J. Allen (1991), "A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment," *Human Resource Management Review*, 1 (1), 61–89.

Meyer, John W. and Brian Rowan (1977), "Institutionalized Organizations: Formal Structure as Myth and Ceremony," *American Journal of Sociology*, 83 (2), 340–63.

Miles, Matthew B. and A. Michael Huberman (1994), *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook, 2nd Edition*, Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications Inc.

Miles, Raymond E. and Charles C. Snow (1986), "Organizations: New Concepts for New Forms," *California Management Review*, 28 (3), 62–73.

Miles, Sandra Jeanquart and Glynn Mangold (2004), "A Conceptualization of the Employee Branding Process," *Journal of Relationship Marketing*, 3 (2/3), 65–87.

Miller, Dale (2014), "Brand-building and the elements of success: discoveries using historical analyses," *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 17 (2), 92–111.

Miller, Joseph C. and Patricia Pitaluga (2001), “Cultural Marketing and Archaeology: The Case of Brazil,” *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 8 (4), 63–74.
Mills, Peter K., Richard B. Chase, and Newton Margulies (1983), “Motivating the Client/Employee System as a Service Production Strategy,” *Academy of Management Review*, 8 (2), 301–10.
Mills, Peter K. and James H. Morris (1986), “Clients as ‘Partial’ Employees of Service Organizations: Role Development in Client Participation,” *The Academy of Management Review*, 11 (4), 726–35.
Minjoon Jun and Shaohan Cai (2010), “Examining the relationships between internal service quality and its dimensions, and internal customer satisfaction,” *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 21 (2), 205–23.
Mintzberg, Henry (1975), “The manager’s job: folklore and fact,” *Harvard Business Review*, 53 (4), 49–61.
Mintzberg, Henry (1979), *The Structuring of Organizations: A Synthesis of Research*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
Mintzberg, Henry (1980), “Structure in 5’s: A Synthesis of the Research on Organization Design,” *Management Science*, 26 (3), 322–41.
Mintzberg, Henry (1981), “Organization design: fashion or fit?,” *Harvard Business Review*, 59 (1), 103–16.
Mishra, Karen, Lois Boynton, and Aneil Mishra (2014), “Driving Employee Engagement: The Expanded Role of Internal Communications,” *Journal of Business Communication*, 51 (2), 183–202.
Mitchell, Alan (1999), “Out of the Shadows,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15 (1–3), 25–42.
Mitchell, Colin (2002), “Selling the Brand Inside,” *Harvard Business Review*, 80 (1), 99–105.
Modi, Pratik and Debiprasad Mishra (2010), “Conceptualising market orientation in non-profit organisations: definition, performance, and preliminary construction of a scale,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 26 (5/6), 548–69.
Mohr-Jackson, Iris (1991), “Broadening the Market Orientation: An Added Focus on Internal Customers,” *Human Resource Management*, 30 (4), 455–67.
Mölk, Andreas and Manfred Auer (2018), “Designing brands and managing organizational politics: A qualitative case study of employer brand creation,” *European Management Journal*, 36 (4), 485–96.
Moore, Karl and Susan Reid (2008), “The birth of brand: 4000 years of branding,” *Business History*, 50 (4), 419–32.
Moorman, Christine and Roland T. Rust (1999), “The Role of Marketing,” *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (4), 180–97.
Moorman, Christine, Gerald Zaltman, and Rohit Deshpande (1992), “Relationships Between Providers and Users of Market Research: The Dynamics of Trust Within and Between Organizations,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 29 (3), 314–28.
Moorthi, Y.L.R. (2002), “An approach to branding services,” *Journal of Services Marketing*, 16 (3), 259–74.
Morgan, Nigel, Annette Pritchard, and Rachel Piggott (2002), “New Zealand, 100% Pure. The creation of a powerful niche destination brand,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 9 (4/5), 335–54.
Morgan, Robert M. and Shelby D. Hunt (1994), “The Commitment-Trust Theory of Relationship Marketing,” *Journal of Marketing*, 58 (3), 20–38.
Morhart, Felicitas M, Walter Herzog, and Torsten Tomczak (2009), “Brand-Specific Leadership: Turning Employees into Brand Champions,” *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (5), 122–42.
Morhart, Felicitas M., Walter Herzog, and Torsten Tomczak (2011), “Turning Employees into Brand Champions: LEADERSHIP STYLE MAKES A DIFFERENCE,” *GfK-Marketing Intelligence Review*, 3 (2), 35–43.

Morley, Michael J. (2007), “Person-organization fit,” *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22 (2), 109–17.
Morrall, Katherine (1995), “Creating a cohesive image through branding,” *Bank Marketing*, 27 (8), 23–28.
Morrison, Elizabeth Wolfe (1995), “Information Usefulness and Acquisition During Organizational Encounter - Elizabeth Wolfe Morrison, 1995,” *Management Communication Quarterly*, 9, 131–55.
Morse, John J. (1975), “Person-Job Congruence and Individual Adjustment and Development,” *Human Relations*, 28 (9), 841–61.
Mosley, Richard W. (2007), “Customer experience, organisational culture and the employer brand,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 15 (2), 123–34.
Mowday, Richard T, Richard M Steers, and Lyman W Porter (1979), “The measurement of organizational commitment,” *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14 (2), 224–47.
Mulhern, Francis J. (1999), “Customer profitability analysis: Measurement, concentration, and research directions,” *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 13 (1), 25–40.
Muniz, Albert M. and Thomas C. O’Guinn (2001), “Brand Community,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27 (4), 412–32.
Murphy, Susan M., Sandy J. Wayne, Robert C. Liden, and Berrin Erdogan (2003), “Understanding Social Loafing: The Role of Justice Perceptions and Exchange Relationships,” *Human Relations*, 56 (1), 61–84.
Muylle, Steve, Niraj Dawar, and Deva Rangarajan (2012), “B2B Brand Architecture,” *California Management Review*, 54 (2), 58–71.
Nagel, Pieter J.A. and Willem W. Cilliers (1990), “Customer Satisfaction: A Comprehensive Approach,” *International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*, 20 (6), 2–46.
Nahapiet, Janine and Sumantra Ghoshal (1998), “Social Capital, Intellectual Capital, and the Organizational Advantage,” *Academy of Management Review*, 23 (2), 242–66.
Nandan, Shiva (2005), “An exploration of the brand identity-brand image linkage: A communications perspective,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 12 (4), 264–78.
Narver, John C. and Stanley F. Slater (1990), “The effect of a market orientation on business profitability,” *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (4), 20–35.
Nedungadi, Prakash (1990), “Recall and Consumer Consideration Sets: Influencing Choice without Altering Brand Evaluations,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17 (3), 263–76.
Nelson, Phillip (1974), “Advertising as Information,” *Journal of Political Economy*, 82 (4), 729–54.
Newman, Joseph W. (1957), “New Insight, New Progress, for Marketing,” *Harvard Business Review*, 35 (6), 95–102.
Nickels, William G. (1974), “Conceptual conflicts in marketing,” *Journal of Economics & Business*, 26 (2), 140–43.
Nie, Yong, Kunio Shirahada, and Michitaka Kosaka (2013), “Value Co-creation Oriented Leadership for Promoting Service-Centric Business,” *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 22 (1), 216–28.
Niraj, Rakesh (2001), “Customer Profitability in a Supply Chain,” *Journal of Marketing*, 65 (3), 1–16.
Nunnally, Jum C. (1978), *Psychometric Theory*, New York: McGraw-Hill.
Nwatarali, Edwin O. and Nathan U. Dim (2015), “Developing a Framework for Political Party Finance Monitoring and Enforcement: A Case Study of the Independent National Electoral Commission (inec), Nigeria,” *International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, 8 (2), 137–57.
Nysveen, Herbjørn and Per Egil Pedersen (2014), “Influences of co-creation on brand experience,” *International Journal of Market Research*, 56 (6), 807–32.

