BRAND MANAGEMENT CAPABILITY AND BRAND PERFORMANCE

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Brands are intangible assets that provide companies with the potential to extract higher rents or prices from customers. However, only few organizations are able to build and sustain brands over a long period of time. Brand management capability - the organization's ability to build and sustain brands becomes important for achieving sustainable competitive advantage. Despite the importance of brand management capability to organizations, majority of the brand management literature has primarily focused on the consumer perspective of brands. This gap in knowledge about the components of brand management capability impedes firms from replicating brand successes, and makes them reliant on brand managers. More recently, there have been multiple calls in literature to identify marketing-related organizational capabilities, which can provide organizations with a sustainable competitive advantage. The focus on developing marketing-based capabilities comes at a time when marketing is losing its influence in organizations. To this end, the current dissertation uses organizational capability theory and literature on brand management to identify the primary resource (intellectual capital comprising of structural, human, and relational capital), organizational culture type (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market), and processes (strategic brand management, internal branding, and market information processes comprising of information acquisition, information transmission, conceptual utilization, and instrument utilization), that constitute the brand management capability. This dissertation also examines the association among various components of brand management capability and brand performance. A survey-based technique was used to gather data from individuals responsible for managing brands. The data was analyzed using PLS-SEM.

The results indicate that human capital, relational capital, market and hierarchy culture types, internal branding, strategic brand management, and instrument utilization are positively associated with brand performance. Structural capital, clan and adhocracy culture types, information acquisition, information transmission, and conceptual utilization are not associated with brand performance. From a research standpoint, this dissertation contributes to the extant literature by identifying the resources, organizational culture, and processes that constitute the brand management capability. In addition to the extant brand management processes (internal branding and strategic brand management), a third set of processes identified in this dissertation (market information processes) is argued to be a critical component for successfully managing brands in organizations. This dissertation also provides empirical support for the role of marketing-based capabilities in determining organizational value, which has been debated in recent literature. Finally, this research addresses the calls for exploring marketing-based capabilities, especially at a time when marketing as a function is losing its influence in academia and organizations. From a managerial standpoint, this dissertation provides an outline for organizations seeking to build brand management capability. In addition to developing intellectual capital and brand management processes, firms need to create the right kind of organizational culture that is needed for brand management capability. This is consistent with the movement towards brands being managed with a strategic perspective.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Brands are intangible assets that represent total value, both tangible and intangible, for consumers (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). Brands provide firms an opportunity to extract higher rents and prices from customers (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). It is not surprising that firms strive to build strong brands. However, not every firm succeeds to the same extent because the key to building strong brands lies in the firm's brand management capability, which includes all the activities firms undertake to develop and maintain brands (Low and Fullerton, 1994). Not all firms possess this capability. Brand management capability helps an organization achieve sustained competitive advantage through the creation of strong brands (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008).

Despite brand management function's long background in organizations (see Low and Fullerton, 1994; Merz et al., 2009), only recently have researchers started paying attention to brand management capability (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Merz et al., 2009; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). This gap in knowledge about the brand management capability affects the firm's ability to replicate its success with brands, and also makes it reliant on brand managers.

The recent scholarly development aimed at identifying the components of brand management capability is timely, considering that there is a declining influence of marketing in organizations (Homburg et al., 2015; Verhoef and Leeflang, 2009). This declining influence of marketing is attributed to the inability of the marketing function to influence an organization's financial performance (Kumar and Shah, 2009; Mizik and Jacobson, 2008; Rust et al., 2004).

Brand management capability has the potential to influence a firm's performance (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Morgan et al., 2009), and therefore needs to be understood more comprehensively.

Taken together, these factors suggest the need for a better understanding of the brand management capability within an organization (Cui et al., 2014; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). The following section discusses the gaps in our understanding of brand management capability.

1.2 Research Gaps

Brand management is currently viewed as a critical determinant of an organization's success (Merz et al., 2009; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Louro and Cunha, 2001). Considering the evolving nature of customers, markets and competitors, firms strive to develop strong brands to create and/or enhance value. Yet, little is known about what facilitates the creation of strong brands (Cui et al., 2014). Some researchers (see De Chernatony, 1999, 2001; Keller and Lehmann, 2006) call for more research on how firms can build and replicate strong brands over a period of time. Others suggest that brand management capability is critical for creating and sustaining strong brands (Cui et al., 2014; Hunt and Morgan, 1995), and a necessary component of an organization's success (Merz et al., 2009; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Louro and Cunha, 2001). Brand management capability enhances the value creation process by creating and sustaining strong brands (Cui et al, 2014; Hunt and Morgan, 1995). However, not much is known about brand management capability, and how it results in successful brands.

There have been multiple calls in literature to identify marketing-related organizational capabilities that could provide firms with sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 2014; Day 2014; Kozlenkova et al., 2014; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). Madhavaram and Hunt (2008) specifically highlight the need to identify the underlying dimensions of *brand management* *capability*. Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010), Lee and Park (2008), and Santos-Vijande et al. (2013) propose brand management system as an organizational capability that addresses the management of brands within an organization. However, systems only form one component of an organizational capability (Grant, 1996b; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Teece et al., 1997; Ulrich and Lake, 1991). Some studies suggest that factors like organizational culture could also affect the brand management capability of an organization (Hankinson, 2012; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). A capability consists of the organizational culture, resources and routines or processes that are shaped by the organizational culture (Eisenthardt and Santos, 2002; Grant, 1996b).

In summary, the lack of knowledge about the factors that lead to the successful creation and maintenance of brands act as an impediment to achieving superior business performance. The need to identify the underlying components of brand management capability is based on its importance to a firm's performance. Finally, the need to conceptualize marketing-based capabilities and establish their relationship with firm performance stems from the fact that marketing as a function is losing its influence in organizations.

Towards this end, this dissertation borrows from organizational capability perspective literature (Arnould, 2008; Collis, 1994; Day, 1994; Grant 1991; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Teece, 1997, 2007, 2009; Winter, 2003) and applies it to brand management (Keller and Lehman, 2006; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Rust et al., 2004; Shocker et al., 1994) for delineating the components of brand management capability and examining their influence on brand performance. Next, a brief background of the literature is provided. The main research questions, research goals, academic and managerial implications and research design follow after that.

1.3. Background Literature

1.3.1. Definition of Brand Management

Researchers view brands as an application of a firm's knowledge about its stakeholders and especially its customers, to create and fulfill value (Keller, 1998; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Merz et al., 2009). Successful brands have the potential to create greater value for, and extract higher rents from, customers by creating and fulfilling expectations (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Merz et al., 2009). Brand management, then, can be defined as the processes of developing, sustaining and improving brand performances (Keller, 1998). Brand management function in organizations formally evolved during 1930s (see Low and Fullerton, 1994) but was not widely adopted until the 1950s and 1960s. Today, the brand management function, depending on the organization, encompasses a wide variety of roles including new product development, execution, growth plans, innovation, and sales.

1.3.2. Contemporary Perspective on Brand Management

Extant literature on brand management identifies two internally-focused processes that are used to create and sustain strong brands (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Lee et al., 2008; Wong and Merrilees, 2007; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). These processes are termed as internal branding (De Chernatony and Cottom, 2006; Lee et al., 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013; Vallaster and De Chernatony, 2005) and strategic brand management (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Relying on this literature, internal branding can be defined as processes inside a firm aimed at internalizing the importance of brands and educating employees to support brands in a consistent manner. Internal branding aims to align the employees' commitment to the values of a brand to increase the efficiency of branding building.

Strategic brand management can be defined as all the activities directed towards the medium to long-term maintenance of a brand (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). It became important since brands were often managed with a short term orientation which affected its ability to generate rents in the long run (Lodish and Mela, 2007). This dissertation considers both internal branding and the strategic brand management processes to be focused on the internal operations of an organization.

While internal branding looks at ensuring the efficient execution of brand building activities, strategic brand management looks at the processes that are aimed at the development of brands as strategic resources (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). The difference between the two processes is based on the scope of these two processes; internal branding is focused on the operations aspect of brand building, while strategic brand management is directed towards the creation and sustenance of brand equity. Internal branding complements the strategic brand management process to maximize brand value over a period of time.

Several researchers also stress the importance of the external locus of brand management (Merz et al., 2009; Rust et al., 2004; Shocker et al., 1994). Since the success of brands depends on creating and fulfilling stakeholder expectations, organizations have to be acutely aware of the external environment (De Chernatony and Cottom, 2009; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Shocker et al, 1994). Nowadays, brand value is co-created by stakeholders (Iglesias et al., 2013; Merz et al., 2009). To continuously understand and fulfill the expectations of stakeholders, brands need to continuously gather and utilize market information (Merz et al., 2009; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Further, in today's competitive environment, most of the competition arises from non-traditional competitors (Varadarajan, 2010). Thus, the author identifies market information processes as the third set of processes needed for developing a strong brand management function. Market information processes include processes that collect, conceptualize and utilize market or brand related information (Moorman, 1995; Sinkula, 1994). Market information processes allow brand managers to modify brands based on external information.

1.3.3. Brand Management Perspective

Brand management is considered to be a collection of *three* processes: internal branding, strategic brand management and market information processes. The end objective of the brand management function is to develop and maintain successful brands (Keller and Lehmann, 2006) in the face of a continuously changing environment. To do this successfully, firms need to cultivate brand management capability, i.e., the ability to create and sustain strong brands over a period of time. These include not just the brand management processes identified above, but also the ability to integrate these processes into a broader organizational capability. Without this integration, brand managers are unlikely to get the desired organizational support needed to successfully manage brands.

1.3.4. Organizational Capability Perspective

There are multiple perspectives that can be used to anchor the above mentioned research questions. Some prominent ones are the resource based view of the firm (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996; Wernefelt, 1984) and the knowledge based view of the firm (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). The resource based view of the firm focuses on resources as the key to competitive advantage and superior business performance (Barney, 1991). The knowledge based view of the firm extends the resource based view of the firm and assumes that knowledge is the primary resource (Grant, 1996a). The knowledge based view of the firm argues that knowledge is required in every organizational function and facilitates superior value creation (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994). However, resources or knowledge by themselves are not sufficient to attain competitive advantage (Collis, 1994; Grant, 1996b; Ulrich and Lake, 1991). The manner in which organizations utilize these resources determines their chances of gaining a sustainable competitive advantage (Grant, 1996b). This ability of an organization to utilize its resources to develop and sustain strong brands is labeled as organizational capability.

1.3.5. Definition of Organizational Capability

While several definitions of organizational capabilities exist in literature (Collis, 1994; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; Grant, 1996b, Nelson and Winter, 1982, Winter, 1993), one commonality is anchored in the routines or processes perspective. Borrowing from Grant (1996b), this dissertation defines an *organizational capability* as a “firm’s ability to perform repeatedly a productive task which relates either directly or indirectly to a firm’s capacity for creating value through effecting the transformation of inputs into outputs” (p. 377). This definition summarizes the essence of a capability as comprising of repetitive activities (or routines), and hence is chosen as a foundation for the dissertation. Organizational capability theory holds that developing a distinctive capability is key to gaining a sustainable competitive advantage, and the main purpose of an organizational capability is to enhance the value creation process of an organization (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996a; Ulrich and Lake, 1991).

1.3.6. Components of Organizational Capabilities

Literature suggests that an organizational capability results from a combination of three components (Day, 1994; Day, 2000; Grant, 1996b; Nelson and Winter, 1982): resources (Grant 1996b, Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008); direction, values, managerial preferences, policies and procedures (Day, 1990, 1994; Grant, 1996b; Leonard-Barton, 1982; Ulrich and Lake, 1991); and routines or processes (Eisenhardt and Santos, 2002; Winter, 2003). The first component includes the *resources* around which routines and processes are developed within an organization. The organizational capability literature considers knowledge to be the primary resource, since it is a representation of underlying resources in an organization (Grant, 1996a, 1996b; Winter, 2003). The second component, which includes direction, value, managerial preferences, policies and procedures is viewed as a collective representation of the *organizational culture* (Deshpande and Webster, 1989; Deshpande et al., 1993). The last and most important component comprises of the *routines* or *processes* that facilitate the value creation. Although researchers use various labels to describe the components of organizational capability, they can be categorized in the *three* components mentioned above. Each of these components are briefly discussed.

1.3.6.1. Knowledge as a Representation of Underlying Resources

Resources are defined as "stocks of available factors that are owned or controlled by the firm" (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993, p.35). Resources may be tangible (financial or physical assets) and intangible (intellectual capital) (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993; Grant, 1991). Most researchers agree that *knowledge* acts as the primary resource around which capabilities are developed (see Collis, 1994; Day, 1994; Grant, 1996b; Nelson and Winter, 1982; Ulrich and Lake, 1991). This view is consistent with the knowledge-based view (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995), which considers organizations to be bodies of knowledge about resources, circumstances, and other factors such as causal mechanisms, attitudes, policies and objectives (Grant 1996b; Spender, 1996). Knowledge is defined as "justified true belief" (Nonaka, 1994, p.15). Knowledge can be used to represent all the resources in an organization that is used for creating value (Grant, 1996a, 1996b). Both knowledge-based view (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994;

Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995) and service-dominant logic (Merz et al., 2009; Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2008) consider knowledge to be the only *operant*[1] resource in an organization.

Although there are several discussions on how knowledge in organizations can be measured, one comprehensive measure of knowledge in organizations is intellectual capital (IC) (Bontis, 1998, 1999; Edvinsson and Malone, 1997; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005; Stewart, 1997). Subramaniam and Youndt (2004) define IC as the "sum of all knowledge firms utilize for competitive advantage" (p. 451). IC is a multifaceted construct comprised of three dimensions: Structural Capital (SC), the knowledge embedded in the organization and its systems; Human Capital (HC), the knowledge embedded in people; and Relational Capital (RC), the knowledge embedded in customers and other relationships external to the organization[1] (Guthrie et al., 2012; Stewart, 1997). Since value creation in an organization primarily involves the use of knowledge, IC can be considered to be the representation of underlying resources needed to develop marketing-capabilities (Cui et al., 2014; Griffith and Lusch, 2007; Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2008). IC is an essential component to the success of brands in organizations.

Brands are primarily used by organizations to extract higher rents from stakeholders through superior value creation (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Merz et al., 2009). Brands aim to create and fulfill stakeholder needs (Merz et al., 2009). For this purpose, brands need to have knowledge about their stakeholders, knowledge about the organization's resources and how these can be applied to create value for stakeholders (Blattberg and Deighton, 1996; Kapferer, 1992;

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[1] Resources are categorized into operand and operant resources (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Operand resources are resources on which act is performed to produce benefit. Operant resources are ones who are capable of causing benefits by acting on other resources. Operant resources are much more important in organizations (Vargo and Lusch, 2004) as they are idiosyncratic and intangible in nature.

Keller, 1993; Merz et al., 2009). According to Cui et al. (2014), a brand's essence and core attributions can be identified using the knowledge embedded in organizations. This knowledge allows firms to better develop relationships with stakeholders. Keller (1993, 1998) also identifies brands as the outcome of the application of an organization's knowledge. Thus, brands are knowledge based resources (Merz et al., 2009; Keller and Lehmann, 2006). As such, brand management capability consists of processes that can integrate relevant organizational knowledge to create and enhance value for all stakeholders. Considering that IC is a representation of all knowledge in an organization, IC is viewed as the representation of all resources required to build a brand management capability. Specifically, IC represents the human, organizational and relational capitals needed to develop brand management capability.

1.3.6.2. Organizational Culture

An organization capability requires direction, motivated employees, managerial preferences, values, policies and procedures, which are said to represent the organizational culture (Collis and Montgomery, 1995; Day, 2000). Organizational culture is defined as "a pattern of shared values and beliefs that helps individuals understand organizational functioning and thus provide them norms for behavior in the organization" (Deshpande and Webster, 1989, p. 4), and answers the question "why things happen the way they do" (Deshpande et al. 1993, p.24). Organizational culture is represented in the direction, value, managerial preferences, policies and procedures that are measured using organizational attributes, leadership styles, bonding mechanisms and strategic emphases[2] (Deshpande et al., 1993). Organizational culture is a collective phenomenon and provides the guidelines for an organization to carry its business (Deshpande and Webster, 1989). Specifically, organizational culture determines the importance

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[2] These dimensions are further elaborated in Chapter 2.

that is given to particular aspects of an organization's functioning to improve business performance (Day, 1994). It also provides the environment in which a capability's processes are developed and managed to maximize the value creation process (Day, 1994; Grant, 1996b). In summary, organizational culture captures the factors that facilitate the creation of routines or processes which form the core of an organizational capability. Therefore, the author argues that organizational culture forms the second component needed to develop brand management capability. The following discussion provides an overview of routines and processes.

1.3.6.3. Routines and Processes

Finally, routines and processes form the heart of any organizational capability (Winter, 2003). *Routines* are defined as "repetitive, recognizable patterns of interdependent actions, carried out by multiple actors" (Feldman and Pentland, 2003, p. 95). Examples of routines include hiring, quality control routines, knowledge transfer and procedural knowledge in organizations. Processes are a collection of routines that refer to how things are done in an organization (Teece et al., 1997). Examples include market information process and pricing process. Finally, systems are a collection of processes. Examples include the lean manufacturing system and the brand management system. This dissertation considers the two identified processes, i.e., internal branding and strategic brand management, along with the identified market information processes, as focal processes for developing brand management capability.

1.3.7. Brand Management Capability

Consistent with the organizational capability literature (Collis, 1994; Grant, 1996b, Nelson and Winter, 1982; Ulrich and Lake, 1991; Winter, 2003), this dissertation conceptualizes brand management capability as a combination of resources, organizational culture and processes. Based on the above discussion, brand management capability is seen as a combination of intellectual capital, organizational culture, and processes (strategic brand management, internal branding and market information processes). The following section discusses the research questions and goals.

1.4. Research Questions and Goals

Several researchers have tried to explain the components of brand management capability (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Cui et al., 2014, Lee et al., 2008; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Various perspectives such as organizational capability theory (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013), market orientation (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990; Urde, 1994, 1999), relationship marketing (Fournier, 1998; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995), resource advantage theory (Hunt and Morgan, 1995, 1996), and service dominant logic (Merz et al., 2009; Vargo and Lusch 2004, 2008) have been used to explain the functioning and components of brand management capability. However, there is a lack of clarity on the resources, organizational culture, and routines or processes that constitute brand management capability. Previous studies have focused primarily on identifying one aspect of brand management capability (Cui et al., 2014; Urde et al., 1999; Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010), and have not focused on conceptualizing the brand management capability in a comprehensive manner. Specifically, the extant literature does not emphasize on the resources and the organizational culture that are essential for brand management capability (Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). Some of the above mentioned perspectives are theories, while others are frameworks. Despite the varied perspectives that are used in the literature, only the organizational capability theory provides means to comprehensively conceptualize the dimensions of brand management capability. This dissertation applies the organizational capability perspective (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; Grant, 1996a, 1996b, Teece et al., 1997) to the brand management function and addresses the following research question:

1) What are the components of brand management capability?

Extant literature also discusses the role of organizational capabilities being associated with firm performance (Collis, 1994; Grant, 1996b; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Teece et al., 1997). In this context, brand performance is considered to be a more appropriate outcome measure. As brands represent both the tangible and intangible value to stakeholders, it makes sense to capture both these value dimensions in the outcome measure (Cui et al., 2014; O'Cass and Ngo, 2007). Brand performance is a more complex measure than firm performance, and looks at the ability of the brands to achieve sales and market share objectives, along with achieving the brand equity (brand image and brand awareness) objectives (Cui et al., 2014; O'Cass and Ngo, 2007). Ideally, the components of brand management capability should be associated with brand performance (Cui et al., 2014). To examine this association, the second research question is proposed:

2) What is the association between the components of brand management capability and brand performance?

This dissertation responds to recent calls in marketing to address the development of marketing-based capabilities and establish their influence on performance (Day, 2014; Homburg et al., 2015; Kozlenkova et al., 2014). This dissertation also seeks to conceptualize the brand management capability that will enable firms to create, sustain and replicate strong brands in a dynamic brand meaning environment (Iglesias et al., 2013; Ind et al., 2012; Ind and Coates, 2013; Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013). The following section discusses the overview of the research design.

1.5. Overview of the Research Design

The objectives of this dissertation are to identify the components of brand management capability and their effect on brand performance across different industries and contexts. In other words, this dissertation seeks generalizability of its findings. Thus, a survey design approach is used to examine the aforementioned relationships. To start with, in-depth interviews are carried out by interviewing brand managers and senior level managers in organizations for gaining a deeper insight into brand management capability. The second stage involves pre-testing the key informant survey among a small group of individuals responsible for managing brands. The pretest data is collected using Qualtrics online panel. After assessing the reliability and validity of scales based, the main survey is also collected through Qualtrics online panel. Partial Least Squares based Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) is used for data analysis.

1.6. Academic and Managerial Implications

This dissertation adds to the existing literature on brands and brand management by identifying the components of brand management capability. While a lot of the academic research has been directed towards brands and brand equity, the need to develop literature on brand management as an organizational capability is important because of the changing marketplace. This dissertation provides the first step towards identifying the components of brand management capability needed for creating and sustaining strong brands. From a managerial perspective, the development of brand management capability is idiosyncratic to firms and can lead to competitive advantage and superior financial performance (Barney, 1991). Finally, this dissertation's results would assist in reinforcing the fact that marketing-based capabilities contribute to business performance.

1.7. Outline of Dissertation

To address the proposed research questions, this dissertation uses the structure provided by Perry (1998). The dissertation is organized in five chapters. First, an introduction of the dissertation and research goals are presented. The second chapter discusses the extant literature regarding brand management and organizational capability and provides the research model and hypotheses. The third and fourth chapters discuss the methodology and analyses respectively. Finally, the last section discusses the results and the implications.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Overview

This chapter provides a review of the theoretical background and relevant literature leading to the development of research hypotheses. It is divided in three parts. First, a brief review of the extant research on brand management is provided. This is followed by a review of the literature on organizational capability and its components is presented. The final section focuses on developing the conceptual framework and hypotheses.

2.2. Brand Management

2.2.1. Definition and Evolution of Brand Management

Brand management can be defined as all the processes involved in developing, sustaining and improving brand performances (Keller, 1998). Brand management traces its origins to the Prcotor & Gamble in the 1930s (Low and Fullerton, 1994). Throughout history it has seen several ups and downs, and is recognized today as one of the most critical functions of an organization (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Merz et al., 2009; Morgan et al., 2009). The evolution of brand management as a strategic function is parallel to the evolution of brands as strategic resources[3]. Table 1 presents the evolution of brands and brand management over a period of time.

[3] Some researchers consider brands as assets (Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993), while others consider brands as resources (Merz et al., 2009; Hunt and Morgan, 1995, 1996). Both labels have a commonality – they can used to generate value. An asset is anything that can be used to produce value, and resources are assets that are available to a firm for creating value (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993). This dissertation considers brands as *resources*.

Table 1: Evolution of Brands and Brand Management

Timeline and Relevant Literature	Fundamental Ideas for	
	Brands	***Brand Management***
1900–1930s: Individual Goods-Focus Brand Era (Copeland, 1923; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Merz et al., 2009)	Brands used primarily as identifiers.	Brand management as an administrative function with output orientation.
1930s–1990s: Value –Focus Brand Era (Brown, 1950; Low and Fullerton, 1994; Park et al., 1986)	Brands as functional and symbolic images: To solve utilitarian and other self-expressive, hedonic needs.	Brand management responsible for brand profits, with output orientation.
1990s-2000: Relationship-Focus Brand Era (Aaker, 1992, 1997; Berthon et al., 1999; De Chernatony, 1999; Fournier, 1998; Kapferer, 1992; Keller, 1993)	Brands considered as knowledge about customers and as a means to build relationships with customers. Brand value is co-created by customers. Brands being recognized as strategic resources.	Brand management viewed as a set of processes for creating relationships with customers. Focus is on sustaining brand performances over the long term. Internal branding and strategic brand management processes considered important to create and manage brands. Brand management being viewed as a strategic function.
2000 – Present: Stakeholder-Focus Brand Era (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; McAlexander et al., 2002; Morgan et al., 2009; Iglesias et al., 2013; Ind et al.,2013; Ind and Coates, 2013; Payne et al., 2009; Vallaster and von Wallpach, 2013)	Brands used to build relationships with *all stakeholders* for extracting higher rents.	Movement towards developing brand management capability within organizations.

Ideas adopted from Merz et al. (2009); Low and Fullerton (1994); Louro and Cunha (2001)

As seen on Table 1, brand management has evolved from a goods-focus (Copeland, 1923), to a value-focus that included functional and symbolic value (Park et al., 1986), then to a relationship-focus that included organizations' relationships with customers (Aaker, 1992; Kapferer, 1992; Keller, 1993a), to, finally, a stakeholder-focus that encompasses the organization's relationships with all stakeholders (Iglesias et al., 2013; Ind and Coates, 2013; Ind et al., 2012; Merz et al. 2009). The increasing importance of brands and brand management can be attributed to the higher impact of brands on business performance (Morgan et al., 2009). With the development of brands in the current stakeholder-focus era (Merz et al., 2009), the brand management function's scope has broadened to fulfill the expectations of all stakeholders.

Organizations have thus started focusing on developing a brand management capability (Day, 2000; Lee et al., 2008; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008).

In summary, brand management is one of the most important functions in an organization and its scope includes fulfilling the expectations of all stakeholders. With brands being recognized as strategic resources, developing a brand management capability has become critical. The next logical step is to identify the brand management processes.

2.3. Contemporary Perspective on Brand Management

Brand management in the last decade has continued to evolve into a strategic function given the rising importance of brands. There is recognition that brand management is influenced by several external factors such as governmental and technological forces, suppliers, distributors and consumers (Berthon et al., 1999; Morgan et al., 2009; Shocker et al., 1994). A brief discussion on the extant processes that are a part of the brand management function is provided in the following sections.

2.3.1. Internally-Focused Brand Management Processes

There are two core *internally-focused* brand management processes that are considered essential for brand management (Lee et al., 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). These internally-focused processes are focused on the internal operations of an organization. These two processes are *internal branding* and *strategic brand management*. There are many other processes that the brand management function uses (such as research and development and sales), but these two processes form the core of brand management. Internal branding aims at aligning employees to work towards building a brand by improving their commitment and efficiency (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007, 2011). Strategic brand management process ensures the medium to long term sustenance of brand performances (Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993; Lodish and Mela, 2007; Urde, 1994).

2.3.1.1. Internal Branding Process

Internal branding is defined as an internal organizational processes aimed at internalizing the importance of brands and educating employees to support brands in a consistent manner (De Chernatony and Cottom, 2009; Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007; Vallaster and De Chernatony, 2005). It includes activities and/or training and educating employees about the brand values. It is an extension of the internal marketing approach (Vallaster and De Chernatony, 2005) where employees do not have a transactional relationship with brands but rather symbolic ties with them. Internal branding is not concerned with the environmental forces, but rather focused on getting employees to work as a unit to provide a consistent brand experience.

The primary purpose of internal branding is to align employees with a brand, so that the brand building process is efficient (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Internal branding also facilitates communication between the top management and brand teams, aiding in successful execution of brand building activities. Further, internal branding also helps an organization in providing a consistent value output to stakeholders, bonds employees with brands (symbolic value), and finally, assists in creating higher value (De Chernatony and Riley, 1999; Merz et al., 2009; Mitchell, 2002). Vallaster and De Chernatony (2005) also argue that internal branding could help employees become *brand ambassadors*. Often times, internal branding processes are seen as more important in the case of services (De Chernatony and Cottom, 2009). However, internal branding is important irrespective of the category. Brand value is co-created by stakeholders and perceptions may be created every time stakeholders and employees interact (Merz et al., 2009).

In summary, internal branding helps an organization to 1) successfully implement brand building activities by aligning employees with the brand values and brand promise, 2) ensure the efficiency of brand building activities, 3) maintain the consistency of output, and 4) facilitate the long term maintenance of brands. Internal branding is an essential component of brand management.

2.3.1.2. Strategic Brand Management Process

Ever since the recognition of brands as important resources (from 1990s – see Table 1), several authors (Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Morgan and Rego, 2009; Rust et al., 2004) have called for developing brands that are sustainable in the long-term. Strategic brand management is the process that supports this goal. Strategic brand management can be defined as all the activities directed towards the medium to long-term maintenance of a brand. It refers to the time-orientation for managing brands (Keller, 1993; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Strategic brand management represents an organization's willingness to forego immediate benefits for higher long-term benefits.

Some of the basic elements of strategic brand management are: a) developing marketing and branding strategies that are congruent with a brand's image, b) planning of brand management over medium to long-term periods, 3) continuously evaluating a brand's image and value in the market, and 4) allocating sufficient resources to manage a brand (Keller, 2003; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) describe four key challenges for managing brands in the long term: 1) creating and reinforcing a brand identity (what a brand stands for), 2) structuring a brand portfolio (synergies across brands), 3) developing coordinated marketing actions, and 4) organizing the infrastructure and processes to support brand management. Aaker and Joachimsthaler's fourth key challenge (organizing infrastructure and processes to support brand management) can be considered more of a support process to facilitate strategic brand management. Thus, this dissertation does not consider this key challenge to be a part of strategic brand management.

The importance of the strategic brand management process is highlighted in the fact that brands are often developed for the long term, but managed over the short-term (Lodish and Mela, 2007). This leads to several myopic decisions by the organization, which ultimately affect a brand's value and image in the market (Lodish and Mela, 2007). Few organizations are able to develop a strategic brand management process.

In summary, the author considers strategic brand management to be coordinated internal organizational processes directed at maintaining the image and value of a given brand. This may include investments, building brand identity, establishing synergies in the brand portfolio, and determining a positioning strategy and marketing campaigns. Strategic brand management processes assist the development of brand strategies and tactics keeping in mind their long term effects on a brand. The chances of creating, sustaining and enhancing brand performances are difficult without the presence of strategic brand management processes.

2.3.2. Externally-Focused Brand Management Processes

Although strategic brand management monitors the evolution of brand image and value, it cannot predict by itself future environment trends or take proactive action. Several researchers argue that processes that can acquire, distribute, and interpret external information are essential for brand management (Keller, 2003; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Merz et al., 2009; Rust et al., 2004; Shocker et al., 1994). To sustain brand performance, brand managers need to adapt to environmental changes (Shocker et al., 1994). Although researchers explain the need for processes that can facilitate the collection and utilization of market information, there has been no effort to identify such processes as a component of brand management. Thus, this dissertation identifies *market information processes* as the third essential component of brand management, directed towards collecting and utilizing market information.

2.3.2.1. Definition and Overview of Market Information Processes

There are several processes for capturing and utilizing market information. Market orientation (Kohli and Jaworksi, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990) and absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990) are two prominent capabilities that utilize market information processes. Although market orientation (Jaworksi and Kohli, 1993; Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990) and absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990) include processes that collect and utilize external information, this dissertation focuses on market information processes – since they are specifically *processes*. Market orientation and absorptive capacity are considered as organizational capabilities (Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). However, both market orientation and absorptive capacity have limitations in the information collection processes, and thus are not considered as a component of brand management capability. Market orientation also restricts the source of knowledge from customers and competitors (Slater and Narver, 1994), whereas the market information processes scope covers stakeholder information.

Market information is defined as “data concerned with a firm’s current and potential external stakeholders” (Moorman, 1995, p.319). Information use is seen as multi-dimensional construct consisting of information acquisition, distribution, interpretation, and memory (Deshpande and Zaltman, 1982; Deshpande, 1982; Sinkula, 1994). This dissertation defines market information processes as a set of processes that collect, conceptualize and utilize market or brand related information (Moorman, 1995; Sinkula, 1994).

2.3.2.2. Dimensions of Market Information Processes

Moorman (1995) categorizes market information processes into four sub-processes: 1) information acquisition, 2) information transmission, 3) conceptual utilization, and 4) instrument utilization. These four sub-processes cover the entire domain of capturing and utilizing information. A brief overview of each sub-process is discussed.

2.3.2.2.1. Information Acquisition Processes

Information acquisition processes are defined as processes through which knowledge from all stakeholders is obtained (Moorman, 1995; Sinkula, 1994). Information acquisition is often termed as intelligence generation (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990) or information search (Weiss and Heide, 1993). The main purpose of these processes is to make external information available to the organization.

2.3.2.2.2. Information Transmission Processes

Information transmission processes are defined as the manner in which information is disseminated among relevant users in an organization (Dickson, 1992; Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Moorman, 1995). Policies, training sessions, and research presentations are examples of information transmission processes. The main objective of these sets of processes is to ensure that the information reaches key brand decision-makers.