Oliver, Christine (1991), “Strategic Responses to Institutional Processes,” *Academy of Management Review*, 16 (1), 145–79.
Oliver, Richard L. (1999), “Whence Consumer Loyalty?,” *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (4), 33–44.
Olson, Clark D. (1985), “Materialism in the Home: The Impact of Artifacts on Dyadic Communication,” *Advances in Consumer Research*, 12 (1), 388–93.
Onkvisit, Sak and John J. Shaw (1989), “Service Marketing: Image, Branding, and Competition,” *Business Horizons*, 32 (1), 13–18.
Onyemah, Vincent (2008), “Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict, and Performance: Empirical Evidence of an Inverted-U Relationship,” *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 28 (3), 299–313.
O’Reilly, Charles A. and Jennifer A. Chatman (1996), “Culture as Social Control: Corporations, Cults, and Commitment,” *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 18, 157–200.
O’Reilly, Charles and Jennifer Chatman (1986), “Organizational Commitment and Psychological Attachment: The Effects of Compliance, Identification, and Internalization on Prosocial Behavior,” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71 (3), 492–99.
O’Reilly III, Charles A. and Jeffrey Pfeffer (2000), “Unlocking the Hidden Value in Organization,” *Employment Relations Today (Wiley)*, 27 (2), 63–80.
O’Shaughnessy, John and Nicholas Jackson O’Shaughnessy (2011), “Service-dominant logic: a rejoinder to Lusch and Vargo’s reply,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 45 (7/8), 1310–18.
Osland, Gregory E. and Attila Yaprak (1995), “Learning through strategic alliances,” *European Journal of Marketing*, 29 (3), 52–66.
Ostroff, Cheri and Steve W.J. Kozlowski (1992), “Organizational Socialization as a Learning Process: The Role of Information Acquisition,” *Personnel Psychology*, 45 (4), 849–74.
O’Sullivan, Don and Andrew V. Abela (2007), “Marketing Performance Measurement Ability and Firm Performance,” *Journal of Marketing*, 71 (2), 79–93.
Oxford English Dictionary Online (2015), “Definition of brand in the Oxford dictionary,” (accessed December 1, 2015), [available at http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/brand].
Padgett, Dan and Douglas Allen (1997), “Communicating Experiences: A Narrative Approach to Creating Service Brand Image,” *Journal of Advertising*, 26 (4), 49–62.
Pahl-Schönbein, Julia (2011), *Konzerninterne Dienstleister: Wettbewerbsfähigkeit zwischen Markt und Hierarchie*, Wiesbaden: Gabler.
Painter-Morland, Mollie, Susan Kirk, Ghislain Deslandes, and Carole Tansley (2019), “Talent Management: The Good, the Bad, and the Possible,” *European Management Review*, 16 (1), 135–46.
Palmer, Adrian and David Bejou (1994), “Buyer-Seller Relationships: A Conceptual Model and Empirical Investigation,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 10 (6), 495–512.
Pandya, Kerav (2014), “Comparison of Expectation and Satisfaction level: An Empirical Study on GAP analysis,” *SIES Journal of Management*, 10 (2), 55–62.
Pantouvakis, Angelos (2011), “Internal service quality and job satisfaction synergies for performance improvement: Some evidence from a B2B environment,” *Journal of Targeting, Measurement & Analysis for Marketing*, 19 (1), 11–22.
Papadopoulos, Nicolas and Louise Heslop (2002), “Country equity and country branding: Problems and prospects,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 9 (4/5), 294–314.
Parasuraman, A. and Valarie A. Zeithaml (1994), “Alternative Scales for Measuring Service Quality: A Comparative Assessment Based on Psychometric and Diagnostic Criteria,” *Journal of Retailing*, 70 (3), 201–30.
Parasuraman, A., Valarie A. Zeithaml, and Leonard L. Berry (1985), “A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and Its Implications for Future Research,” *Journal of Marketing*, 49 (4), 41–50.

Pardo, Catherine, Björn S. Ivens, and Kevin Wilson (2013), "Assessing and strengthening internal alignment of new marketing units: An interpretative tool," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 42 (7), 1074–82.

Park, C. Whan, Bernard J. Jaworski, and Deborah J. Maclnnis (1986), "Strategic Brand Concept-Image Management," *Journal of Marketing*, 50 (4), 135–45.

Park, Hyun-Soo, Seigyoung Auh, Amro A. Maher, and Anusorn Singhapakdi (2012), "Marketing's accountability and internal legitimacy: Implications for firm performance," *Journal of Business Research*, 65 (11), 1576–82.

Parkerson, Brenda and John Saunders (2005), "City branding: Can goods and services branding models be used to brand cities?," *Place Branding*, 1 (3), 242–64.

Paster, Benjamin G. (1969), "Trademarks - Their Early History," *Trademark Reporter*, 59, 551–72.

Patsiotis, Athanasios G, Don J Webber, and Tim Hughes (2013), "Internet shopping and internet banking in sequence: An explanatory case study," *Journal of Financial Services Marketing*, 18 (4), 285–300.

Paul, Michael (2010), "Marken und History Branding sind ein Pfund!," *Marken und History Branding sind ein Pfund!*, (accessed April 17, 2015), [available at http://www.absatzwirtschaft.de/marken-und-history-branding-sind-ein-pfund-18482/].

Pavitra, K. H. (2018), "Employer Branding Approach and Student Preferences of Employer in Campus Placements," *IUP Journal of Brand Management*, 15 (4), 30–46.

Pavlović, Dragan, Milena Todorović, Srđan Mladenović, and Peđa Milosavljević (2014), "The Role of Quality Methods in Improving Education Process: Case Study," *Serbian Journal of Management*, 9 (2), 219–30.

Payne, Adrian and Sue Holt (2001), "Diagnosing Customer Value: Integrating the Value Process and Relationship Marketing," *British Journal of Management*, 12 (2), 159–82.

Payne, Adrian, Kaj Storbacka, Pennie Frow, and Simon Knox (2009), "Co-creating brands: Diagnosing and designing the relationship experience," *Journal of Business Research*, 62 (3), 379–89.

Peltier, James W., Lucille Pointer, and John A. Schibrowsky (2006), "Internal Marketing and the Antecedents of Nurse Satisfaction and Loyalty," *Health Marketing Quarterly*, 23 (4), 75–108.

Pérez, Nuria Martin (2008), *Service Center Organisation - Neue Formen der Steuerung von internen Dienstleistungseinheiten*, Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag.

Peterson, Robert A. (1995), "Relationship marketing and the consumer," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23 (4), 278–81.

Pettigrew, Andrew M. (1979), "On Studying Organizational Cultures," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24 (4), 570–81.

Pfau, Bruce, Denis Detzel, and Andrew Geller (1991), "Satisfy Your Internal Customers," *Journal of Business Strategy*, 12 (6), 9–13.

Pfeffer, Jeffrey (1997), *New Directions for Organization Theory: Problems and Prospects*, New York, NY: Oxford Universary Press.

Pfeffer, Jeffrey and Gerald R. Salancik (2003), *The external control of organizations: a resource dependence perspective*, Stanford University Press.

Pfeffer, Jeffrey and John F. Veiga (1999), "Putting people first for organizational success," *Academy of Management Executive*, 13 (2), 37–48.

Pfeiffer, Dietmar K. (1976), *Organisationssoziologie*, Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer GmbH.

Philips (2018), "Health and safety - Green operations - Sustainable planet - Sustainability - About," *Philips*, (accessed February 27, 2018), [available at https://www.philips.com/a-w/about/sustainability/sustainable-planet/green-operations/health-and-safety.html].

Phillips, Barbara J., Edward F. McQuarrie, and W. Glenn Griffin (2014), "The Face of the Brand: How Art Directors Understand Visual Brand Identity," *Journal of Advertising*, 43 (4), 318–32.

Phillips, Deborah R. (2014), “Anchoring Talent Management to Business Performance,” *Journal of Property Management*, 79 (3), 16–20.

Pich, Christopher, Guja Armannsdottir, and Dianne Dean (2015), “The elicitation capabilities of qualitative projective techniques in political brand image research,” *International Journal of Market Research*, 57 (3), 357–94.

Pich, Christopher and Dianne Dean (2015), “Political branding: sense of identity or identity crisis? An investigation of the transfer potential of the brand identity prism to the UK Conservative Party,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 31 (11–12), 1353–78.

Piercy, Nigel and Neil Morgan (1991), “Internal Marketing-The Missing Half of the Marketing Programme,” *Long Range Planning*, 24 (2), 82–93.