2.3.2.2.3. Conceptual Utilization Processes

Conceptual utilization processes are defined as processes directed towards utilizing information *indirectly* in strategy-related actions (Menon and Varadarajan, 1992). They involve the manner in which organizations process information and their commitment to it (Moorman, 1995). Information processing is defined as the process through which meaning is attached to information (Moorman, 1995), while information commitment is seen as the extent to which an organization recognizes the value of information agents and products (Menon and Varadarajan, 1992). This process is also termed as the conversion of market intelligence (Dickson, 1992). Information processing involves a formal structure for organizing and interpreting information, while information commitment is realized when information reports are provided to top management (Dickson, 1992; Moorman, 1995).

2.3.2.2.4. Instrument Utilization Processes

Instrument utilization processes are defined as the processes used by organizations for directly applying market information to influence marketing strategy (in this case brand strategy) related actions (Moorman, 1995). There are three sub-processes which include *decision-making*, *implementing* and *evaluating* marketing/branding decisions. Decision-making processes involve the integration of information and selection of appropriate strategies, the implementation processes that involve utilizing strategies to achieve objectives, and the evaluation processes that involve determining the degree to which objectives have been met (Bettman et al., 1991; Moorman, 1995).

In summary, market information processes represent the processes that are needed to capture market information and utilize it. Brands need to adapt to the external environment, and market information processes facilitate that learning.

From the above discussion it can be summarized that brand management in the current era includes *three* sets of processes that are needed to create and maintain brand performance. Two processes, internal branding and strategic brand management, are identified from extant literature (Aaker, 1992; De Chernatony and Riley, 2000; Keller, 2003; Santos-Vijande et al, 2013). Both internal branding and strategic brand management are focused on internal processes that can facilitate the creation and maintenance of brands. The author argues that market information processes (Moorman, 1995; Sinkula, 1994) form the third set of processes that constitute brand management. Market information processes cover the important aspect of gathering market and stakeholder information needed for brands to succeed. However, in order to develop a strong set of processes for creating and sustaining brand performances, firms need to develop *brand management capability.*

2.4. Organizational Capability Perspective

2.4.1. Definition and Overview of Organizational Capability

As discussed, this dissertation defines an organizational capability as a "firm's ability to perform repeatedly a productive task which relates either directly or indirectly to a firm's capacity for creating value through effecting the transformation of inputs into outputs" (Grant, 1996b, p. 377). Organizational capability results from the combination of *resources*, *organizational culture* and *routines* (Grant, 1996b, Day, 2000; Nelson and Winter, 1982). Routines form the core of a capability, and organizational culture, facilitate the development and functioning of these routines. Routines are developed in order to maximize value from a given set of resources. For example, market orientation is considered to be an organizational capability (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008) which uses information from customers and competitors as the primary resource. Organizational culture, operationalized as organizational structure (decentralization) and values (risk-taking, connectedness), supports the market orientation processes – intelligence generation, dissemination and responsiveness. These processes help an organization utilize market information effectively to maximize the value proposition of their offerings (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Kohli and Jaworski, 1990).

The development of organizational capability stems from the resource and knowledge-based view of the firm. Resources are considered to be a means to provide competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Wernefelt, 1984). The manner in which firms utilize resources to generate value determines their competitive advantage (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993; Collis, 1994; Grant, 1996b). Since organizational capability enables an organization to effectively utilize these resources, it becomes essential for an organization to achieve sustainable competitive advantage (Collis, 1994; Grant 1996b; Ulrich and Lake, 1991). The chances of gaining a competitive advantage increase when a capability is more distinctive (the degree to which a capability is unique to a firm) (Collis, 1994; Day, 1994; Grant, 1996b; Winter, 2003).

In summary, organizational capabilities are essential for an organization to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage by enhancing the processes through which firms can maximize value. Developing organizational capabilities enhances the chance of a firm gaining a sustainable competitive advantage, thereby improving its overall business performance. The following section provides a brief overview of the three components of organizational capabilities.

2.5. The Three Components of Organizational Capabilities

2.5.1. Resources

As discussed, resources are defined as "stocks of available factors that are owned or controlled by the firm" (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993, p.35). Resources can be tangible or intangible. Resources form the base around which processes are centered. All capabilities are developed with the intention of maximizing value creation through utilizing a resource (Eisenhardt and Santos, 2002; Grant, 1996a; Grant, 1996b; Winter, 2003). This dissertation focuses on one resource around which brand management processes are centered on - *knowledge*.

2.5.1.1. Knowledge as a Representation of Underlying Resources

Knowledge is defined as a "justified true belief" (Nonaka, 1994, p.15). Knowledge is a different concept from information. Information is a commodity capable of producing knowledge (Nonaka, 1994), while knowledge is an information-based belief (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994).

Information is something that a person/organization receives, while belief that is generated based on this information is knowledge. Knowledge includes information that is internal (such as marketing, operations and finance) and external (such as consumers, customers, competitors, and channel members) to the firm.

Knowledge is an intangible resource. There are two types of organizational knowledge – tacit and explicit (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994). Tacit knowledge is generally seen as *know-how*, while explicit knowledge is seen as *knowing about* (Grant, 1996a). The difference between these two types of knowledge lies in their transferability. Tacit knowledge is revealed through application and is difficult to articulate (Eisenhardt and Santos, 2002), while explicit knowledge is revealed through communication (Grant, 1996a). Although both tacit and explicit knowledge are important for a firm, tacit knowledge is given higher importance since it is difficult to imitate and relatively immobile (Eisenhardt and Santos, 2002; Grant, 1996a; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2000). Leadership and organizational culture are some of the examples of tacit knowledge. Information, on the other hand, has been traditionally viewed as an explicit knowledge. Information is freely available, while the manner in which a manager draws insights from it is tacit.

The importance of knowledge as a resource originates from the belief that knowledge is essential in every business activity including production and sales (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994). The knowledge-based view of the firm considers organizations to be bodies of knowledge about resources, circumstances, and other factors such as causal mechanisms, attitudes, policies and objectives (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Spender, 1996). Therefore, organizational knowledge, as a whole, becomes the representation of all other resources in an organization. Knowledge specific to a firm can be valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable

(Grant, 1996a; Nonaka, 1994). This provides organizations an incentive to build their competitive advantage using knowledge as a resource. The primary task of firms is to maximize value, and knowledge facilitates an organization to maximize value creation (Grant, 1996a).

In brief, knowledge can be seen as an intangible resource that includes information that is both internal and external to an organization. Organizational knowledge, as a whole, also represents all the resources available to an organization (Grant, 1996a). Knowledge (both tacit and explicit) is capable of providing an organization with a basis for competitive advantage. The following section discusses how knowledge is related to performing brand management functions effectively.

2.5.1.2. Link between Brand Management and Knowledge

From Table 1, it is evident that brands are no longer seen solely as tangible resources. Brands represent how well an organization understands and fulfills the expectations of stakeholders (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Merz et al., 2009). In other words, brands are *knowledge-based* resources. Thus, the brand management function is about capturing and utilizing knowledge to maximize value for stakeholders (Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). In summary, the three processes discussed in the previous sections are centered on one resource – knowledge – both internal and external to the organization. To operationalize organizational knowledge as a whole, the author looks at intellectual capital (IC) (Bontis, 1998; Edvisson and Malone, 1997; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Stewart, 1997).

2.5.1.3. Intellectual Capital as the Resource for Brand Management Capability

Since brands focus on creating and fulfilling expectations or value, IC becomes critical for assisting this value creation process. The importance of IC is highlighted in the fact that it captures the knowledge residing in organizational policies and procedures, the knowledge and skills of employees, and the knowledge embedded in relationships. All these components are essential for an organization to enhance the value-creation and communication process. Cui et al. (2014) further argue that IC allows organizations to identify a brand's essence and core attributes, and communicate these effectively to various stakeholders. As IC represents all the resources needed for the value creation process in an organization (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998), it is the foundational resource around which the brand management capability can be built.

2.5.1.4. Intellectual Capital

2.5.1.4.1. Definition and Overview of Intellectual Capital

As discussed, IC can be defined as the "sum of all knowledge firms utilize for competitive advantage" (Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005, p. 451). IC is a combination of both tacit and explicit knowledge (Grant, 1996a). IC is synonymous with intellectual properties, intellectual assets, or knowledge assets (Bontis, 1998). Stewart (1997) views IC as the knowledge, information, intellectual property, and experience that can be used to create wealth.

IC represents all other resources in an organization (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) further identify that all the economic and producing powers of an organization lie with the intellectual assets. IC provides an organization with the requisite knowledge for carrying out activities that maximize value. IC is comprised of three dimensions: Structural Capital (SC), the knowledge embedded in the organization and its systems); Human Capital (HC), the knowledge embedded in people; and Relational Capital (RC), the knowledge embedded in customers and other relationships external to the organization (Guthrie et al., 2012; Stewart, 1997).

2.5.1.4.2. Components of Intellectual Capital

2.5.1.4.2.1. Structural Capital

SC is also called as organizational capital by some authors (Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005; Youndt et al., 2004). SC is the *tacit* knowledge that exists within an organization and belongs to the organization as a whole (unlike HC or RC). Unlike HC and RC, SC is immobile (Bontis, 1998). Therefore, it is often considered to be the most important capital of the three (Bontis, 1998; Stewart, 1997). Infrastructure, corporate governance, patents, manuals and organizational process are some of the elements composing SC (Bontis, 1998; Edvinsson and Sullivan, 1996; Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005).

SC facilitates the employees to generate and maintain a repository of knowledge within an organization. Lack of optimum SC can stifle the employees knowledge creation activities. Supportive organizational culture facilitates strong SC creation (Bontis, 1999), since employees tend to perform better when they are motivated. As a result of its tacitness, SC is difficult to measure (Bontis, 1998, 1999). Without SC, the only capital an organization would have is HC.

In summary, SC is the most important capital for an organization as a result of its immobility. SC is tacit in nature and belongs to the organization as a whole, which makes it difficult to imitate. SC also reduces dependence on HC.

2.5.1.4.2.2. Human Capital

HC refers to the knowledge embedded in employees within an organization (individual-level tacit knowledge) (Bontis, 1998; Griffith and Lusch, 2007; Stewart, 1997). Individual’s skills, experience, and attitudes constitute HC. HC represents the inception stage of knowledge aggregation within an organization. HC is the source of innovation, strategic processes and the overall development of knowledge within an organization. HC represents both the tacit and explicit knowledge present in individuals within an organization.

Recently, marketing researchers have identified ways to convert HC into SC (Griffith and Lusch, 2007). HC is mobile, and therefore transferable (Bontis, 1998). This is one of the problems with the brand management function. Brand managers are seen as the source of knowledge about brands and when they leave an organization their knowledge is lost (Cui et al., 2014). The conversion of HC into SC is a very difficult process (Bontis, 1999; Griffith and Lusch, 2007).

In summary, HC represents the talent pool within an organization. It is the knowledge within individuals which is both tacit and explicit. HC is extremely important for an organization to grow. However, HC is mobile (especially in the case of brand management) and effort should be directed towards codifying HC. Facilitating the development of IC within an organization is also dependent on the kind of relationships that the individuals within an organization have with their stakeholders. This relates to RC.

2.5.1.4.2.3. Relational Capital

RC represents the extent of relationship an organization and its employees have with the stakeholders. It is an external source of information that can be tapped in to develop a strong knowledge base. Since it is external to the organizational domain, it is the most difficult to build (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). RC is also known as customer capital (Bontis, 1998; Bontis, 1999; Bontis et al., 2000) or social capital (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005; Youndt et al., 2004).

RC represents the potential an organization has, based on its relationships (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Although several marketing concepts have been used to identify RC (Bontis, 1998; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998), the concept of relationship marketing is the closest (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995). Strong relationships between a firm and its stakeholders positively influence business performance (Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

In summary, RC is the most difficult capital to build since it is external to the organization. However, it is extremely important – it allows firms to access information about stakeholders. Additionally, RC also represents the stakeholder preference for an organization or brand.

2.5.2. Organizational Culture

Organizational culture has been defined in several ways in the literature. Barney (1986) considers organizational culture to be a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions and symbols that dictate the way in which a firm conducts its business. This dissertation defines organizational culture as a shared pattern of beliefs and values that influence behavioral norms (Deshpande and Webster, 1989). This definition of organizational culture identifies organizational culture as a collective phenomenon. Organizational culture is embedded in every aspect of an organization's functioning including the routines, communication (internal and external to the organization), and individual behavior (Barney, 1986; Deshpande and Webster, 1989). In short, *organizational culture is a representation of the direction, managerial preferences, policies and procedures in an organization* (Deshpande and Webster, 1989; Deshpande et al., 1993).

The broad conceptualization of organizational culture blurs the distinctions between organizational culture, structure and strategy (Barney, 1986). Hence, several typologies for measuring organizational culture exist. It is important to note that measuring organizational culture comprehensively is an arduous task (Barney, 1986; Deshpande and Webster, 1989). Despite the confusion regarding organizational culture and its conceptualization, organizational culture is designed to enhance business performance (Barney, 1986; Schein, 1984). Organizational culture is seen as “why things happen in a particular way”. Organizational culture supports the creation of routines and processes around which a capability is built.

In short, organizational culture is designed to facilitate the creation of routines and processes that can be used for generating value. Organizational culture is a collective phenomenon and is often idiosyncratic to organizations. Organizational culture forms the second (of three) components of an organizational capability.

2.5.2.1. Types of Organizational Culture

This dissertation uses Deshpande et al.’s (1993) typology for measuring organizational culture. This specific typology is considered since the organizational cultural types are focused on managerial information processing and view organizations as knowledge systems (Deshpande et al., 1993) which are relevant to the formation of capabilities (Teece et al., 1997). Deshpande et al.’s (1993) organizational cultural types are based on two perspectives: organizational behavior perspective (Van de Ven, 1976) and transaction cost or economic perspective (Williamson, 1975). This organization cultural typology also examines the level of flexibility of processes or routines which ultimately influence the creation of dynamic capabilities in an organization (Teece et al., 1997; Teece, 2007). The organizational culture types are labeled as clan, hierarchy, adhocracy and market (Deshpande et al, 1993; Deshpande and Farley, 2004). It is important to note here that these culture types are not mutually exclusive (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). These culture types represent the dominant style present in organizations. For example, Japanese companies have a high levels of clan culture along with the high levels of market culture.

2.5.2.1.1. Clan

The dominant attributes of clan culture include cohesiveness, teamwork and tradition, and its emphasis is on internal maintenance. The leadership style is of a facilitator (Deshpande et al., 1993; Ouchi, 1980). One short-coming of clan culture is that it is focused on the internal maintenance of an organization and may not focus on market needs (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). This may affect the development of capabilities that require processes to acquire and utilize external information. However, clan culture emphasizes the development of processes within an organization by cultivating an ideal environment. For example, most Japanese companies, like Toyota and Mitsubishi, have managed to developed organizational capabilities under a clan culture.

2.5.2.1.2. Hierarchy

The main characteristics of hierarchy culture are order and uniformity. The emphasis is on stability and smooth operations. Again, hierarchy culture is focused on the internal operations of an organization and may not focus too much on market needs (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). The leadership style is that of a coordinator. Similar to clan culture, hierarchy culture also facilitates the development of routines and processes.

2.5.2.1.3. Adhocracy

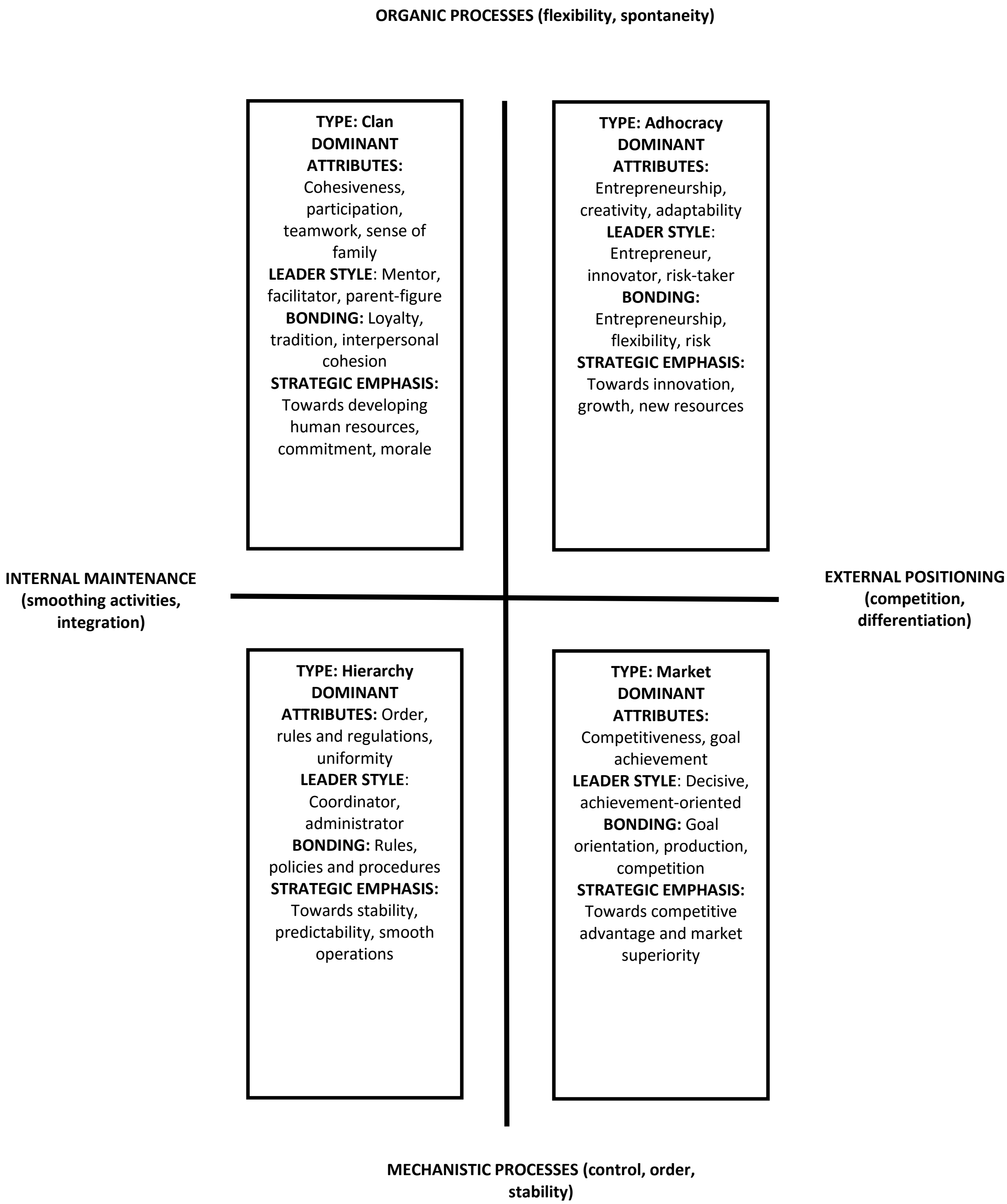
Adhocracy culture's attributes include entrepreneurship, creativity and adaptability. There is a high level of risk emphasis and flexibility. The strategic emphasis is towards innovation, growth and identifying new resources. Adhocracy culture is more focused towards market needs, and maybe able to develop capabilities that are more market-oriented. For example, Jaworski and Kohli (1993) find that adhocracy traits such as risk taking facilitate the development of a market orientation. However, one drawback of adhocracy culture is that there might be too many changes in the organization, which may impede the development of processes.

2.5.2.1.4. Market

Market culture also embodies the values of competitiveness and goal achievement. The leadership style is more decisive and achievement oriented, while emphasis is on creating competitive advantage (Ouchi, 1980). Market culture is focused on achieving market superiority. It can be considered that organizations having market culture are focused on building marketing based capabilities (Day, 2014).

In brief, Deshpande et al.'s (1993) organizational culture typology encompasses the top management values, direction, managerial preferences and policies and procedures which collectively form the second component (out of three) needed for an organizational capability. Each cultural type is distinct and represents the values and beliefs that may be unique to an organization. Finally, this typology encompasses the collective dimension of an organizational culture. Figure 1 (adapted from Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Deshpande et al., 1993; Quinn, 1988) depicts the various culture types.

Figure 1: A Model of Organizational Culture Types[4]



[4] Adapted from Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Deshpande et al., 1993; Quinn, 1988

2.5.2.2. Organizational Culture for Brand Management Capability

The literature does not identify a specific organizational culture type that supports the formation of brand management processes (De Chernatony, 1999; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Although efforts have been made to identify the cultural component of brand management capability (De Chernatony, 2001; Lee et al., 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013; Urde, 1999), organizational culture has not been comprehensively articulated or measured. One of the reasons for this is that the brand management capability concept is still blurred (Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). Therefore, this dissertation considers the organizational typology (put forth by Deshpande et al., 1993) and identifies specific forms of organizational cultures that constitute brand management capability[5].

2.5.3. Routines and Processes

As discussed, *routines* are defined as "repetitive, recognizable patterns of interdependent actions, carried out by multiple actors" (Feldman and Pentland, 2003, p. 95). Routines are patterns of activities centered on utilizing resources to create value (Grant, 1996b). A set of routines constitute a *process* (Grant, 1996a, 1996b). For example, internal branding is a process that may consist of several routines such as group activities, initiation activities and training activities specifically for employees joining a brand. Since processes are a collection of routines, this dissertation focuses on *processes* for brand management capability.

By performing a given set of tasks repeatedly, processes try to achieve stability (Feldman, 2000). Processes, through using routines also act as mechanisms for coordination which does not require the communication of knowledge in *explicit* form. It allows knowledge to remain *tacit*,

[5] The discussion pertaining to organizational culture types that support and impede brand management processes is provided in research model and hypotheses development section.

thereby reducing transferability outside the firm, and enhancing the firm's chances to develop a distinctive capability (Grant, 1996b). For example, Low and Fullerton (1994) found that the brand management function failed in several organizations during the 1950s/60s when they tried to copy the processes from P&G. The tacit aspect of brand management knowledge was difficult for other companies to imitate.

Processes are the core of organizational capabilities since they integrate knowledge to create value. However, processes can act as both impediments and facilitators of knowledge integration (Eisenhardt and Santos, 2002). If processes become rigid (such as established rules and standards) they can impede change. Therefore, a supportive culture becomes extremely important to guide the minor improvements in processes.

In short, routines and processes are the most critical component of capabilities since they integrate knowledge to create value. They also ensure that a firm's knowledge remains tacit, which has the potential to create a distinctive capability. As discussed above, this dissertation identifies processes (which are a set of routines) needed for developing brand management capability.

2.5.3.1. Brand Management Capability Processes

This dissertation considers the three identified processes that are essential for developing brand management capability. Two processes–internal branding and strategic brand management, focused on the internal operations of an organization–are borrowed from extant literature. This dissertation proposes that market information processes are the third set of processes that constitute brand management capability. Market information processes are focused on acquiring and utilizing external information–stakeholder and environment information—that cover the external locus of brand management.

2.6. Brand Management Capability

The author conceptualizes brand management capability by specifying its three components (resource, culture and processes). First, IC is used as the primary resource, since it is a representation of all the resources in an organization. Additionally, brands are considered as an application of a firm's knowledge (Keller, 2003; Merz et al., 2009). It thus becomes necessary for brand management to integrate an organization's knowledge to create value. Second, this dissertation borrows Deshpande et al.'s (1993) cultural typology to identify the culture types that support brand management processes. Third, three brand management processes are identified (internal branding, strategic brand management and market information) around which an organization can build a sustainable competitive advantage. Together, these three components form the brand management capability.

2.7. Model and Hypotheses Development

As described in the previous sections, the theoretical framework for this dissertation is based on the application of the organizational capability perspective to brand management. Brand management capability is considered to be a higher order construct comprising of knowledge-based resource, organizational culture and processes. The outcome measure for this dissertation is considered to be brand performance.

2.7.1. Brand Performance as Outcome Measure

As discussed previously, brand management capability helps develop a competitive advantage by enhancing brand and firm performance (Cui et al., 2014; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). Since this dissertation studies the components of brand management capability, an appropriate outcome measure is brand performance. Brand performance is broader than sales performance since brands also represent intangible aspects to stakeholders that can enhance brand value (Cui et al., 2014). Also, since brands are developed for the long term, sales performances at a point in time would not represent the actual brand performance. Therefore, along with profit and market share measures, this dissertation also measures brand image and awareness as indicators of brand performance (Cui et al., 2014; O'Cass and Ngo, 2007).

The following section discusses the hypotheses development for each of the components.

2.7.2. Intellectual Capital and Brand Performance

As discussed earlier, IC is viewed as representation of all the resources in an organization (comprising of SC, HC and RC), and forms the basis for carrying out the brand management function (Cui et al., 2014). IC is directly linked to the brand management function since the main objective of brands is to create and fulfill expectations for stakeholders (Bontis, 1998; Cui et al., 2014). IC provides the knowledge to managers to take decisions to create, enhance and sustain strong brands. IC, as a result of its tacitness, also provides a firm with a resource that might be difficult for competitors to imitate. Specifically, SC, the knowledge embedded in organizations represents the policies, procedures, manuals, and infrastructure that facilitates the value-creation process. An organization having high levels SC will support the brand managers to optimize the value creation process leading to improved firm performance (Bontis, 1998). Cui et al. (2014) also establish the importance of SC in determining brand performance. HC, the skills embedded in individuals becomes extremely important in the case of brand management. The responsibility of executing brand plans generally rests with few individuals in organizations who possess the required skills and knowledge (Cui et al., 2014; Hankinson, 2012). The individual skills needed to create, communicate, and manage brands is required for improving and/or sustaining brand performance (Cui et al., 2014). As brand management aims to create and fulfill the expectations of all stakeholders, RC, the extent of relationship an organization has with its stakeholders, becomes essential (Bontis, 1998; Cui et al., 2014; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). RC has also been explored in marketing literature using various concepts such as market orientation (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Jaworski and Kohli, 1993) and relationship marketing (Morgan and Hunt, 1994), in the extant literature. Thus, a firm that has high levels of SC, HC and RC will perform better than competitors on account of the superior level of knowledge present in the firm. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H1: Intellectual capital (a) SC, (b) HC, and (c) RC of an organization will be positively associated with brand performance.

2.7.3. Organizational Culture and Brand Performance

Organizational culture is a representation of the direction, managerial preferences, policies, and values that support the development of routines and processes in an organization (Barney, 1986; Day, 1994; Deshpande et al., 1993; Deshpande and Webster, 1989). Organizational culture can be broadly categorized into four types (see literature review): clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). As discussed previously, these culture types are not mutually exclusive and can co-exist in an organization (Deshpande et al., 1993). Over time, there would be the emergence of a dominant culture, but there will be presence of the other culture types (to some extent) (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). Each of these culture types focus on specific aspects of an organization. The focus on these aspects may impede or enhance the brand management capability. Brand management capability is unique in the sense that it needs to balance internal processes for creating and sustaining brands, while adapting to the ever-changing needs of stakeholders (Helfat and Winter, 2011).

Both clan and hierarchy culture types are more focused on the internal operations of the organization, while focusing to a limited extent on the external market conditions (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). Although brand management capability requires consistency of operations, focusing solely on internal operations may be detrimental for brands over the long run (Day, 2014; Merz et al., 2009). Additionally, in an ever-changing environment, where brand competition comes from non-traditional competitors (Varadarajan, 2010), an internal focus of organizations may not be sufficient to influence brand performance. Deshpande et al. (1993) argue that both hierarchy and clan culture types are not conducive for improving business performance using organizational processes, given their emphasis on internal maintenance. Similarly, Moorman (1995) also identifies that clan and hierarchy culture types are not favorable for new product performances. Extending this notion, both clan and hierarchy culture types would not be associated with brand performance, since brand performance is contingent on the meeting the stakeholder needs in the ever-changing environment (Keller and Lehman, 2006).

On the other hand, market and adhocracy cultures are both focused on environmental changes and constantly seek ways to enhance the value-creation process. Market culture seeks to develop a competitive advantage through external orientation, goal achievement, and value efficiency (Deshpande et al., 1993; Deshpande and Farley, 2004). Previous research identifies the positive association between market culture and overall business performance (Deshpande et al., 1993; Deshpande and Farley, 2004; Moorman et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). Since the philosophy of brand management (Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993; Merz et al., 2009) is consistent with that of the market culture (Moorman, 1995), the association between brand performance and market culture should be positive. As discussed previously, successful management of brands require responsiveness to the external environmental changes (Day, 2014; Dickson, 1992; Merz et al., 2009; Ind et al., 2012). Adhocracy culture type values flexibility and maintaining and/or enhancing the competitive positive in the external environment through innovation or identifying better means of value creation (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995). In addition, adhocracy culture also promotes creativity, which is seen as an essential component of brand management by some authors (Fournier, 1998; Keller, 1993). Previous research argues for the positive association between adhocracy culture and business performance (Deshpande et al., 1993), and new product performance (Moorman, 1995). Finally, adhocracy culture stresses on the importance of adapting to the uncertain external environment, which is consistent with the current perspective on brand management (Merz et al., 2009; Ind et al., 2012). In summary, a high level of market focus and continuous adaption to the needs of the stakeholders is necessary for the development and maintenance of brands. With a focus on the environment, both market and adhocracy culture types should benefit brand performance. Based on this discussion, it is hypothesized that:

H2: Clan culture will not be associated with brand performance

H3: Hierarchy culture will not be associated with brand performance

H4: Market culture will be positively associated with brand performance

H5: Adhocracy culture will be positively associated with brand performance

2.7.4. Brand Management Processes and Brand Performance

From the literature review, it is seen that there are two prominent internally-focused brand management processes: internal branding and strategic brand management. Internal branding focuses on aligning employees to create value. Strategic brand management covers activities that are directed at managing a brand from a medium to long-term perspective (Keller, 1993; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). The internal branding and strategic brand management processes are argued to have a positive influence on brand performance in an organization, since they facilitate brand value creation (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Santos-Vijande et al, 2013). Based on this discussion, it is hypothesized that:

H6: Internal branding will be positively associated with brand performance.

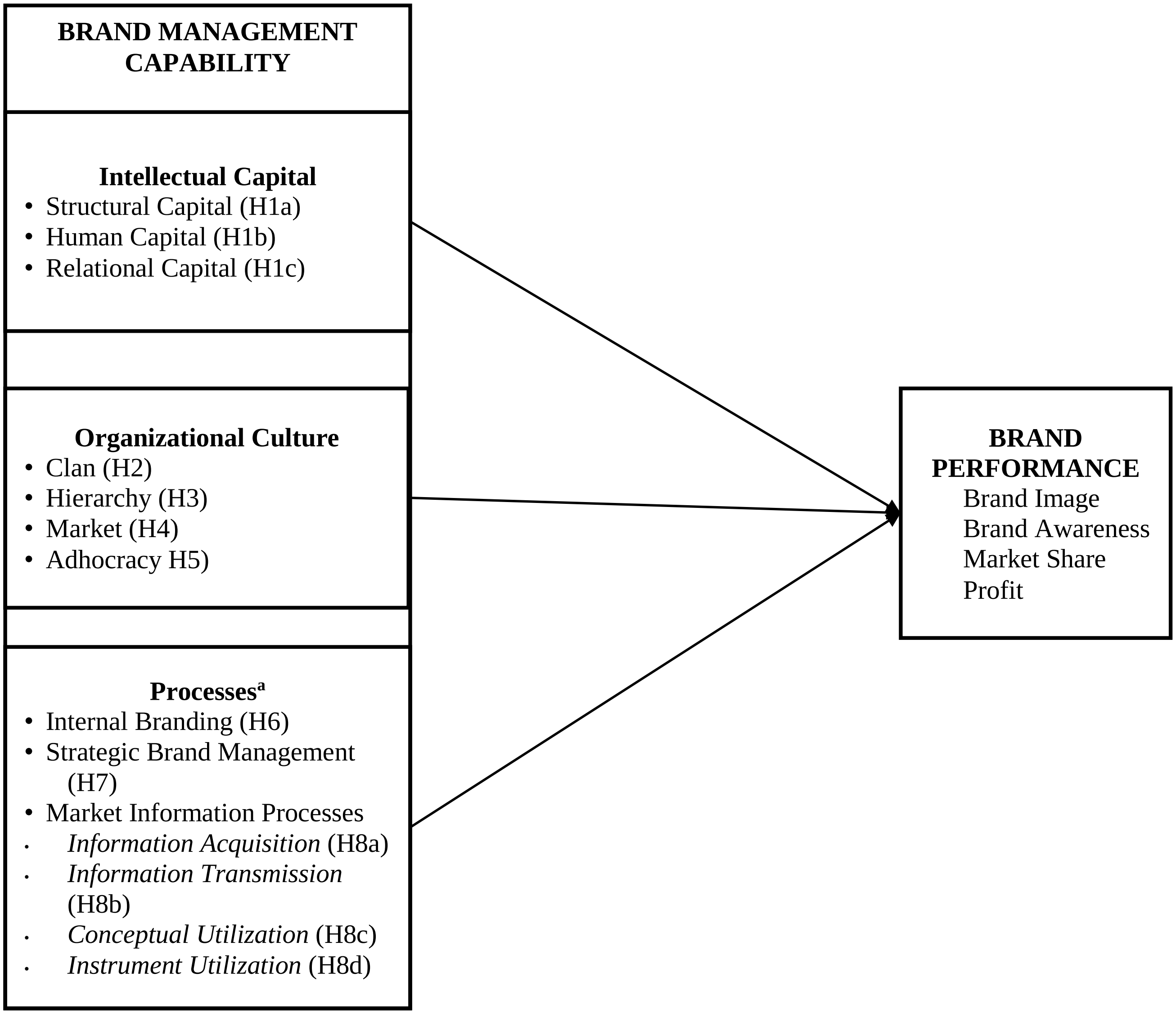
H7: Strategic brand management will be positively associated with brand performance.