Pioch, Elke Angelika and Ulrike Gerhard (2014), “Organizational culture as differentiator in international retailing,” *Service Industries Journal*, 34 (8), 729–49.

Pitcher, A. E. (1985), “The Role of Branding in International Advertising,” *International Journal of Advertising*, 4 (3), 241–46.

Plassmann, Hilke, Vinod Venkatraman, Scott Huettel, and Carolyn Yoon (2015), “Consumer Neuroscience: Applications, Challenges, and Possible Solutions,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 52 (4), 427–35.

Podsakoff, Philip M., Scott B. MacKenzie, Robert H. Moorman, and Richard Fetter (1990), “Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers’ trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors,” *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1 (2), 107–42.

Podsakoff, Philip M., Scott B. MacKenzie, Julie Beth Paine, and Daniel G. Bachrach (2000), “Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Critical Review of the Theoretical and Empirical Literature and Suggestions for Future Research,” *Journal of Management*, 26 (3), 513–63.

Poppo, Laura (1995), “Influence activities and strategic coordination: Two distinctions of internal and external markets,” *Management Science*, 41 (12), 1845–59.

Portal, Sivan, Russell Abratt, and Michael Bendixen (2019), “The role of brand authenticity in developing brand trust,” *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 27 (8), 714–29.

Porter, Michael E. (1981), “The Contributions of Industrial Organization to Strategic Management,” *The Academy of Management Review*, 6 (4), 609–20.

Porter, Michael E. (1985), *Competitive advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*, New York; London: The Free Press.

Porter, Michael E. (1987), “From competitive advantage to corporate strategy,” *Harvard Business Review*, 65 (3), 43–43.

Porter, Michael E. (2004), *Competitive advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*, New York; London: Free Press.

Powell, Walter W. (1990), “Neither Market nor Hierarchy: Network Forms of Organization,” *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 12, 295–336.

Prahalad, C. K. and Gary Hamel (1990), “The Core Competence of the Corporation,” *Harvard Business Review*, 68 (3), 79–91.

Prahalad, C. K. and Venkat Ramaswamy (2004), “Co-Creation Experiences: The Next Practice In.value Creation,” *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 18 (3), 5–14.

Prahalad, C.K. and Venkat Ramaswamy (2004a), “Co-creating unique value with customers,” *Strategy & Leadership*, 32 (3), 4–9.

Prahalad, C.K. and Venkat Ramaswamy (2004b), “Co-creating unique value with customers,” *Strategy & Leadership*, 32 (3), 4–9.

Pranic, Ljudevit and Wesley S. Roehl (2012), “Rethinking service recovery: a customer empowerment (CE) perspective,” *Journal of Business Economics & Management*, 13 (2), 242–60.

Prasad, Sameer, R.p. Sundarraj, Jasmine Tata, and Nezih Altay (2018), "Action-research-based optimisation model for health care behaviour change in rural India," *International Journal of Production Research*, 56 (21), 6774–92.

Prasetyo, Hari, Lee Luong, and Sang-Heon Lee (2010), "Integrated Vendor-Buyer Production and Inventory Policy: A Critical Review," *International Journal of Business & Management Science*, 3 (2), 215–30.

Pratt, Michael G. (1998), "To Be or Not to Be: Central Questions in Organizational Identification," in *Identity in Organizations: Building Theory Through Conversations*, D. A. Whetten and P. C. Godfrey, eds., California: SAGE Publications, 171–208.

Pratt, Michael G. and Anat Rafaeli (1997), "Organizational Dress as a Symbol of Multilayered Social Indentities," *Academy of Management Journal*, 40 (4), 862–98.

Pritchard, Katrina (2010), "Becoming an HR strategic partner: tales of transition," *Human Resource Management Journal*, 20 (2), 175–88.

Pugh, S. Douglas (2001), "Service with a Smile: Emotional Contagion in the Service Encounter," *Academy of Management Journal*, 44 (5), 1018–27.

Punj, Girish N. and Clayton L. Hillyer (2004), "A Cognitive Model of Customer-Based Brand Equity for Frequently Purchased Products: Conceptual Framework and Empirical Results," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14 (1/2), 124–31.

Punjaisri, Khanyapuss, Heiner Evanschitzky, and John Rudd (2013), "Aligning employee service recovery performance with brand values: The role of brand-specific leadership," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29 (9–10), 981–1006.

Punjaisri, Khanyapuss, Heiner Evanschitzky, and Alan Wilson (2009), "Internal branding: an enabler of employees' brand-supporting behaviours," *Journal of Service Management*, 20 (2), 209–26.

Punjaisri, Khanyapuss and Alan Wilson (2007), "The role of internal branding in the delivery of employee brand promise," *Journal of Brand Management*, 15 (1), 57–70.

Punjaisri, Khanyapuss and Alan Wilson (2011), "Internal branding process: key mechanisms, outcomes and moderating factors," *European Journal of Marketing*, 45 (9/10), 1521–37.

Pusa, Sofia and Liisa Uusitalo (2014), "Creating Brand Identity in Art Museums: A Case Study," *International Journal of Arts Management*, 17 (1), 18–30.

Quinton, Sarah (2013), "The community brand paradigm: A response to brand management's dilemma in the digital era," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29 (7/8), 912–32.

Rafiq, Mohammed and Pervaiz K. Ahmed (1993), "The Scope of Internal Marketing: Defining the Boundary Between Marketing and Human Resource Management," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 9 (3), 219–32.

Rafiq, Mohammed and Pervaiz K. Ahmed (2000), "Advances in the internal marketing concept: definition, synthesis and extension," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14 (6/7), 449–62.

Rahman, Kaleel and Charles S. Areni (2010), "Product line sub-branding versus company as the brand in services," *Marketing Review*, 10 (1), 56–67.

Raj, AshaBinu and P. Jyothi (2011), "Internal Branding: Exploring the Employee Perspective," *Journal of Economic Development, Management, IT, Finance & Marketing*, 3 (2), 1–27.

Rajah, Edwin, Roger Marshall, and Inwoo Nam (2008), "Relationship Glue: Customers and Marketers Co-Creating a Purchase Experience," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 35, 367–73.

Ramani, Girish and V Kumar (2008), "Interaction Orientation and Firm Performance," *Journal of Marketing*, 72 (1), 27–45.

Ramaswamy, Venkat and Francis Gouillart (2010), "Building the Co-Creative Enterprise," *Harvard Business Review*, 88 (10), 100–109.

Ramaswamy, Venkat and Kerimcan Ozcan (2016), "Brand value co-creation in a digitalized world: An integrative framework and research implications," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 33 (1), 93–106.

Rao, Hayagreeva (1994), "The Social Construction of Reputation: Certification Contests, Legitimation, and the Survival of Organizations in the American Automobile Industry: 1895--1912," *Strategic Management Journal*, 15, 29–44.

Rao, Raghunath Singh, Rajesh K Chandy, and Jaideep C Prabhu (2008), "The Fruits of Legitimacy: Why Some New Ventures Gain More from Innovation Than Others," *Journal of Marketing*, 72 (4), 58–75.

Rapoport, Robert N. (1970), "Three Dilemmas in Action Research," *Human Relations*, 23 (6), 499–513.

Ratcliffe-Smith, John and Roger Brooks (1993), "Service From Within," *TQM Magazine*, 5 (5), 41–43.

Rathmell, John M. (1966), "What Is Meant by Services?," *Journal of Marketing*, 30 (4), 32–36.

Ravald, Annika and Christian Grönroos (1996), "The value concept and relationship marketing," *European Journal of Marketing*, 30 (2), 19–30.

Reade, Carol (2001), "Antecedents of organizational identification in multinational corporations: fostering psychological attachment to the local subsidiary and the global organization," *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12 (8), 1269–91.

Reast, Jon, François Maon, Adam Lindgreen, and Joëlle Vanhamme (2013), "Legitimacy-Seeking Organizational Strategies in Controversial Industries: A Case Study Analysis and a Bidimensional Model," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 118 (1), 139–53.