Although both internal branding and strategic brand management processes are essential for developing a brand management capability, they are more focused on the internal operations of an organization. As discussed in the previous sections, the author argues that market information processes are an essential component of brand management processes. Market information processes, the manner in which an organization acquires, distributes, and utilizes information, will influence the brand value creation process. Market information processes comprise of four sub-processes: information acquisition, information transmission, conceptual utilization and instrument utilization. Market information processes help improve brand or firm performance by facilitating better decision-making based on improved knowledge flow (Moorman, 1995; Matsuno et al., 2002; Slater and Narver, 1994). Based on this discussion it is hypothesized that:

H8: Market information processes (a) information acquisition, (b) information transmission, (c) conceptual utilization and (d) instrument utilization will be positively associated with brand performance

These relationships and are illustrated in figure 2.

Figure 2: Research Model



[a]*Processes in italics represent the four sub-processes of market information processes.*

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview

This chapter discusses the research design, including the measurements, research procedures, and the methodology for analysis. The research design was chosen based on the objective of this study, which is to identify the components of brand management capability and measure its influence on brand performance. The dissertation's main objective is to achieve generalizability. The following section discusses the research design.

3.2. Research Design

For testing the hypothesized relationships, a *survey-based design* was used. Survey research involves the collection of information from a large population of interest. The respondents in a survey design may represent different sub-sections of a population (Malhotra and Grover, 1998). The purpose of a survey design is to explain a phenomenon or discover some new phenomena. It can be exploratory or explanatory in nature. It is difficult to establish causal relationships through studies that use survey design approach. The advantage of a survey design approach is that it allows for researchers to establish generalizability.

The first reason for selecting a survey design is that this dissertation focuses on achieving generalizability. The second reason for selecting a field survey design is that it is extremely difficult for the researcher to control or simulate the independent variables in this dissertation (intellectual capital, culture and organizational processes). Considering the scope of the study, a longitudinal analysis using secondary data was also not possible. Therefore, a survey-design approach was deemed appropriate for data collection for the dissertation.

Prior to carrying out the survey, in-depth interviews with few individuals of the representative sample were carried out to get a broad understanding of brand management capability. These interviews acted as heuristics for refining the research model and provided inputs for developing the survey instrument (Patton, 1990).

3.3. Measurements

Existing scales were used for measuring the constructs in the study. The measures used in this dissertation are well defined and validated in previous business-to-business studies. In addition, these scales have been used in similar contexts in literature. The discussion pertaining to each construct's scale is provided below:

3.3.1. Intellectual capital

As discussed in Chapter 2, IC consists of three dimensions: SC, HC, and RC. There exist several scales for IC (see Bontis, 1998; Griffith and Lusch, 2007; Cui et al., 2014 Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005). For this dissertation, scale items for SC and HC were borrowed from Subramaniam and Youndt (2005). In addition, some items for RC were borrowed from Bontis's (1998) scale. The items for measuring SC and HC are consistent with the definition of these sub-dimensions provided in Chapter 2. SC measures the knowledge embedded in organizations, i.e., the level of knowledge stored in an organization's databases, manuals, and patents. The scale items also tap into the policies and procedures present in an organization. The scale items for HC capture the level of knowledge and skills that employees possess, which is consistent with the literature on human resources (Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005). However, the manner in which Subramiam and Youndt (2005) define the RC is slightly different than the way it has been defined in this dissertation and by other authors (notably Bontis (1998)). Subramiam and Youndt (2005) view RC as comprising of relationships both within and outside an organization. However, Bontis (1998) and Kogut and Zander (1992) view RC as the knowledge embedded in the relationships with stakeholders external to an organization. This is consistent with the measurement of market orientation (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990), and relationship marketing (Morgan and Hunt, 1994), which are seen as representation of RC (Bontis, 1998, 1999). Therefore, for this dissertation the items for measuring RC were borrowed from Bontis's (1998) scale. Since the context of this study focuses specifically on individuals responsible for managing brands, the scale wordings were modified to fit this context. The responses to scales were measured on a Likert scale ranging from "1 - Strongly Disagree" to "5 - Strongly Agree".

3.3.2. Organizational Culture

Organizational culture measures for market, hierarchy, clan and adhocracy were adopted from Moorman et al. (1993). The scale items were originally developed by Deshpande et al. (1993), and were used to capture the manager's perceptions of organizational culture. In addition, Deshpande et al. (1993) and Deshpande and Farley (2004) have also tested these scale items in an international context, where the items have performed well. The scale items are consistent with the definition of the organizational culture and its types (see Chapter 2). As discussed, these scale items measure the *relative* degree to which a culture type exists in an organization, and not in absolute terms. The four aspects of each construct (dominant attributes, leader style, bonding, and strategic emphases) are measured using one-item for each culture type (clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy). Although the use of one-item measures has been debated, several authors hold that one-item measures work equally well as multi-item measures (Drolet and Morrison, 2001; Fuchs and Diamantopolous, 2009). The scales have been tested in multiple contexts and have reasonably good reliability and validity scores (Moorman, 1995). Since there were some concerns regarding the clarity of the some scale items, minor word changes were made. All the responses to the scale items were measured on a Likert scale ranging from "1 – Strongly Disagree" to "5 – Strongly Agree".

3.3.3. Internally-focused brand management processes

The scale items for internally-focused brand management processes (internal branding and strategic brand management) were borrowed from Santos-Vijande et al. (2013). Despite the detailed discussion of internal branding and strategic brand management processes, the scales for these constructs were developed only recently (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Santos-Vijande et al. (2013) developed the scales for internal branding and strategic brand management using the commonly accepted scale development recommendations (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), and the scales demonstrate sufficient reliability and validity. Another reason for choosing the scales from Santos-Vijande et al. (2013) is that the scale items are consistent with the definition of these two constructs in this dissertation. Finally, the scales have been used in a similar context (survey involving senior level managers). Some of the items were modified to fit the context of this dissertation. The responses to the scale items were measured on a Likert scale from "1 - Strongly Disagree" to "5 - Strongly Agree".

3.3.4. Externally-focused brand management processes

Market information processes comprise of four dimensions: information acquisition, information transmission, conceptual utilization, and instrument utilization. The operationalization of these measures are consistent with the manner that they are defined in the literature. This study relies on Moorman's (1995) scales to capture the externally-focused brand management processes. The measures have been used and developed in a similar context (the original study collected data from marketing vice-presidents), and display sufficient reliability and validity. Although other authors (Hult et al., 2005; Sinkula et al., 1997) provide scale items for capturing market information processes, Moorman's (1995) scale is more consistent with this dissertation's definition of market information processes. As with the other scales, the responses to items for all four dimensions of market information processes were measured on a Likert scale ranging from "1 - Strongly Disagree" to "5 - Strongly Agree".

3.3.5. Brand Performance

As discussed previously, brand performance is a combination of financial performance measures (such as market share and profitability) and non-financial performance measures that are oriented towards the medium to long-term maintenance of brands (brand equity elements such as brand image and brand awareness) (Cui et al., 2014; O'Cass and Ngo, 2007). The majority of the previous studies in marketing, specifically in brand management have used organizational performance as the dependent variable (Lee et al., 2008; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). However, the organizational performance measure does not take into the account the increasingly important dimensions of brand equity (Cui et al., 2014; Keller, 1993; Keller and Lehman, 2006). Since brand management capability does take into the account the long term maintenance of brands, a more comprehensive brand performance measure was sought. Thus, the brand performance scale in this dissertation was borrowed from O'Cass and Ngo (2007) which measures both the financial and non-financial aspects of a brand's performance. Specifically, the scale items measure the respondent's perception of the market share, profitability, brand image, and brand awareness. This scale has been used in previous studies (Cui et al., 2014; O'Cass and Ngo, 2007), and has demonstrated acceptable reliability and validity. The scale items were anchored by "1 – Strongly Disagree" to "5 – Strongly Agree".

3.4. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to the major entity (what or who) that is being analyzed in a study. In this study, the unit of analysis is the organization with the data collected from individuals responsible for managing brands. The organization is considered the unit of analysis since the research questions seek to identify the components of brand management capability in terms of its organizational culture, processes and resources. The unit of analysis is consistent with previous studies that use the organizational capability perspective (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013; Subramaniam and Youndt, 2004).

3.5. Respondents

Consistent with the previous brand management studies, this dissertation uses the key informant approach for data collection (Cui et al., 2014; Hankinson and Cowking, 1997; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). The key informant approach is ideal for collecting data from individuals who can provide a valid representation of the organizational activities pertinent to the study context (in this case brand management) (Phillips, 1981). Previous studies have also used the key informant approach to collect the data regarding strategic decisions of a firm (e.g., Challagalla et al., 2014; Jaworski and Kohli, 1993). To ensure that the respondents were key informants, two screening questions were used. The questions sought respondents' 1) responsibility for managing brand (s) in an organization, and 2) amount of experience in the brand management position. Only respondents who were partially or wholly responsible for managing brand(s) and had at least 6 months of work experience in their current position, or similar position, were included in the study. The primary job titles of the respondents included assistant brand manager, brand manager, marketing manager, product/service manager, chief marketing officer, vice-president of marketing and chief executive officer.

3.6. Sample Frame

The population of interest is all manufacturing and service organizations operating in the United States of America. Previous studies pertaining to brand management have drawn samples from organizations both within the United States (Cui et al., 2014) and Europe (Gromark and Melin, 2012; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Considering the scope of this study, the sample frame for the pretest and final study is all organizations within the United States of America.

The sample for the pretest and final study was selected using Qualtrics panel. Qualtrics is an online survey administration company (Long et al., 2011). Qualtrics panel provides researchers with respondents ranging from social media users to senior members in organizations (which may include vice presidents, CEOs, CMOs, etc.). To allay the concerns of generalizability of the sample, Qualtrics recruits respondents from various backgrounds and geographies in the USA. Qualtrics has access to over 6 million respondents in their panels (Dumas et al., 2013). Qualtrics uses an invitation-based panel recruitment (Hagtvedt, 2011), and ensures that the respondents are legitimate. In addition, Qualtrics also allows the researcher to set up additional screening questions, and attention checks. Any respondent not meeting the criteria or missing the attention check is immediately removed from the survey (Long et al., 2011). In exchange for participating in the survey, respondents are generally compensated using “Survey Cash” which is redeemable for monetary compensation. Data from Qulatrics panel has been used to publish in premier marketing and management academic journals (*Academy of Management Journal, Industrial Marketing Management*, *Journal of Marketing, Organizational Science*, etc.). Previous studies have made use of Qualtrics panel for collecting data from employees and managers (Davis, 2014; Long et al., 2011; Obal, 2013). For example, Obal (2013) used Qualtrics panel to seek IT managers who were the decision-makers and had experience in CRM.

The survey procedures are also stringent. A project manager is assigned to the data collection project. The first 10% of any survey is treated as a soft-launch, where both the researcher and the project-manager review the data to ensure the quality of the response and respondents. Following the soft-launch, the project manager initiates the full data collection. In this manner, Qualtrics assures the researcher of high quality data. Thus, Qualtrics panel is an appropriate sample frame for this dissertation.

In this case, Qualtrics indicated that they recruited individuals responsible for managing brands from diverse industries in USA. These included both Business to Business (B2B) and Business to Consumers (B2C) sectors. As discussed in the previous section, the two screening questions were also provided to respondents. Only individuals who met the criteria put forth by Qualtrics and passed the screening questions, were allowed to participate in the survey.

3.7. Sample Size Estimation

To estimate the sample size required for carrying out the analysis, a-priori power analysis was carried out (Cohen, 1988; Maxwell, 2000; Westland, 2010; Soper, 2015). The a-priori sample size estimator uses the anticipated effect size, statistical power and the number of latent constructs and observed variables for calculating the sample size. Since the sample size estimation is considered to be sensitive to the number of latent variables (Maxwell, 2000), this sample size is estimated by considering all constructs as first order constructs. The minimum sample size required at 80% power level with an expected effect size of 0.6 (Maxwell, 2000; Soper, 2015) comes to 89 units when all the constructs are considered to be first level (13 predictors).

Another means of estimating sample size is driven by the proposed analysis method. This study proposes to use SEM for analyzing the data. Generally, structural equation modeling (SEM) requires a larger sample size (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Iacobucci, 2010). Anderson and Gerbing (1984) mention that a minimum sample required for getting a proper solution is 150. However, Iacobucci (2010) mentions that SEM could be made to work using smaller samples based on the number of constructs and their indicators.

In summary, these two approaches provide an indication of the minimum sample size required to carry out the analysis. Considering both approaches, the researcher decided to collect information from 180 respondents to carry out the analysis. This sample size meets the expectations of both approaches.

3.8. Sampling

As indicated earlier, Qualtrics panel was used to draw the survey sample for the pre-test and the final sample. Qualtrics randomly sent out the survey to panel members who were responsible of managing brands. In addition, screening questions were presented to respondents. The screening questions sought if the respondents were at least partially responsible for managing brands, and whether the respondents had at least 6 months of experience in their current position or a similar position. If the answers to both of these screening questions were yes, respondents were allowed to take the survey.

3.9. Analyses

Partial least squares based structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to test the psychometric properties of the scales and the hypothesized relationships. PLS-SEM focuses on maximizing the explained variance of the dependent latent variable (in this case, brand performance) (Hair et al., 2011). Unlike covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM), PLS-SEM estimates relationships between latent variables using a series of ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions (Hair et al., 2012). PLS-SEM is appropriate for complex models, since it provides a more rigorous test of hypotheses and has less restrictive assumptions about the data as compared to CB-SEM. In addition, PLS-SEM has a predictive focus (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2012), which meets the objectives of this study. Finally, the results for PLS-SEM and CB-SEM do not differ significantly (Hair et al., 2014). Considering all the above factors, PLS-SEM was deemed appropriate to analyze the data collected for this dissertation.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Overview

This chapter discusses the results for the pre-test and main study. First, the pre-test analysis is presented. Second, the data collection procedure is described. Third, the descriptive statistics of the sample, followed by the psychometric analysis of the scales, are provided. Finally, the results of the main study are presented.

4.2. Pre-test

The main purpose of the pre-test data was to check the psychometric properties of the constructs. This is a useful step to ensure that the scales are valid and reliable. For the pre-test, Qualtrics recruited individuals responsible for managing brands in organizations. The questionnaire was distributed to 93 individuals, out of which 47 respondents completed the survey after passing the screening questions and attention filters. Three additional responses were removed due to quality concerns. The final sample for the pre-test was 44.

The pre-test data was subject to tests of reliability and validity. The AVEs for all the constructs except strategic brand management, information utilization, and structural capital were above 0.5. However, AVE is a more conservative index and composite reliability alone can be used for assessing convergent validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The composite reliability for the constructs was over 0.7, indicating convergent validity and reliability (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Since the pre-test results indicate presence of reliability and validity, final data collection was initiated.

4.3. Final Data Collection

We first approached Qualtrics for collecting the final data. Similar to the pre-test, Qualtrics solicited individuals responsible for managing brands in organizations. The questionnaire was distributed to 441 respondents, out of which 186 respondents were deemed suitable for the study (after completing the screening questions successfully). Three additional responses were removed due to quality concerns. Second, a snowball sampling technique was employed to recruit more respondents. Students of an online class (a senior level class where most of the students were employed) were asked to reach out to their contacts that were in a brand management role in exchange for extra credit. To ensure the quality of respondents, along with the survey, students were also asked to collect business cards of the contacts. Adequate measures (collecting business cards and providing screening questions) were taken to ensure the quality of responses. The total sample size from the snowball technique was 21 respondents. Finally, for the final analysis, the pretest data of 44 respondents was added to the dataset. To ensure that there was no systematic bias among the three groups, an ANOVA comparing the means of the constructs for all three sets (Qualtrics, Snowball and Pretest Samples) was carried out. The results indicated that there was no presence of systematic bias. After ensuring that the responses across the three sample sets were homogeneous, the three samples were pooled to carry out the final analysis. A total of 248 responses were used for final analysis.

Literature specifies that the power of a given sample should be at least 0.8 to determine any significant effect size for a given model (Cohen, 1988; Maxwell, 2000). The power of the sample was calculated using Cohen's (1988) guidelines. Since the sample power is dependent on the number of predictors, all the predictors were considered to be first order factors (13). The estimated power of the sample power was 1, exceeding the minimum requirement of 0.8 (Maxwell, 2000). In summary, the sample size is sufficient for identifying the hypothesized relationships.

4.4. Sample Characteristics

As discussed previously, the objective of the dissertation is to achieve generalizability. Therefore, the focus was on gathering responses from various industries. The majority of the respondents were from the Consumer Packaged Goods (14.22%), Food & Beverages (12%), Electronics (9.78%), Technology Services (8.89%), Business Services (8.44%), and Fashion (8%) industries. The median range for organization sales and brand sales for the sample were between $1 million to $5 million dollars. The average age of the companies was around 22 years, and the median number of employees was 50 – 99. There is an adequate representation of various organizations from various industries, and of various sizes (in terms of revenues and employees).

As discussed previously, this study adopted a key respondent approach. Most of the respondents were responsible for managing at least one brand. In addition, the median experience of the respondents in brand management, and specifically for managing their current brand, was around 3 years. There was an equitable distribution of individuals who were responsible for individual brands (51.6%) and corporate brands (48.4%). The majority of respondents were managing brands that were aimed at end consumers (62.5%), while the rest were managing brands targeted to businesses (37.5%). In summary, the respondents were in charge of managing diverse brands and had sufficient knowledge and experience to respond to the survey. This ensures the generalizability of the results. The description of the sample is provided in table 2.

Table 2: Demographics

Details	Frequency (%)
Industry	
Consumer Packaged Goods (Excluding F&B)	14.22
Food & Beverages	12.00
Electronics	9.78
Technology Services	8.89
Business Services	8.44
Fashion	8.00
Household Services	8.00
Consulting	4.44
Financial Services	2.67
Other Services	12.89
Other Products	10.67
Organization Sales	
Less than $500,000	29.30
$500,000 to <$1 million	10.20
$1 million to < $5 million	16.30
$5 million to < $10 million	7.70
$10 million to < $20 million	11.80
$20 million to < $50 million	8.10
$50 million to < $100 million	5.70
$100 million to < $1 billion	5.30
$1 billion or more	5.70
Brand Sales	
Less than $500,000	32.80
$500,000 to <$1 million	11.90
$1 million to < $5 million	21.30
$5 million to < $10 million	9.40
$10 million to < $20 million	8.60
$20 million to < $50 million	5.30
$50 million to < $100 million	2.90
$100 million to < $1 billion	4.50
$1 billion or more	3.30
Age of Company	
Less than 10 years	34.00
10 to 50 years	55.30
50 to 100 years	7.00
More than 100 years	3.70
Number of Employees	
Less than 10 employees	30.30

10 - 49 employees	17.20
50 - 99 employees	7.80
100 - 249 employees	12.30
250 - 499 employees	8.20
500 - 999 employees	8.60
1000 or more employees	15.60

4.5. Reliability and Validity

The next step was to assess the convergent validity, reliability, and discriminant validity of the constructs using PLS-SEM. As discussed earlier, PLS-SEM is less restrictive about the data assumptions and provides similar results as compared to CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2011). Since all the scales were borrowed from the existing literature and the pre-test results indicated sufficient reliability and validity, the author decided to directly carry out the confirmatory factor analysis. To assess convergent validity, we first looked at the individual item loadings on the constructs. The item loadings of the each of the constructs was greater than 0.6, providing evidence of convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The AVE for each construct for the final sample exceed the minimum requirement of 0.5, further indicating convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The composite reliabilities and Cronbach's alpha for all the constructs were above 0.7, indicating sufficient reliability of the measures (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Nunally, 1978). Finally, discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the square root of AVE against the correlation estimates with other factors. The square root of AVE for all the constructs was higher than the shared correlations which indicated discriminant validity. In summary, the constructs demonstrated sufficient reliability and validity for model testing. The results of CFA are provided in tables 3 and 4.

Table 3: Focal Constructs and their Measures

Construct	Source	Statements	Std Estimates
Strategic Brand Management (SBM)	Santos-Vijande et al. (2013)	There are significant investments to manage brand (s).	0.812
		Marketing actions are finalized after considering the possible impact on brand image.	0.763
		Brands are managed from a medium to long-term perspective.	0.801
		There is scope for synergies between different brands in the portfolio.	0.717
		Investments in brand management are higher than competitor firms.	0.667
Internal Branding (IB)	Santos-Vijande et al. (2013)	Employees attend workshops about objectives and characteristics of brands.	0.791
		Employees periodically receive information about brands and brand management.	0.827
		Employees sufficiently understand brand(s) objectives.	0.826
		Brand(s) image among employees is periodically assessed.	0.873
		Different departments freely share information about brand(s).	0.791
Information Acquisition (IA)	Moorman (1995)	*My organization has:*	
		Processes for continuously collecting information from customers.	0.743
		Processes for continuously collecting information about competitors' activities.	0.822
		Processes for continuously collecting information about relevant publics other than customers.	0.835
		Processes for continuously reexamining the value of information collected in previous studies.	0.813
Information Transmission (IT)	Moorman (1995)	*My organization has:*	
		Processes for sharing information effectively between marketing and other departments.	0.827
		Processes for sharing information effectively within the marketing department.	0.795
		Informal networks to ensure that we have information we need.	0.8
		Formal networks to ensure that we have information we need.	0.819
Conceptual Utilization (CU)	Moorman (1995)	*My organization has:*	
		Processes that summarize information to reduce its complexity.	0.786
		Processes that encourage us to disagree and to challenge one another's opinions.	0.825
		Processes that encourage us to develop predictions regarding a brand's success.	0.836
		Processes for organizing information in meaningful ways.	0.811
Instrument Utilization (IU)	Moorman (1995)	*My organization has:*	
		Processes for evaluating branding strategy alternatives.	0.818
		Processes that provide information to effectively implement a strategy.	0.840
		Processes that provide clear direction on implementation of a strategy.	0.853
		Processes for evaluating branding strategy's effectiveness.	0.855
		Processes that provide feedback regarding effectiveness of a branding strategy.	0.830
		Processes that constructively evaluate project outcomes.	0.657

Clan	Deshpande et al., 1993	[a]Personal. It's like an extended family. People seem to share a lot about themselves.	0.772
		[b]A mentor, sage, or a father/ mother figure.	0.733
		[c]Loyalty and tradition. Commitment to this firm runs high.	0.801
		[d]Human resources. High cohesion and morale in the firm are important.	0.766
Adhocracy	Deshpande et al., 1993	[a]Dynamic and entrepreneurial. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	0.773
		[b]An entrepreneur, an innovator, or a risk taker.	0.765
		[c]A commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being first.	0.764
		[d]Growth and acquiring new resources. Readiness to meet new challenges is important.	0.769
Hierarchy	Deshpande et al., 1993	[a]Very formalized and structured. Bureaucratic procedures generally govern what people do.	0.719
		[b]A coordinator, an organizer, or an administrator.	0.744
		[a]Formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running institution is important here.	0.857
		[d]Permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important.	0.732
Market	Deshpande et al., 1993	[a]Production oriented. The major concern is with getting the job done. People are not very personally involved.	0.567
		[b]A producer, a technician, or a hard-driver.	0.757
		[c]An emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment. A production orientation is shared.	0.782
		[d]Competitive actions and achievement. Measurable goals are important.	0.774
Structural Capital (SC)	Subramaniam and Youndt (2005)	Our organization uses patents and licenses as a way to store knowledge.	0.737
		Much of our organization's knowledge is contained in manuals, databases, etc.	0.845
		Our organization stories and rituals contain valuable ideas, ways of doing business, etc.	0.784
		Our organization embeds much of its knowledge and information in structures, systems, and processes.	0.774
Human Capital (HC)	Subramaniam and Youndt (2005)	*Our employees:*	
		Are highly skilled	0.862
		Are widely considered the best in our industry.	0.748
		Are creative and bright.	0.84
		Are experts in their particular jobs and functions.	0.835
		Develop new ideas and knowledge.	0.807
Relational Capital (RC)	Subramaniam and Youndt (2005); Bontis (1998)	Our employees partner with customers, suppliers, alliance partners, etc. to develop solutions.	0.726
		Our employees share information with stakeholders.	0.791
		Stakeholder satisfaction with the organization is high.	0.894
		Confident of future relationship with stakeholders.	0.884
		Relationship with stakeholders is good.	0.888
		There is longevity of relationship with stakeholders.	0.864
Brand Performance (BP)	Cui et al. 2014	*The brand I manage meets the organizational objectives for*:	
		Image	0.724

Awareness	0.814
Market Share	0.808
Net Profit Margin	0.822

[a]*All Type Questions were given the cue "My organization is"*
[b]*All Leadership Questions were given the cue "The head of my organization is considered to be"*
[c]*All Bonding Questions were given the cue "The glue that holds my organization together is"*
[d]*All Emphasis Questions were given the cue "My division emphasizes on"*

Table 4: Variability of Constructs and Shared Correlations

	Alpha	CR	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. SBM[a]	0.81	0.87	3.86	0.70	**0.75**													
2. IB	0.88	0.91	3.83	0.83	0.73	**0.82**												
3. IA	0.82	0.88	3.82	0.79	0.68	0.68	**0.80**											
4. IT	0.83	0.88	3.91	0.75	0.70	0.69	0.71	**0.81**										
5. CU	0.83	0.89	3.89	0.73	0.67	0.69	0.77	0.77	**0.81**									
6. IU	0.90	0.92	3.86	0.78	0.68	0.69	0.75	0.82	0.81	**0.81**								
7. Clan	0.77	0.85	3.97	0.76	0.58	0.59	0.49	0.67	0.59	0.59	**0.77**							
8. Adhocracy	0.77	0.85	3.94	0.71	0.62	0.58	0.64	0.63	0.67	0.67	0.61	**0.77**						
9. Hierarchy	0.76	0.85	3.78	0.82	0.60	0.57	0.64	0.56	0.59	0.68	0.51	0.67	**0.76**					
10. Market	0.69	0.81	3.81	0.72	0.58	0.56	0.65	0.56	0.60	0.61	0.46	0.69	0.75	**0.73**				
11. SC	0.79	0.87	3.70	0.81	0.64	0.66	0.71	0.60	0.66	0.64	0.55	0.63	0.73	0.67	**0.79**			
12. HC	0.88	0.91	4.18	0.65	0.54	0.55	0.58	0.58	0.58	0.64	0.56	0.64	0.59	0.56	0.55	**0.82**		
13. RC	0.92	0.94	3.88	0.78	0.63	0.64	0.56	0.67	0.60	0.60	0.57	0.59	0.56	0.54	0.59	0.57	**0.84**	
14. BP	0.80	0.87	4.06	0.66	0.64	0.63	0.61	0.63	0.60	0.67	0.52	0.61	0.68	0.65	0.60	0.61	0.63	**0.79**

Square root of AVE is presented along the diagonal
CR = Composite Reliability
[a]Labels for all the constructs is provided in Table 1

4.6. Method Bias Analysis

Common method bias is considered to be one of the serious threats to a study's validity. It inflates correlations between constructs which leads to erroneous conclusions (Podsakoff et al., 2003). At the procedural level, the researcher tried to control for common method bias by assuring anonymity which limits the respondents' evaluation apprehension. No personal or identifiable information was collected. At the statistical level, common method variance was tested in a couple of ways. First, Harman's one factor test was carried out (Aulakh and Gencturk, 2000). All the observed indicators were forced into a single factor. The extracted variance was 41.7%, indicating that common method variance was not a major issue. In addition, two other factor analyses at different levels of complexity (3 factors and 5 factors) were carried out (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2013; Korsgaard and Roberson, 1995). More complex models had higher fit (extracted variance for 3 and 5 factor structures were 49.6% and 55.2% respectively) providing more evidence that common method variance was not large. Since common method variance was not a major concern, the hypotheses testing using PLS-SEM was carried out.)

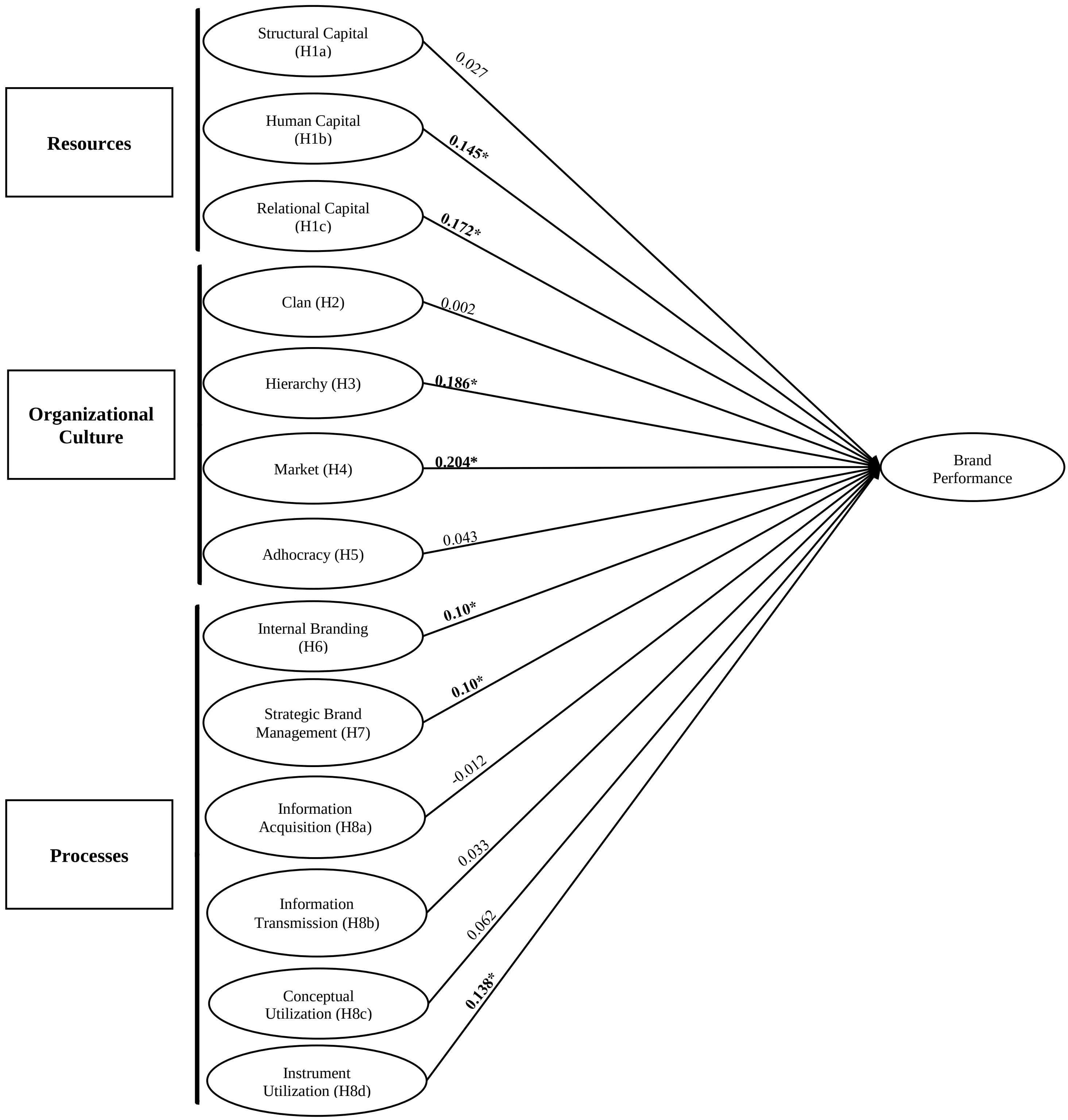
4.7. Hypotheses Testing

The first set of hypotheses discussed the positive association of knowledge-based resources (H1a: structural capital, H1b: human capital, and H1c: intellectual capital) on brand performance. Both human capital (β = 0.161) and relational capital (β = 0.178) are positively associated with brand performance supporting H1b and H1c. However, structural capital did not have a significant association with brand performance. H1a was not supported.