Reckenfelderbäumer, Martin (2001), *Zentrale Dienstleistungsbereiche und Wettbewerbsfähigkeit: Analyse auf der Basis der Lehre von den Unternehmerfunktionen*, Wiesbaden: Dt. Univ.-Verl.

Regan, William J. (1963), "The Service Revolution," *Journal of Marketing*, 27 (3), 57–62.

Reinartz, Werner, Manfred Krafft, and Wayne D. Hoyer (2004), "The Customer Relationship Management Process: Its Measurement and Impact on Performance," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 41 (3), 293–305.

Reynoso, Javier and Brian Moores (1995), "Towards the measurement of internal service quality," *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 6 (3), 64–83.

Richardson, Alan John (1985), "Symbolic and Substantive Legitimation in Professional Practice," *The Canadian Journal of Sociology*, 10 (2), 139–52.

Riezebos, Rik and Jaap van der Grinten (2012), *Positioning the Brand: An Inside-Out Approach*, Abingdon, Oxon ; New York, NY: Routledge.

Riezebos, Rik, Bas Kist, and Gert Kootstra (2003), *Brand Management: A Theoretical and Practical Approach*, Harlow, England: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Riley, Francesca Dall'Olmo and Leslie de Chernatony (2000), "The Service Brand as Relationships Builder," *British Journal of Management*, 11 (2), 137–50.

Rivers, Nicole M. (2011), "The Limits of Chávez's Bolivarian Socialism: A Case Study of the Venezuelan Cacao Industry," *Syracuse Journal of International Law & Commerce*, 39 (1), 1–53.

Rizzo, John R., Robert J. House, and Sidney I. Lirtzman (1970), "Role Conflict and Ambiguity in Complex Organizations," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15 (2), 150–63.

Roberts-Lombard, Mornay (2010), "Employees as customers - An internal marketing study of the Avis car rental group in South Africa," *African Journal of Business Management*, 4 (4), 362–72.

Robertson, Dom (2013), "Storytelling is key to engagement," *Market Leader*, (Q1), 17–17.

Rodríguez, Carlos M. and David T. Wilson (2002), "Relationship Bonding and Trust as a Foundation for Commitment in U.S.-Mexican Strategic Alliances: A Structural Equation Modeling Approach," *Journal of International Marketing*, 10 (4), 53–76.

Roeck, Kenneth and Nathalie Delobbe (2012), "Do Environmental CSR Initiatives Serve Organizations' Legitimacy in the Oil Industry? Exploring Employees' Reactions Through Organizational Identification Theory," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 110 (4), 397–412.

Rogers, Everett M. (1994), *A History of Communication Study: A Biographical Approach*, New York: Free Press.

Ronken, Harriet O. (1952), *Administering changes; a case study of human relations in a factory*, Boston: Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration.

Rook, Dennis W. (1984), "Ritual Behavior and Consumer Symbolism," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11 (1), 279–84.

Roper, Stuart and Cathy Parker (2006), "Evolution of Branding Theory and Its Relevance to the Independent Retail Sector," *Marketing Review*, 6 (1), 55–71.

Rosenbloom, Bert (2013), "Functions and Institutions: The Roots and the Future of Marketing Channels," *Journal of Marketing Channels*, 20 (3/4), 191–203.

Roundy, Philip T. (2010), "Gaining Legitimacy by Telling Stories: The Power of Narratives in Legitimizing Mergers and Acquisitions," *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict*, 14 (1), 89–105.

Rousseau, Denise M. (1998), "Why workers still identify with organizations," *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19 (3), 217–33.

Rudawska, Edyta (2011), "The influence of customer relationships on the market value of a bank -a methodological perspective," *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 10 (2), 181–99.

Ruef, Martin and W. Richard Scott (1998), "A Multidimensional Model of Organizational Legitimacy: Hospital Survival in Changing Institutional Environments," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43 (4), 877–904.

Ruekert, Robert W. (1992), "Developing a market orientation: An organizational strategy perspective," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 9 (3), 225–45.

Ruekert, Robert W. and Orville C. Walker Jr. (1987), "Marketing's Interaction with Other Functional Units: A Conceptual Framework and Empirical Evidence," *Journal of Marketing*, 51 (1), 1–19.

Rust, Roland T., Tim Ambler, Gregory S. Carpenter, V. Kumar, and Rajendra K. Srivastava (2004), "Measuring Marketing Productivity: Current Knowledge and Future Directions," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (4), 76–89.

Rynes, Sara L. and Daniel M. Cable (2003), "Recruitment Research in the Twenty-First Century," in *HANDBOOK of PSYCHOLOGY*, Industrial and Organizational Psychology, I. B. Weiner, ed., Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 55–77.

Saenger, Christina, Veronica L. Thomas, and Jennifer Wiggins Johnson (2013), "Consumption-Focused Self-Expression Word of Mouth: A New Scale and Its Role in Consumer Research," *Psychology & Marketing*, 30 (11), 959–70.

Sagawa, Shirley and Eli Segal (2000), "Common Interest, Common Good: CREATING VALUE THROUGH BUSINESS AND SOCIAL SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS," *California Management Review*, 42 (2), 105–22.

Sahin, Azize, Cemal Zehir, and Hakan Kitapçı (2011), "The Effects of Brand Experiences, Trust and Satisfaction on Building Brand Loyalty; An Empirical Research On Global Brands," *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, The Proceedings of 7th International Strategic Management Conference, 24 (Supplement C), 1288–1301.

Salancik, Gerald R. and James R. Meindl (1984), "Corporate Attributions as Strategic Illusions of Management Control," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29 (2), 238–54.

Sampson, Scott E. (2012), "Visualizing Service Operations," *Journal of Service Research*, 15 (2), 182–98.

Sánchez-Fernández, Raquel and M. Ángeles Iniesta-Bonillo (2007), "The concept of perceived value: a systematic review of the research," *Marketing Theory*, 7 (4), 427–51.

Sandhu, Sukhbir and Carol T. Kulik (2019), “Shaping and Being Shaped: How Organizational Structure and Managerial Discretion Co-evolve in New Managerial Roles,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 64 (3), 619–58.

Santos, Fernando Pinto, Mario Burghausen, and John M. T. Balmer (2016), “Heritage branding orientation: The case of Ach. Brito and the dynamics between corporate and product heritage brands,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 23 (1), 67–88.

Sarkar, A. N. and Jagjit Singh (2005), “New Paradigm in Evolving Brand Management Strategy,” *Journal of Management Research*, 5 (2), 80–90.

Sasser, W. Earl (1976), “Match supply and demand in service industries,” *Harvard Business Review*, 54 (6), 133–40.

Saunders, John and Robert Watters (1993), “Branding Financial Services,” *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 11 (6), 32–38.

Schechter, Frank I. (1925), *The Historical Foundations of the Law Relating to Trade-Marks*, New York: Columbia University Press.

Schein, Edgar H. (1984), “Coming to a New Awareness of Organizational Culture,” *Sloan Management Review*, 25 (2), 3–16.

Schein, Edgar H. (2003), *DEC is dead, long live DEC*, San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Schein, Edgar H. (2004), *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schembri, Sharon (2006), “Rationalizing service logic, or understanding services as experience?,” *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 381–92.

Schembri, Sharon and Lorien Latimer (2016), “Online brand communities: constructing and co-constructing brand culture,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 32 (7–8), 628–51.

Schertzer, Susan M.B., Clinton B. Schertzer, and F. Robert Dwyer (2013), “Value in professional service relationships,” *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 28 (8), 607–19.

Schlenker, Barry R. (1980), *Impression Management: The Self-concept, Social Identity, and Interpersonal Relations*, Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Schmidt, Gerd (2013), “Das Bessere ist der Feind des Guten,” *Siemens News Center*, Erlangen, 1–4.

Schmidt, Holger (2014), “Policemen, firefighters, and advisors: QT Head Holger Schmidt on quality at Healthcare,” *Siemens News Center*, Erlangen, 1–3.

Schmitt, Bernd (1999), “Experiential Marketing,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15 (1–3), 53–67.

Schneider, Benjamin, Harold W. Goldstein, and D. Brent Smith (1995), “The ASA Framework: An Update,” *Personnel Psychology*, 48 (4), 747–73.

Schulman, Donniel S., John R. Dunleavy, Martin J. Harmer, and James S. Lusk (1999), *Shared Services: Adding Value to the Business Units*, New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Schyns, Birgit and Marcel A. Croon (2006), “A model of task demands, social structure, and leader-member exchange and their relationship to job satisfaction,” *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17 (4), 602–15.

Scott, Richard W. (1987), *Organizations: Relational, Natural and Open Systems*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Seran (Potra), Sabina and Monica Izvercian (2014), “Prosumer engagement in innovation strategies,” *Management Decision*, 52 (10), 1968–80.

Shaari, Hasnizam, Salniza Md. Salleh, and Zolkafli Hussin (2012), “Relationship Between Brand Knowledge and Brand Rewards, and Employees’ Brand Citizenship Behavior: The Mediating Roles of Brand Commitment,” *International Journal of Business & Society*, 13 (3), 335–54.

Shah, Maitri (2011), “Talent Retention through Employer Branding,” *Journal of Marketing & Communication*, 6 (3), 30–33.

Shapiro, Benson E. (1988), “What the Hell Is `Market Oriented?’,” *Harvard Business Review*, 66 (6), 119–25.

Sharif, Khurram (2009), "Relationship Between Intra- and Interorganizational Service Quality Perceptions: An Empirical Testing of Modified Service Profit Chain Model Within Kuwaiti Telecommunications Industry," *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 30 (3), 249–69.

Sharma, Shikha (2019), "Employer Branding: A Novel Route to Employee Retention and Competitive Advantage," *Journal of General Management Research*, 6 (1), 14–31.

Shaw, A.w. (1912), "Some Problems in Market Distribution," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 26 (4), 703–65.

Shaw, Eric H. and D. G. Brian Jones (2005), "A history of schools of marketing thought," *Marketing Theory*, 5 (3), 239–81.

Shelash Al-Hawary, Sulieman Ibraheem, Kamal A. M. Al-Qudah, Petra Mash'al Abutayeh, Sherrihan Mash'al Abutayeh, and Dyala Yahya Al-Zyadat (2013), "The Impact of Internal Marketing on Employee's Job Satisfaction of Commercial Banks in Jordan," *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4 (9), 811–26.

Shepherd, Steven, Tanya L. Chartrand, and Gavan J. Fitzsimons (2015), "When Brands Reflect Our Ideal World: The Values and Brand Preferences of Consumers Who Support versus Reject Society's Dominant Ideology," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 42 (1), 76–92.

Sheth, Jagdish N. (1976), "Buyer-Seller Interaction: A Conceptual Framework," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 3 (1), 382–86.

Sheth, Jagdish N., Bruce I. Newman, and Barbara L. Gross (1991), "Why We Buy What We Buy: A Theory of Consumption Values," *Journal of Business Research*, 22 (2), 159–70.

Sheth, Jagdish N. and Atul Parvatiyar (1995), "Relationship Marketing in Consumer Markets: Antecedents and Consequences," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23 (4), 255–71.

Sheth, Jagdish N and Can Uslay (2007), "Implications of the Revised Definition of Marketing: From Exchange to Value Creation," *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 26 (2), 302–7.

Shostack, G. Lynn (1977), "Breaking Free from Product Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 41 (2), 73–80.

Shu, Shih-Tung, Brian King, and Ching-Hung Chang (2015), "Tourist Perceptions of Event–Sponsor Brand Fit and Sponsor Brand Attitude," *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32 (6), 761–77.

Shuv-Ami, Avichai (2012), "Brand commitment: A new four-dimensional (4 Es) conceptualisation and scale," *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 11 (3), 281–305.

Siemens AG (2013), "Policy of Siemens Business Process Management."

Siemens Healthineers (2016), "Siemens Healthineers – The new brand for Siemens' healthcare business," Generic Template, , (accessed June 8, 2020), [available at https://www.siemens-healthineers.com/press-room/press-releases/pr-2016050267hcen.html].

Siemens Healthineers (2018), "Principles of Healthineers™"," (accessed February 24, 2018), [available at https://www.healthcare.siemens.de/careers].

Siemens Healthineers (2020a), "About Siemens Healthineers," Generic Template, , (accessed January 8, 2020), [available at https://www.siemens-healthineers.com/about].

Siemens Healthineers (2020b), "Investor relations information," Text, , (accessed June 8, 2020), [available at https://www.corporate.siemens-healthineers.com/investor-relations/share].

Siemens Healthineers (2020c), "Right Approach to Radiation Dose Management," Generic Template, , (accessed June 17, 2020), [available at https://www.siemens-healthineers.com/medical-imaging/low-dose/right-dose-approach].

Siemens Healthineers (2020d), "Siemens Healthineers MedMuseum," Text, , (accessed June 17, 2020), [available at https://www.medmuseum.siemens-healthineers.com/].

Siemens Healthineers (2020e), "Siemens Healthineers Experience Center," Generic Template, , (accessed June 17, 2020), [available at https://www.siemens-healthineers.com/de/about/customer-experience-center].

Siemens Healthineers USA (2018), “Company Profile,” Generic Template, , (accessed January 20, 2018), [available at https://usa.healthcare.siemens.com/about-us/about].
Siems, Florian and Manuela Lackus (2010), “Internal Branding for B2b-Services: The Role of Communication. Theory, Empirical Results, and Management Implications,” *International Journal of Business Research*, 10 (1), 31–43.
da Silveira, Catherine, Carmen Lages, and Cláudia Simões (2013), “Reconceptualizing brand identity in a dynamic environment,” *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (1), 28–36.
Silverman, David (1970), *The Theory of Organisations*, London: Heinemann Educational Books.
Silverstein, Marshall L. (2007), “Diagnosis of Personality Disorders: A Case Study,” *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 89 (1), 82–94.
Silzer, Rob and Ben E. Dowell (Eds.) (2009), *Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative*, San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
Simmons, John A. (2009), “‘Both sides now’: aligning external and internal branding for a socially responsible eranull,” *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 27 (5), 681–97.
Simon, Carol J. and Mary W. Sullivan (1993), “The Measurement and Determinants of Brand Equity: A Financial Approach,” *Marketing Science*, 12 (1), 28–52.
Singh, Ashu (2013), “Achieving Sustainability Through Internal Communication and Soft Skills,” *IUP Journal of Soft Skills*, 7 (1), 21–26.
Sirgy, M. Joseph (1982), “Self-Concept in Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9 (3), 287–300.
Sirianni, Nancy J., Mary Jo Bitner, Stephen W. Brown, and Naomi Mandel (2013), “Branded Service Encounters: Strategically Aligning Employee Behavior with the Brand Positioning,” *Journal of Marketing*, 77 (6), 108–23.
Skålén, Per (2009), “Service marketing and subjectivity: the shaping of customer-oriented employees,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25 (7/8), 795–809.
Skålén, Per, Markus Fellesson, and Martin Fougère (2006), “The governmentality of marketing discourse,” *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 22 (4), 275–91.
Sluss, David M. and Blake E. Ashforth (2008), “How Relational and Organizational Identification Converge: Processes and Conditions,” *Organization Science*, 19 (6), 807–23.
Smircich, Linda (1983), “Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28 (3), 339–58.
Smith, C. Ann, Dennis W. Organ, and Janet P. Near (1983), “Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature and Antecedents,” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68 (4), 653–63.
Smith, Kelly and Michael Wintrob (2013), “Brand Storytelling: A Framework for Activation,” *Design Management Review*, 24 (1), 36–41.
Snow, Charles C., Raymond E. Miles, and Jr. Coleman Henry J. (1992), “Managing 21st Century Network Organizations,” *Organizational Dynamics*, 20 (3), 4–20.
Snow, David A., E. Burke Rochford Jr., Steven K. Worden, and Robert D. Benford (1986), “Frame Alignment Processes, Micromobilization, and Movement Participation,” *American Sociological Review*, 51 (4), 464–81.
Sokro, Evans (2012), “Impact of Employer Branding on Employee Attraction and Retention,” *European Journal of Business and Management*, 4 (18), 164–73.
Soni, Neha and Manoj Verghese (2018), “Analyzing the Impact of Online Brand Trust on Sales Promotion and Online Buying Decision,” *IUP Journal of Marketing Management*, 17 (3), 7–24.
Sørensen, Jesper B. (2002), “The Strength of Corporate Culture and the Reliability of Firm Performance,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47 (1), 70–91.
Spiteri, Joseph M. and Paul A. Dion (2004), “Customer value, overall satisfaction, end-user loyalty, and market performance in detail intensive industries,” *Industrial Marketing Management*, 33 (8), 675–87.