The second set of hypotheses looked at the association of different culture types on brand performance. As hypothesized, clan culture did not have an association with brand performance providing evidence for H2. It was hypothesized that hierarchy culture would not be associated with brand performance. However, hierarchy culture ($\beta = 0.186$) was positively associated with brand performance. Thus, we could not find support for H3. Market culture ($\beta = 0.204$) had a positive association with brand performance, supporting H4. Finally, adhocracy culture was not positively associated with brand performance. H5 was not supported.

Hypotheses 6 to 8 looked at the association of various processes with brand performance. Both internal branding ($\beta = 0.10$) strategic brand management ($\beta = 0.10$) are positively associated with brand performance, providing support for H6 and H7. Hypotheses 8a to 8d examined the association between the sub-processes of market information processes and brand performance. Information acquisition (H8a), information transmission (H8b), and conceptual utilization (H8c) were not positively associated with brand performance. On the other hand, instrument utilization which measures the direct use of information on decision making was positively associated with brand performance ($\beta = 0.138$). H8d was supported. The structural model is presented in figure 3 and the results are displayed in table 5.

Figure 3 - Structural Model Results (First Order Factors)[6] [7]



[6] Betas are represented on the path.

[7] Significant Betas are highlighted in bold.

Table 5: Structural Model Results (First Order Factors)[8]

Direct Effects	Brand Performance	P-Value[b]	Supported/NS
Resources			
Structural Capital (H1a)	0.027	0.17	NS
Human Capital (H1b)	**0.145***	**0.01**	**Supported**
Relational Capital (H1c)	**0.172***	**0.00**	**Supported**
Organizational Culture			
Clan (H2)	0.002	**0.24**	***Supported (null)***
Hierarchy (H23)[a]	**0.186***	**<0.001**	NS
Market (H4)	**0.204***	**<0.001**	**Supported**
Adhocracy (H5)	0.043	0.12	NS
Processes			
Internal Branding (H6)	**0.10***	**0.03**	**Supported**
Strategic Brand Management (H7)	**0.10***	**0.03**	**Supported**
Information Acquisition (H8a)	-0.012	0.21	NS
Information Transmission (H8b)	0.033	0.15	NS
Conceptual Utilization (H8c)	0.062	0.08	NS
Instrument Utilization (H8d)	**0.138***	**0.01**	**Supported**
R-Square	0.78		

[a] *The relationship between hierarchy and brand performance was hypothesized in the null format.*

[a] *One tailed test of significance*

**Significant at 95% CI*

NS = Not Supported.

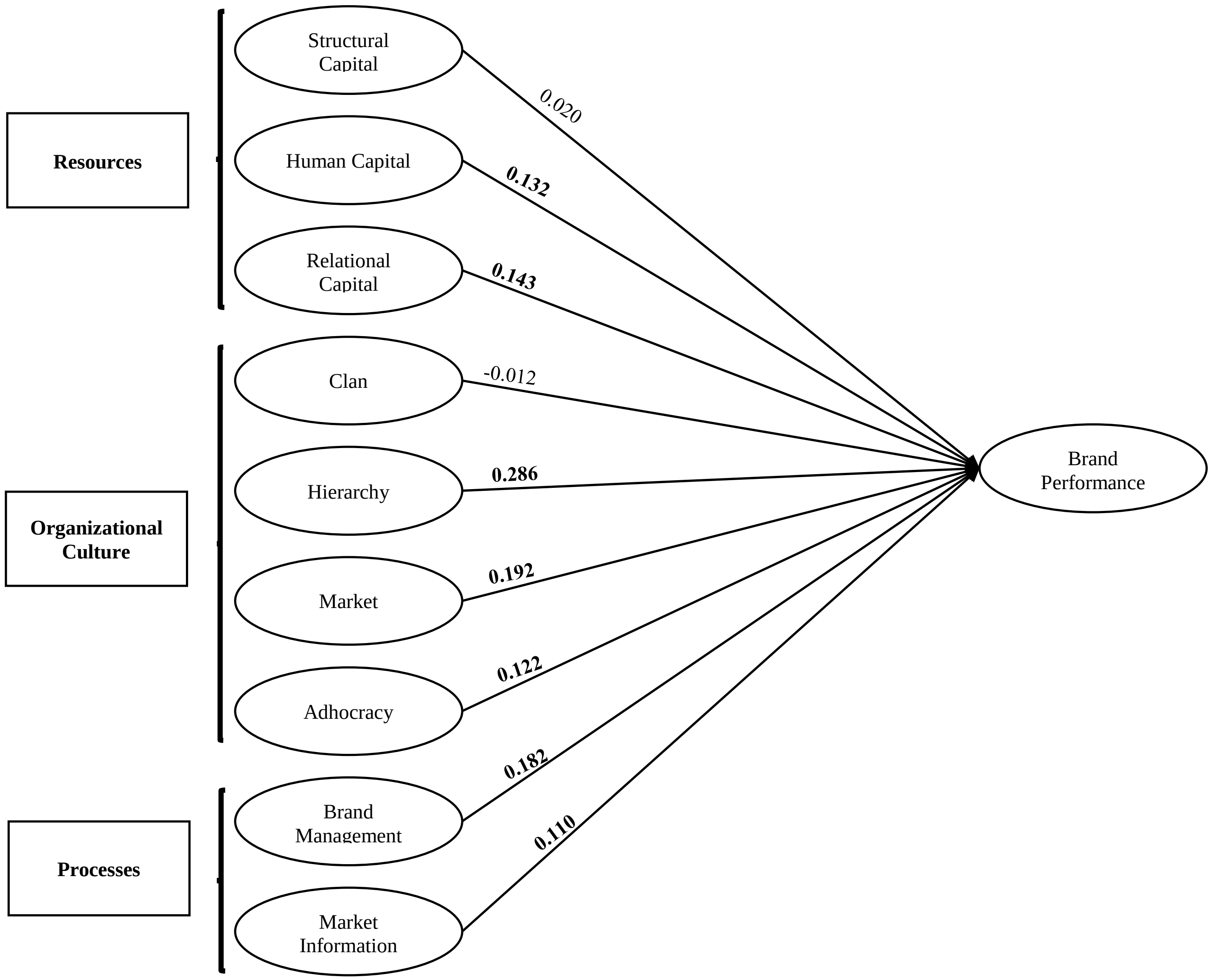
[8] Warp-PLS does not provide T-values and hence they have not been listed.

4.8. Post-hoc Analyses

A post-hoc analysis was carried out to examine the alternative models capable of examining the relationships between the resources, organizational culture, processes and brand performance. In the past, internal branding and strategic brand management have been considered to form a second-order construct (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Thus, a second-order construct labeled as brand management processes was created using internal branding and strategic brand management as first order factors. In addition, market information processes have also been considered as a second order factor consisting of information acquisition, information transmission, conceptual utilization, and instrument utilization processes (Hult et al., 2005; Sinkula, 1994). Consistent with this literature, the second-order factor market information processes was created. The new model tested for the direct relationships among the three components of intellectual capital, organizational culture, brand management processes, market information processes, and brand performance. Both brand management processes and market information processes are positively associated with brand performance. The results for the remaining variables remained the same. The path estimates are presented in figure 4 and table 6.

Some researchers argue that the organizational culture helps to further explore and refine the organizational processes, and also improve efficiency of these processes on performance (March, 1991; Gibson and Birkinshaw, 2004; Raisch et al., 2009; Raisch and Birkinshaw, 2008). Specifically, Gibson and Birkinshaw (2004) argue that organizational culture is essential for an organization to explore and refine processes that can improve business performance. However, the organizational culture that supports the exploration of processes, may not be able to maximize the efficiency of these processes towards achieving organizational performance (O'Reilly and Tushman, 2008). Consistent with this perspective, a new model was developed. Organizational culture is considered as an antecedent to the internal brand management processes (strategic brand management and internal branding). In addition, organizational culture is also considered as a moderator that either enhances or diminishes the efficiency of brand management processes on brand performance (refer figure 5). Four separate PLS-SEM models were carried out. The results indicate that all the four culture types (clan, hierarchy, adhocracy, and market) help in exploring/enhancing both the brand management processes (internal branding and strategic brand management). When we check for the moderation effects of organizational culture, we find that clan culture does not moderate the relationship between the brand management processes and brand performance. Both hierarchy and market culture types enhance the efficiency of both brand management processes (strategic brand management and internal branding) on brand performance. Adhocracy culture negatively impacts the association between internal branding and brand performance. Results are provided in tables 7 to 10.

Figure 4 – Structural Model Results (Second Order Factors)[9][10]



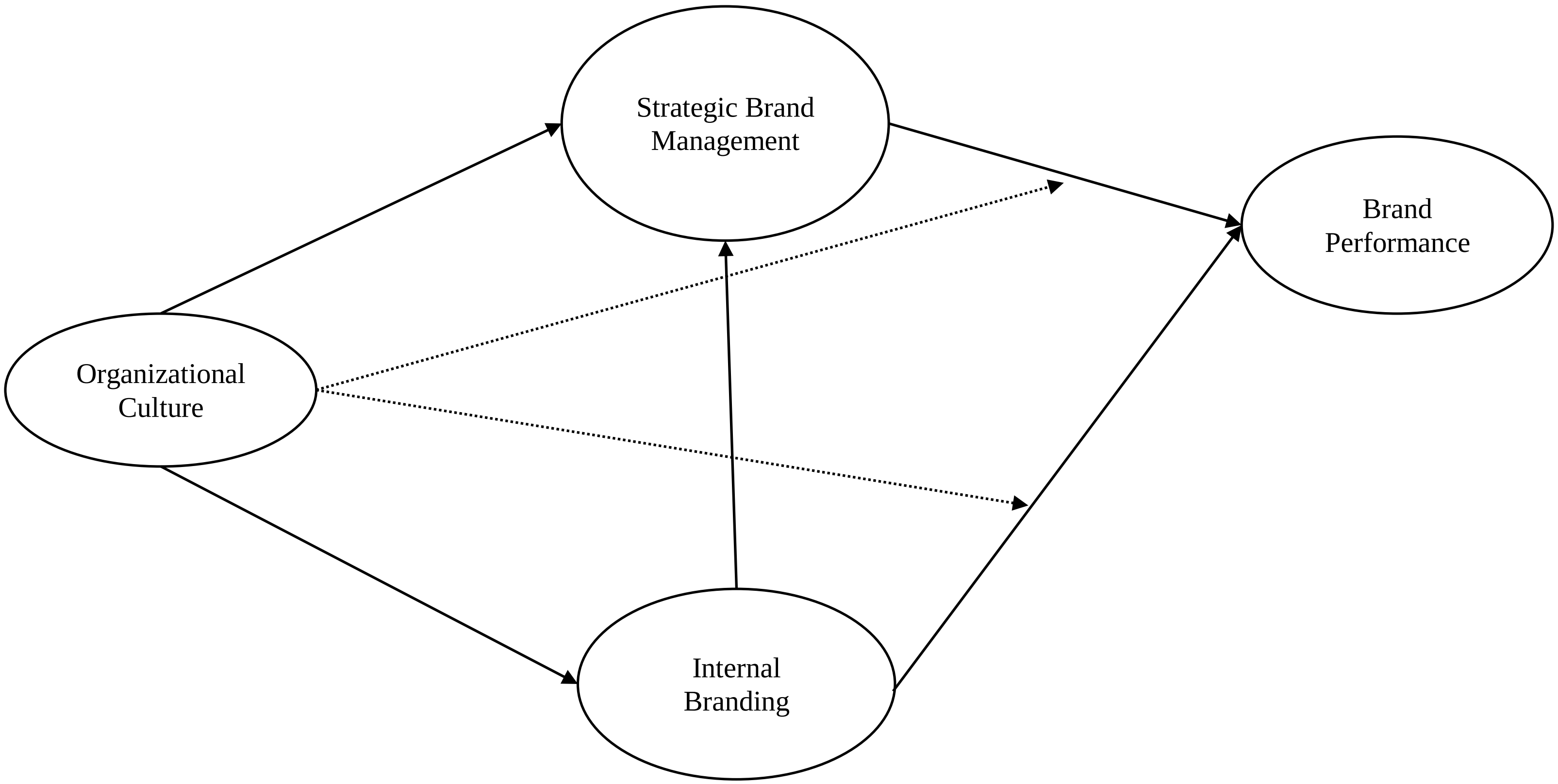
[9] Betas are represented on the path.
[10] Significant Betas are highlighted in bold.

Table 6: Structural Model Results (Second Order Factors)[a]

Direct Effects	Brand Performance	P-Value[b]	Supported/NS
Resources			
Structural Capital	0.02	0.205	NS
Human Capital	**0.132***	**0.011**	**Supported**
Relational Capital	**0.143***	**0.007**	**Supported**
Organizational Culture			
Clan	**-0.012**	**0.214**	***Supported (null)***
Hierarchy[c]	0.286*	<0.001	NS
Market	**0.192***	**<0.001**	**Supported**
Adhocracy	**0.122***	**0.016**	**Supported**
Processes			
Brand Management Processes	**0.182***	**0.002**	**Supported**
Market Information Processes	**0.110***	**0.023**	**Supported**
R-Square	0.77		

**Significant at 95% CI (One tailed test of significance)*
[a] Hypotheses numbers not provided to avoid confusion
[b] One tailed test of significance
[c] The relationship between hierarchy and brand performance was hypothesized in the null format.
Market Information Processes is a second order factor comprising of IA, IT, CU, and IU
Brand Management Processes is a second order factor comprising of IB and SBM

Figure 5 – Research Model (Alternate Model)[11]



[11] Betas and indirect paths are not indicated to avoid clutter.

Table 7: Structural Model Results: Clan Culture (Alternate Model)[a]

Direct Effects	Internal Branding	P-Value	Strategic Brand Management	P-Value	Brand Performance	P-Value
Clan	**0.573**	**<0.01**	**0.161**	**<0.01**	----	----
Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	**0.315**	**<0.01**
Internal Branding	----	----	**0.646**	**<0.01**	**0.417**	**<0.01**
Moderation						
Clan* Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	-0.071	0.07
Clan* Internal Branding	----	----	----	----	0.073	0.07
R-Square	**0.328**		**0.568**		**0.464**	

*Values in **bold** are significant at 95% CI (One-tailed test)*

Table 8: Structural Model Results: Hierarchy Culture (Alternate Model)[a]

Direct Effects	Internal Branding	P-Value	Strategic Brand Management	P-Value	Brand Performance	P-Value
Hierarchy	**0.597**	**<0.01**	**0.248**	**<0.01**	----	----
Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	**0.242**	**<0.01**
Internal Branding	----	----	**0.588**	**<0.01**	**0.449**	**<0.01**
Moderation						
Hierarchy* Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	**0.118**	**0.02**
Hierarchy*Internal Branding	----	----	----	----	**0.319**	**<0.01**
R-Square	**0.356**		**0.583**		**0.279**	

*Values in **bold** are significant at 95% CI (One-tailed test)*

Table 9: Structural Model Results: Market Culture (Alternate Model)[a]

Direct Effects	Internal Branding	P-Value	Strategic Brand Management	P-Value	Brand Performance	P-Value
Market	**0.56**	**<0.01**	**0.209**	**<0.01**	----	----
Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	**0.284**	**<0.01**
Internal Branding	----	----	**0.622**	**<0.01**	**0.413**	**<0.01**
Moderation						
Market* Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	**0.163**	**<0.01**
Market*Internal Branding	----	----	----	----	**0.258**	**<0.01**
R-Square	**0.314**		**0.581**		**0.326**	

*Values in **bold** are significant at 95% CI (One-tailed test)*

Table 10: Structural Model Results: Adhocracy Culture (Alternate Model)[a]

Direct Effects	Internal Branding	P-Value	Strategic Brand Managemen t	P-Value	Brand Performance	P-Value
Adhocracy	**0.584**	**<0.01**	**0.241**	**<0.01**	----	----
Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	**0.306**	**<0.01**
Internal Branding	----	----	**0.598**	**<0.01**	**0.408**	**<0.01**
Moderation						
Adhocracy*Strategic Brand Management	----	----	----	----	-0.027	0.17
Adhocracy*Internal Branding	----	----	----	----	**-0.084**	**0.04**
R-Square	**0.341**		**0.589**		**0.494**	

*Values in **bold** are significant at 95% CI (One-tailed test)*

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Overview

This dissertation explored the various dimensions of brand management capability and their association with brand performance. Intellectual capital (structural capital, human capital and relational capital) is identified as the key resource for brand management capability. Internal branding, strategic brand management, and market information processes (information acquisition, information transmission, conceptual utilization, and instrument utilization) are considered to be important brand management processes. Finally, the types of organization culture that support brand management resources and processes are also discussed. First, the discussion on the key findings from the hypotheses testing is presented. The next two sections discuss the theoretical implications, and managerial takeaways. The last section provides the limitations of this study, and outlines future research directions.