Srinivasan, Mahesh and Prashant Srivastava (2012), "The Role of the Salesperson in Building Trust and Collaboration in Buyer-Seller Relationships," *Supply Chain Forum: International Journal*, 13 (2), 22–38.

Srivastava, Rajenda K., Tasadduq A. Shervani, and Liam Fahey (1998), "Market-Based Assets and Shareholder Value: A Framework for Analysis," *Journal of Marketing*, 62 (1), 2–18.

Srivastava, Rajendra K., Liam Fahey, and H. Kurt Christensen (2001), "The resource-based view and marketing: The role of market-based assets in gaining competitive advantage," *Journal of Management*, 27 (6), 777–802.

Srivastava, Rajendra K., Tasadduq A. Shervani, and Liam Fahey (1999), "Marketing, Business Processes, and Shareholder Value: An Organizationally Embedded View of Marketing Activities and the Discipline of Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (4), 168–79.

Stabell, Charles B. (1982), "OFFICE PRODUCTIVITY: A MICROECONOMIC FRAMEWORK FOR EMPIRICAL RESEARCH," *Office Technology and People,* 1 (1), 91–106.

Stabell, Charles B. and Øystein D. Fjeldstad (1998), "Configuring value for competitive advantage: On chains, shops, and networks," *Strategic Management Journal*, 19 (5), 413.

Stauss, Bernd (1995), "Internal services: classification and quality management," *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 6 (2), 62–78.

Stauss, Bernd (2010), "Internes Relationship Management – Das Beziehungsmanagement interner Dienstleister," in *Management von Kundenbeziehungen*, D. Georgi and K. Hadwich, eds., Gabler, 27–51.

Steimann, Friedrich (2000), "On the representation of roles in object-oriented and conceptual modelling," *Data & Knowledge Engineering*, 35 (1), 83–106.

Stern, Barbara B. (2006), "What Does Brand Mean? Historical-Analysis Method and Construct Definition," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34 (2), 216–23.

Stewart, David W. (2009), "Marketing accountability: Linking marketing actions to financial results," *Journal of Business Research*, 62 (6), 636–43.

Storbacka, Kaj and Suvi Nenonen (2011), "Scripting markets: From value propositions to market propositions," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 40 (2), 255–66.

Stuart, Alix (2012), "Sustainability Grows on the Shareholder Agenda," *Compliance Week*, 9 (101), 44–62.

Stuart, Helen (1999), "Towards a definitive model of the corporate identity management process," *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 4 (4), 200–207.

Stuart, Helen J. (2011), "An identity-based approach to the sustainable corporate brand," *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 16 (2), 139–49.

Suchman, Mark C. (1995), "Managing Legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches," *Academy of Management Review*, 20 (3), 571–610.

Sujchaphong, Narissara, Bang Nguyen, and T.c. Melewar (2015), "Internal branding in universities and the lessons learnt from the past: the significance of employee brand support and transformational leadership," *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 25 (2), 204–37.

Sullivan, Sheny E. and Rabi S. Bhagat (1992), "Organizational Stress, Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: Where Do We Go From Here?," *Journal of Management*, 18 (2), 353–72.

Susman, Gerald I. and Roger D. Evered (1978), "An Assessment of the Scientific Merits of Action Research," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23 (4), 582–603.

Swaminathan, Vanitha, Karen L. Page, and Zeynep Gürhan-Canli (2007), "'My' Brand or 'Our' Brand: The Effects of Brand Relationship Dimensions and Self-Construal on Brand Evaluations," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34 (2), 248–59.

Swim, Janet K. (1994), "Perceived Versus Meta-Analytic Effect Sizes: An Assessment of the Accuracy of Gender Stereotypes," *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 66 (1), 21–36.

Tajfel, Henri (1974), “Social identity and intergroup behaviour,” *Social Science Information/sur les sciences sociales*, 13 (2), 65–93.

Tajfel, Henri and J. C. Turner (1979), “An Integrative Theory of Intergroup Conflict,” in *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations*, W. G. Austin and S. Worchel, eds., Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole, 33–47.

Tauber, Edward M. (1974), “How Market Research Discourages Major Innovation,” *Business Horizons*, 17 (3), 22–26.

Tauber, Edward M. (1985), “The Gap in Gap Analysis,” *Journal of Advertising Research*, 25 (4), 7.

Tedeschi, James T. and Marc Riess (1981), “Identities, the Phenomenal Self, and Laboratory Research,” in *Impression Management Theory and Social Psychological Research*, J. T. Tedeschi, ed., New York, NY: Academic Press, Inc., 3–22.

Terblanche, Nic S. (2014), “Some theoretical perspectives of co-creation and coproduction of value by customers,” *Acta Commercii*, 14 (2), 1–8.

The Louisiana Department of Agriculture and Forestry (2015), *OFFICIAL BRAND BOOK OF THE STATE OF LOUISIANA*, Louisiana.

Theron, Edwin, Nic Terblanche, and Christo Boshoff (2011), “The Antecedents of Trust in Business-to-Business Financial Services,” *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, 18 (2), 188–213.

Thomson, Kevin, Leslie de Chernatony, Lorrie Arganbright, and Sajid Khan (1999), “The Buy-in Benchmark: How Staff Understanding and Commitment Impact Brand and Business Performance,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15 (8), 819–35.

Thorelli, Hans B. (1986), “Networks: Between Markets and Hierarchies,” *Strategic Management Journal*, 7 (1), 37–51.

Timmins, William M. (1985), “Conflicting Roles in Personnel Boards: Adjudication vs. Policy Making,” *Public Personnel Management*, 14 (2), 191–204.

Tomczak, Torsten, Franz-Rudolf Esch, Joachim Kernstock, and Andreas Herrmann (2012), *Behavioral Branding: Wie Mitarbeiterverhalten die Marke stärkt*, Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag.

Tost, Leigh Plunkett (2011), “An Integrative Model of Legitimacy Judgments,” *Academy of Management Review*, 36 (4), 686–710.

Tosti, Donald T. and Rodger D. Stotz (2001), “Building Your Brand From the Inside Out,” *Marketing Management*, 10 (2), 27–33.

Trice, Harrison Miller and Janice M. Beyer (1993), *The Cultures of Work Organizations*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Trueman, Myfanwy and Nelarine Cornerlius (2006), “Hanging Baskets or Basket Cases? Managing the Complexity of City Brands and Regeneration,” Working Paper, Bradford: Bradford University School of Management.

Trueman, Myfanwy, Mary Klemm, and Axele Giroud (2004), “Can a city communicate? Bradford as a corporate brand,” *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 9 (4), 317–30.

Tsai, Yafang and Ta-Wei Tang (2008), “How to improve service quality: Internal marketing as a determining factor,” *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 19 (11), 1117–26.

Tsai, Yuan-Cheng and Yi-Lun Chi (2015), “Is Internal Market Orientation Still A Good Strategy To Promote Business Performance? : Evidence from Taiwan,” *World Journal of Management*, 6 (1), 10–23.

Tsui, Anne S., Jone L. Pearce, Lyman W. Porter, and Angela M. Tripoli (1997), “Alternative Approaches to the Employee-Organization Relationship: Does Investment in Employees Pay Off?,” *Academy of Management Journal*, 40 (5), 1089–1997.

Tucker, W. T. (1974), “Future Directions in Marketing Theory,” *Journal of Marketing*, 38 (2), 30–35.

Turley, L. W. and Patrick A. Moore (1995), “Brand name strategies in the service sector,” *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 12 (4), 42–50.

Tushman, Michael L. and Charles A. O'Reilly (1996), *Staying on top: Managing strategic innovation and change for long-term success*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Tyler, Tom R. (1997), "The Psychology of Legitimacy: A Relational Perspective on Voluntary Deference to Authorities," *Personality & Social Psychology Review*, 1 (4), 323–45.

Tyler, Tom R. (2006), "Psychological Perspectives on Legitimacy and Legitimation," *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57 (1), 375–400.

Tyler, Tom R. and Steven L. Blader (2005), "Can Businesses Effectively Regulate Employee Conduct? The Antecedents of Rule Following in Work Settings," *Academy of Management Journal*, 48 (6), 1143–58.

Tyler, William D. (1957), "The Image, the Brand, and the Consumer," *Journal of Marketing*, 22 (2), 162–65.

Uggla, Henrik (2015), "Positioning in the mind versus brand extension : the revision of Ries and Trout," *The IUP Journal of Brand Management*, 12 (1), 35–44.

Uhlig, Ronald P., Kamlesh Mehta, Susan Silverstone, and Farhang Mossavar-Rahmani (2015), "The Value of Business Education: A Case Study of Business Administration Graduates of a Large University," *Journal of Business & Behavioral Sciences*, 27 (1), 89–106.

Ulrich, Dave (1997), *Human Resource Champions: The Next Agenda for Adding Value and Delivering Results*, Harvard Business School Press.

Ulrich, David and Wayne Brockbank (2005), *The HR Value Proposition*, Harvard Business Press.

Uncles, Mark D. (2010), "Broadening the scope of brand management," *Journal of Brand Management*, 395–98.

Upah, Gregory D. (1980), "Mass Marketing in Service Retailing: A Review and Synthesis of Major Methods," *Journal of Retailing*, 56 (3), 59–76.

Urde, Mats (1999), "Brand Orientation: A Mindset for Building Brands into Strategic Resources," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15 (1–3), 117–33.

Urde, Mats, Carsten Baumgarth, and Bill Merrilees (2013), "Brand orientation and market orientation — From alternatives to synergy," *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (1), 13–20.

Urde, Mats, Stephen A. Greyser, and John M. T. Balmer (2007), "Corporate brands with a heritage," *Journal of Brand Management*, 15 (1), 4–19.

Urde, Mats and Christian Koch (2014), "Market and brand-oriented schools of positioning," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 23 (7), 478–90.

Urwick, LT. COL. L.F. (1976), "That Word 'Organization,'" *Academy of Management Review*, 1 (1), 89–92.

Vallaster, Christine (2004), "Internal brand building in multicultural organisations: a roadmap towards action research," *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 7 (2), 100–113.

Vallaster, Christine and Leslie De Chernatony (2003), "How Much Do Leaders Matter in Internal Brand Building? An International Perspective," *Paper for School Working Paper Series, University of Birmingham, UK.*

Vallaster, Christine and Leslie De Chernatony (2005), "Internationalisation of Services Brands: The Role of Leadership During the Internal Brand Building Process," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 21 (1/2), 181–203.

Van Durme, Joël, Roderick J. Brodie, and David Redmore (2003), "Brand equity in cooperative business relationships: exploring the development of a conceptual model," *Marketing Theory*, 3 (1), 37–57.

Van Maanen, John and Edgar H. Schein (1979), "Toward a Theory of Organizational Socialization," *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 1, 209–264.

Vanderblue, Homer B. (1921), "The Functional Approach to the Study of Marketing," *Journal of Political Economy*, 29 (8), 676–83.

Vandermerwe, Sandra and Douglas J. Gilbert (1991), "Internal Services: Gaps in Needs/Performance and Prescriptions for Effectiveness," *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 2 (1), 50–60.

Vanniarajan, T. and K. Subbash Babu (2011), "Internal Service Quality and Its Consequences in Commerical Banks: A Hr Perspective," *Global Management Review*, 6 (1), 42–57.

Vargo, Stephen L. (2009), "Toward a transcending conceptualization of relationship: a service-dominant logic perspective," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 24 (5/6), 373–79.

Vargo, Stephen L. (2011), "Market systems, stakeholders and value propositions: Toward a service-dominant logic-based theory of the market," *European Journal of Marketing*, 45 (1/2), 217–22.

Vargo, Stephen L. and Robert F. Lusch (2004), "Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (1), 1–17.

Vargo, Stephen L. and Robert F. Lusch (2008), "Service-dominant logic: continuing the evolution," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36 (1), 1–10.

Vargo, Stephen L., Paul P. Maglio, and Melissa Archpru Akaka (2008), "On value and value co-creation: A service systems and service logic perspective," *European Management Journal*, 26 (3), 145–52.

Vatsa, Madhukar (2016), "Leveraging Employer Branding for Organizational Success," *Review of Management*, 6 (1/2), 9–13.

Velitchkova, Tzviata Antonova (2003), *Interne Dienstleistungsqualität: Messung und Management von internen Dienstleistungen*, Arbeitspapier zur Schriftenreihe Schwerpunkt Marketing, München: FGM-Verlag.

Verhoef, Peter C and Peter S.H Leeflang (2009), "Understanding the Marketing Department's Influence Within the Firm," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (2), 14–37.

Verma, Deepti and Anees Ahmad (2016), "Employer Branding: The Solution to Create Talented Workforce," *IUP Journal of Brand Management*, 13 (1), 42–56.

Vosburgh, Richard M. (2007), "The Evolution of HR: Developing HR as an Internal Consulting Organization," *Human Resource Planning*, 30 (3), 11–23.

Wallace, Elaine, Leslie de Chernatony, and Isabel Buil (2011), "How Leadership and Commitment Influence Bank Employees' Adoption of their Bank's Values," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 101 (3), 397–414.

Wallström, Åsa, Ted Karlsson, and Esmail Salehi-Sangari (2008), "Building a corporate brand: The internal brand building process in Swedish service firms," *Journal of Brand Management*, 16 (1/2), 40–50.

Walsh, James P. (1988), "Selectivity and Selective Perception: An Investigation of Managers' Belief Structures and Information Processing," *The Academy of Management Journal*, 31 (4), 873–96.

Walter, Achim, Thomas Ritter, and Hans Georg Gemüden (2001), "Value Creation in Buyer - Seller Relationships," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 30 (4), 365–77.

Wang, Chih-Kang and Charles W. Lamb (1983), "The impact of selected environmental forces upon consumers' willingness to buy foreign products," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 11 (1), 71–84.

Wang, Kun and Dejia Li (2016), "Market Reactions to the First-Time Disclosure of Corporate Social Responsibility Reports: Evidence from China," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 138 (4), 661–82.

Wayne, Sandy J., Lynn M. Shore, and Robert C. Liden (1997), "Perceived Organizational Support and Leader-Member Exchange: A Social Exchange Perspective," *Academy of Management Journal*, 40 (1), 82–111.

Weatherford, M. Stephen (1992), "Measuring Political Legitimacy," *The American Political Science Review*, 86 (1), 149–66.

Weber, J. Michael (2015), "The Development of a Scale for the Measurement of Internal Marketing in Service Firms," *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 19 (2), 145–56.
Webster, Frederick E. Jr. (2000), "Understanding the Relationships Among Brands, Consumers, and Resellers," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28 (1), 17–23.
Webster Jr., Frederick E. (1978), "Management Science in Industrial Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 42 (1), 21–27.
Webster Jr., Frederick E. (1992), "The changing role of marketing in the corporation," *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (4), 1–17.
Webster Jr., Frederick E. (2005), "A Perspective on the Evolution of Marketing Management," *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 24 (1), 121–26.
Webster Jr., Frederick E. and Kevin Lane Keller (2004), "A roadmap for branding in industrial markets," *Journal of Brand Management*, 11 (5), 388–402.
Webster Jr., Frederick E., Alan J. Malter, and Shankar Ganesan (2005), "The Decline and Dispersion of Marketing Competence," *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 46 (4), 35–43.
Weigand, Robert E. (1973), "The Problems of Managing Reciprocity," *California Management Review*, 16 (1), 40–48.
Welch, Mary and Paul R. Jackson (2007), "Rethinking internal communication: a stakeholder approach," *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 12 (2), 177–98.
Weld, L.d.h. (1917), "Marketing Functions and Mercantile Organization," *American Economic Review*, 7 (2), 306–18.
Wells, Victoria K. (2014), "Behavioural psychology, marketing and consumer behaviour: a literature review and future research agenda," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 30 (11/12), 1119–58.
Wentzel, Daniel (2009), "The effect of employee behavior on brand personality impressions and brand attitudes," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37 (3), 359–74.
Wentzel, Daniel, Torsten Tomczak, Joachim Kernstock, Tim Brexendorf, and Sven Henkel (2012), "Der Funnel als Analyse- und Steuerungsinstrument von Brand Behavior," in *Behavioral Branding: Wie Mitarbeiterverhalten die Marke stärkt*, T. Tomczak, F.-R. Esch, J. Kernstock, and A. Herrmann, eds., Wiesbaden: Gabler, 81–99.
Whatley, Lachlan R. (2015), "Visioning and Values Management: Phase Two of an Action Research Case Study," *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 15 (1), 63–73.
White, Candace, Antoaneta Vanc, and Gena Stafford (2010), "Internal Communication, Information Satisfaction, and Sense of Community: The Effect of Personal Influence," *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 22 (1), 65–84.
White, Harrison C. (1981), "Where Do Markets Come From?," *American Journal of Sociology*, 87 (3), 517–47.
Wiener, Yoash (1982), "Commitment in Organizations: A Normative View," *Academy of Management Review*, 7 (3), 418–28.
Wieseke, Jan, Michael Ahearne, Son K Lam, and Rolf van Dick (2009), "The Role of Leaders in Internal Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (2), 123–45.
Wieseke, Jan, Florian Kraus, Michael Ahearne, and Sven Mikolon (2012), "Multiple Identification Foci and Their Countervailing Effects on Salespeople's Negative Headquarters Stereotypes," *Journal of Marketing*, 76 (3), 1–20.
Wikström, Solveig (1996), "Value Creation by Company-Consumer Interaction," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 12 (5), 359–74.
Wilden, Ralf, Siegfried Gudergan, and Ian Lings (2010), "Employer branding: strategic implications for staff recruitment," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 26 (1/2), 56–73.
Wilkie, William L. and Elizabeth S. Moore (2003), "Scholarly Research in Marketing: Exploring the '4 Eras' of Thought Development," *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 22 (2), 116–46.

Wilkins, Alan L. and William G. Ouchi (1983), “Efficient Cultures: Exploring the Relationship between Culture and Organizational Performance,” *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28 (3), 468–81.

Williams, Larry J. and Stella E. Anderson (1991), “Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship and In-Role Behaviors,” *Journal of Management*, 17 (3), 601–17.

Williams, Martin and Francis Buttle (2014), “Managing negative word-of-mouth: an exploratory study,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 30 (13–14), 1423–47.

Williamson, Oliver E. (1975), *Markets and Hierarchies: Analysis and Antitrust Implications*, New York: Free Press- Macmillan.

Williamson, Oliver E. (1981), “The Economics of Organization: The Transaction Cost Approach,” *American Journal of Sociology*, 87 (3), 548–77.

Williamson, Oliver E. (1991), “Economic Institutions: Spontaneous and Intentional Governance,” *Journal of Law, Economics & Organization*, 7 (2), 159–87.

Wilson, Aubrey (1998), “The internal service department - justifying your existence,” *Logistics Information Management*, 11 (1), 58–61.

Wilson, David T. (1995), “An Integrated Model of Buyer-Seller Relationships,” *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23 (4), 335–45.

Winship, Christopher and Michael Mandel (1983), “Roles and Positions: A Critique and Extension of the Blockmodeling Approach,” *Sociological Methodology*, 14, 314–44.

Wolf, Erika J., Kelly M. Harrington, Shaunna L. Clark, and Mark W. Miller (2013), “Sample Size Requirements for Structural Equation Models: An Evaluation of Power, Bias, and Solution Propriety,” *Educational and psychological measurement*, 76 (6), 913–34.

Woodside, Arch G. (2010a), *Case Study Research: Theory, Methods, Practice*, Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Woodside, Arch G. (2010b), “Brand-consumer storytelling theory and research: Introduction to a Psychology & Marketing special issue,” *Psychology & Marketing*, 27 (6), 531–40.

Woodward, David G., Pam Edwards, and Frank Birkin (1996), “Organizational Legitimacy and Stakeholder Information Provision.,” *British Journal of Management*, 7 (4), 329–47.

Wright, Donald K. (1995), “The role of corporate public relations executives in the future of employee communications,” *Public Relations Review*, 21 (3), 181–98.

Wrzesniewski, Amy, Justin M. Berg, and Jane E. Dutton (2010), “Turn the Job You Have into the Job You Want,” *Harvard Business Review*, 88 (6), 114–17.

Xie, Yi, Rajeev Batra, and Siqing Peng (2015), “An Extended Model of Preference Formation Between Global and Local Brands: The Roles of Identity Expressiveness, Trust, and Affect,” *Journal of International Marketing*, 23 (1), 50–71.

Yagil, Dana and Hana Medler-Liraz (2013), “Moments of Truth: Examining Transient Authenticity and Identity in Service Encounters,” *Academy of Management Journal*, 56 (2), 473–97.

Yan Yan (2014), “Is Organizational Identification Culturally Different? A Case Study on a China-based Multi-national Corporations,” *International Journal of China Marketing*, 4 (2), 113–22.

Yang, Wen Hui (2010), “Relationships among Internal Marketing Perceptions, Organizational Support, Job Satisfaction and Role Behavior in Healthcare Organizations,” *International Journal of Management*, 27 (2), 235–42.

Yannopoulou, Natalia, Epaminondas Koronis, and Richard Elliott (2011), “Media amplification of a brand crisis and its affect on brand trust,” *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27 (5–6), 530–46.

Yee, Rachel W.Y., Andy C.L. Yeung, T. C. Edwin Cheng, and Kee-Hung Lai (2009), “The service-profit chain: A review and extension,” *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 20 (6), 617–32.

Yin, Robert K. (2009), *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, Applied Social Research Methods, Los Angeles, California: SAGE Publications, Inc.
Yohn, Denise Lee (2017), "Why Your Company Culture Should Match Your Brand," *Harvard Business Review*, (accessed December 6, 2017), [available at https://hbr.org/2017/06/why-your-company-culture-should-match-your-brand].
Yoo, Boonghee and Naveen Donthu (2001), "Developing and validating a multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale," *Journal of Business Research*, 52 (1), 1–14.
Yoo, Boonghee, Naveen Donthu, and Sungho Lee (2000), "An Examination of Selected Marketing Mix Elements and Brand Equity," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28 (2), 195–211.
Young, Louise (2006), "Trust: looking forward and back," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 21 (7), 439–45.
Young, Mary and James E. Post (1993), "Managing to Communicate, Communicating to Manage: How Leading Companies Communicate with Employees," *Organizational Dynamics*, 22 (1), 31–43.
Zaman, Khansa, Neelum Javaid, Asma Arshad, and Samina Bibi (2012), "Impact of Internal Marketing on Market Orientation and Business Performance," *International Journal of Business & Social Science*, 3 (12), 76–87.
Zeithaml, Valarie A. (1988), "Consumer Perceptions of Price, Quality, and Value: A Means-End Model and Synthesis of Evidence," *Journal of Marketing*, 52 (3), 2–22.
Zeithaml, Valarie A. (1991), "How consumer evaluation processes differ between goods and services," in *Services Marketing*, C. H. Lovelock, ed., Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 39–47.
Zeithaml, Valarie A., Leonard L. Berry, and A. Parasuraman (1988), "Communication and Control Processes in the Delivery of Service Quality," *Journal of Marketing*, 52 (2), 35–48.
Zeithaml, Valarie A., A. Parasuraman, and Leonard L. Berry (1985), "Problems and Strategies in Services Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 49 (2), 33–46.
Zheng, Qinqin, Yadong Luo, and Vladislav Maksimov (2015), "Achieving legitimacy through corporate social responsibility: The case of emerging economy firms," *Journal of World Business*, 50 (3), 389–403.
Zuber-Skerritt, Ortrun (2002), "A model for designing action learning and action research programs," *The Learning Organization*, 9 (4), 143–49.
Zucker, Lynne G. (1987), "Institutional Theories of Organization," *Annual Review of Sociology*, 13, 443–64.