5.2. Discussion

Brand managers' need to co-ordinate with individuals from different departments within an organization (Low and Fullerton, 1994) highlights the importance of human capital. Specifically, brand managers have to deal with production, distribution, advertising, sales, public relations, and legal teams to enhance and/or maintain brand performances. Thus, the association between human capital and brand performance is positive and significant. It also makes inherent sense that relational capital is associated with brand performance, especially since relational capital is closely related to marketing activities (Bontis, 1998). Relational capital involves maintaining relationships with various stakeholders to enhance business performance (Bontis, 1998; Subramaniam and Youndt, 2004). The positive association of relational capital and brand performance identified in this study is consistent with previous literature on relationship marketing (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995).

As discussed previously, there was no support for the positive association between structural capital and brand performance. One possible explanation could be that structural capital represents tacit knowledge, which takes time to transfer. Considering that most brand managers have a short tenure (Benett, 2011; Lodish and Mela, 2007), the knowledge embedded in organizations is not utilized to the maximum possible extent. Another explanation is that the organizational policies and procedures are not conducive to the brand management function. Cui et al. (2014) find that brand managers' understanding of organizational policies and procedures has little effect on brand performance. This lack of association between structural capital and brand performance is also consistent with the notion of marketing department's declining influence in organizations (Clark et al., 2014; Homburg et al., 2015). Top management drives the development of organization-wide policies and procedures (Bontis, 1999). The declining influence of marketing department in organizations impedes the development of firm-level policies and procedures that help in building and sustaining long-term market-based assets that include brands (Feng et al., 2015).

Hypotheses 2 to 5 looked at the association between organizational culture types and brand performance. Clan culture did not have an association with brand performance. This result was expected considering that clan culture is focused on internal operations and not at the market factors (Deshpande et al., 1993; Ouchi, 1980). Brand successes depend on the ability of organizations to manage both the internal operations and external stakeholder expectations. Specifically, brand awareness and brand image are components of consumer based brand equity (Keller, 1993) that are co-created by the consumers and other stakeholders (Dijk et al., 2014;

Iglesias and Bonet, 2012; Merz et al., 2009). In the recent years, consumers are playing a much more active role in determining brand value. As brand performance is influenced by both internal and environmental factors, clan culture does not directly determine brand performance.

Interestingly, we found evidence for the positive association between hierarchy culture and brand performance. The result for this hypothesis is counter-intuitive considering that hierarchy is focused more on the internal maintenance of the organization (Deshpande et al., 1993). Hierarchy culture revolves around developing rules and regulations and promoting uniformity within an organization. Hierarchy culture also leads to the creation of a formalized structure (Moorman, 1995). The formalized structure may reduce brand managers' responsiveness to the external environment (Hurley and Hult, 1998; Jaworski and Kohli, 1993), subsequently impacting the brand performance. However, one possible explanation for the positive association between hierarchy culture and brand performance is that the formalized structure facilitates an organization to consistently fulfill brand value expectations. The presence of rules and procedures helps reduce the discrepancies in the level of value provided to stakeholders. Since one of the core requirements for successful brand management is the ability of an organization to create, communicate and deliver consistent value (De Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003; Keller, 1993; Keller and Lehmann, 2006), we find evidence for the positive association between hierarchy and brand performance.

Finally, adhocracy culture and brand performance are not positively associated. Adhocracy culture is characterized by fluid organizational structure and risk-taking, which may lead to inconsistency in the value-creation processes. In addition, the management of brands have become much more strategic in the past few decades (Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993; Keller and Lehmann, 2006). The strategic movement of brands is also associated with building long-term consistency (Keller, 1993), which leads to organizations achieving higher-than-average profits on the brands.

Risk-taking and frequent changes in brand management may impact the consistency of value creation and delivery processes, thereby affecting the long term brand performances (Keller 1993; Keller and Lehmann, 2006). Thus, we find no support for the association between adhocracy culture and brand performance.

As expected, both internal branding and strategic brand management are positively associated with brand performance. Both these internal-operations focused processes are necessary to create, sustain and develop strong brands, and this result is consistent with previous literature (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). However, the results provided limited support for the association among market information processes and brand performance. Information acquisition, information transmission, and conceptual utilization were not associated with brand performance. Only, instrument utilization was positively associated with brand performance. However, when the four information sub-processes are considered to reflect a second-order construct labeled as market information processes (refer Figure 4 and Table 6), the resulting construct is positively associated with brand performance. One explanation for this result is that the brand managers are no longer involved in gathering or transmitting information to various parts of the organization, but rather focused on utilizing the information. In organizations that have multiple brands, market information processes may be managed at higher levels, and/or by teams that are not directly a part of the brand teams. Another explanation is that brand managers believe that the utilization of information is more important than the collection and transmission of information in determining brand performance. In their review of literature on absorptive capacity, Zahra and George (2002) also allude to the higher importance of the utilization of knowledge. Thus, only the direct utilization of knowledge is associated with brand performance, while the overarching importance of information processes is not being represented. Moorman (1995) also finds similar results for the association between information acquisition and information transmission processes with new product performance. This result does not imply that managers do not value information, but rather that organizations do not sufficiently emphasize the importance of all the market information sub-processes for brand management. However, this result is concerning, especially since brand competition is arising from non-traditional competitors (Varadarajan, 2010). Brand managers need to understand the importance of all the processes involved in information collection and acquisition to successfully manage brands (Urde et al., 2013). This is also consistent with the literature on brand value co-creation, which focuses on gaining and applying knowledge from relevant stakeholders (Iglesias et al., 2013; Ind et al., 2012; Payne et al., 2009; Vallaster and Lindgreen, 2011). Organizations should identify means to emphasize the importance of information collection, transmission and utilization to brand managers. The next sections discuss the theoretical and managerial implications.

Finally, the post-hoc analysis pertaining to the role of organizational culture in exploring the reveal the impact of organizational (refer tables 7 to 10). As expected, all four organizational culture types (clan, hierarchy, market, and adhocracy) help explore the two internal operations focused brand management processes (strategic brand management and internal branding). Interestingly, clan culture has no influence on the strength of relationships between brand management processes and brand performance. Clan culture emphasizes on the internal operations of an organization, and is not oriented towards the external environment (Moorman, 1995). Therefore, clan culture does not help in exploitation of the brand management processes. Both hierarchy and market culture types strengthen the relationship between the internal brand management processes and brand performance. Hierarchy culture allows for the development of rules and procedures, which enhance the efficiency of both the brand management processes

(Deshpande et al., 1993, Deshpande and Farley, 2004). Market culture focuses on gaining a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Deshpande et al., 1993; Moorman, 1995), and is able to maximize the role of brand management processes in improving brand performance. Lastly, adhocracy culture weakens the association between internal branding and brand performance. This result is not surprising, as internal branding requires consistent communication and routines. Internal branding focuses on enhancing efficiency through creating bonds between employees and brands (Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). However, adhocracy culture emphasizes on risk-taking and involves frequent change in the organizational structure, based on the environmental needs (Moorman, 1995), which hinders the relationship between internal branding and brand performance. The following sections discuss the theoretical and managerial implications.

5.3. Theoretical Implications

This dissertation applies the organizational capability theory (Collis, 1994; Grant, 1996b; Nelson and Winter, 1982) to conceptualize the brand management capability. Extant literature has not explored marketing-capabilities in detail (Cui et al., 2014; Day, 2014; Madhavaram and Hunt, 2008). Marketing-capabilities, especially, brand management capability is important considering that brands allow organizations to extract higher rents and prices from customers and other stakeholders (Keller and Lehman, 2006; Merz et al., 2009). In addition, the organizational perspective of brand management has been largely overlooked (Cui et al., 2014; Keller and Lehman, 2006; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). Previous studies have examined only one component (systems) of brand management capability (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Lee et al., 2008). The conceptual development of this dissertation addresses these concerns by identifying all the three components that constitute a brand management capability - resources, organizational culture and processes, thus contributing the extant literature on brand management.

Extant literature has highlighted the importance of knowledge being important to brand management, no formal attempts were made to include knowledge as the primary resource needed for brand management capability. The author argues that knowledge, operationalized through intellectual capital, forms the primary resource for brand management capability. This is consistent with the contemporary view of brand management, especially, considering the rising importance of brand value co-creation (Iglesias et al., 2013; Merz et al., 2009).

The existing literature on brand management capability also overlooks the role of organizational culture. Several authors (Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013) consider brand orientation (Urde 1994, 1999) to be the representation of organizational culture. However, orientation is just one aspect of organizational culture (Slater and Narver, 1994), and is not a complete measure of organizational culture. To comprehensively measure the role of the organizational culture, the author includes the organizational culture typology put forth by Deshpande et al. (1993). Thus, this dissertation adds to the existing literature on brand management capability by conceptualizing the organizational culture with which brand management capability can be developed within an organization.

This dissertation also identifies market information processes as the additional set of processes (in addition to internal branding and strategic brand management) required in developing brand management capability in organizations. Previous literature has indicated that the collection and utilization of market information is essential for managing and sustaining brands (Keller and Lehman, 2006; Morgan, et al., 2009; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). However, these studies do not identify processes that can constitute brand management capability. Consistent with literature on co-creation of value and brand management (Iglesias et al., 2013; Ind et al., 2012; Merz et al., 2009; Urde et al., 2013), this dissertation proposes market information processes as the third set of processes, needed for developing the brand management capability. The importance of this contribution lies in assessing the brand managers' perceptions about the role of market information processes in influencing brand performance. Although brand managers associate market information processes with brand performance, they do not associate all the sub-processes of market information with performance (Cui et al., 2014; Moorman, 1995), highlighting a concern that needs to be addressed both from an academic and managerial perspective.

The next contribution of this dissertation lies in the empirical examination of the relationships between the brand management resources, organizational culture and processes with brand performance. Few studies have empirically examined the impact of organizational factors on brand performance (Cui et al., 2014; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013). This dissertation contributes to the literature by providing an outlook of the aspects brand managers view as important in determining brand performances. Specifically, the results of this dissertation provide evidence for the positive association between the components of brand management capability and brand performance. The results of this dissertation indicate that marketing capabilities, specifically, brand management capability, is associated with organizational performance. This is consistent with the organizational capability literature (Eisenhardt and Santos, 2000; Grant, 1996b; Nelson and Winter, 1982) and provides evidence that marketing-capabilities are important to an organization.

The lack of literature on marketing-capabilities is highlighted at a time when the marketing function is trying to re-establish its importance in organizations (Clark et al., 2014; Homburg et al., 2015). As a consequence of not being able to establish the role of marketing on organizational performance, there has been an eventual decline in its influence in strategic decision making (Kumar and Shah, 2009; Nath and Mahajan, 2008, 2011; Homburg et al., 2015). Marketing is also losing its influence in academia (Clark et al., 2014), as it is unable to establish its unique value-addition for organizations/literature. Therefore this dissertation addresses the recent calls in literature to examine the strategic orientation and organizational functions of marketing (Clark et al., 2014; Day, 2014; Homburg et al., 2015).

5.4. Managerial Implications

From the managerial perspective, this dissertation's results provide some insights. First, it provides an outline for organizations seeking to create brand management capability. Few organizations have developed strong brand management capability (Cui et al., 2014; Keller and Lehman, 2006; Santos-Vijande et al., 2014). In addition to developing the intellectual capital and brand management processes, firms need to develop the right organizational culture to successfully develop brand management capability. Only some organizations have created the structure that specifies the relationships different brands. The brand management structure in an organization becomes much more complex when multiple brands are involved (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). These complexities involve defining brand roles, establishing the relationships between brands, defining brand manager roles, and responding to the environmental changes. Brand managers are responsible for building the long-term brand equity without compromising on the short term results (Lodish and Mela, 2007; Urde et al., 2013). As the management of brands is becoming more strategic, brand managers require the right kind of internal organizational environment where they can execute their responsibilities effectively. Considering the complex environment in which brands need to be managed, developing the right organizational culture, specifically, a *market culture* that emphasizes on gaining a competitive advantage through building marketing based assets would help in developing brand management capability (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; De Chernatony, 2001; Urde, 1999).

Consistent with the previous findings (Cui et al., 2014), this dissertation's results show that structural capital is not associated with brand performance. Brand managers do not feel that an organization's knowledge that is embedded in its policies, systems, procedures, etc., influence the brand performance. As marketing influence in the top management reduces (Nath and Mahajan, 2011; Homburg et al.., 2015), organizations are not able to be develop/embed knowledge that is specific to building marketing based assets. The high turnover of chief marketing officers (Nath and Mahajan, 2011; Vranika, 2014) further highlights this concern. This result also implies that organizations may be becoming reliant on brand managers. Although brands have become more strategic, brand managers still are responsible for the managing the short-term and long-term performances of a brand. Therefore, this heavy reliance on brand managers could be a potential concern for organizations – if brand managers were to leave the organization, the brands they manage could suffer as a result (Cui et al., 2014). This situation often happens when an organization relies too heavily on the individuals (Palmatier et al., 2007; Roman and Iacobucci, 2010). Brand managers' tenure are short (Bennett, 2011), and the heavy reliance on brand managers could impact the value-creation ability of organizations in the long run.

Furthermore, the identified lack of association between market information processes and brand performance is particularly concerning for organizations. The results indicate that brand managers do not attribute the role of market information processes (except instrument utilization) in determining brand performance. The growing power of customers, suppliers and external stakeholders contribute to the rise in prominence importance of brand co-creation (Brodie et al., 2013; Healy and McDonagh, 2013; Iglesias et al., 2013), that underscores the need for continuously gathering and transmitting market information. Haas et al. (2010) find that brand managers often deal with insufficient information. This information asymmetry is also prevalent at a time when competition is arising from non-traditional competitors (Varadarajan, 2010). For example, Apple Watch has taken away market share from luxury watch makers who never considered Apple to be a threat (Wiggers, 2015). In addition, the speed at which an organization is able to acquire, transmit and utilize information determines its success in the market (Day, 1994; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Lee et al., 2012). To successfully manage all these aspects of market information, brand managers need to be actively involved in the market information processes. Thus, top management in organizations should emphasize the importance of market information processes to brand managers.

A final implication of the study revolves around organizations recognizing the importance of the marketing function and marketing-capabilities, specifically brand management capability for the value-creation process. Brand manager tenures in organizations are still short (Bennett, 2011), which affect the manner in which organizations can build brand management capabilities. Although both academicians and practitioners (Aaker, 1992; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 1999; Cui et al., 2014; O'Cass and Ngo, 2007; Santos-Vijande et al., 2013; Mirzaei et al., 2015) have called for long-term focus on brands and subsequent changes to the brand manager evaluation process, only few organizations such as P&G and Unilever have incorporated these changes. This is perhaps one of the reasons that few organizations have developed brand management capability, while others have not. Therefore, organizations should relook into the manner in which brand manager performance is evaluated, especially the evaluations that are primarily focused on sales and/or market share (O'Cass and Ngo, 2007). A long term view of assessing brand performance will allow brand managers to focus on creating strong bonds with stakeholders without focusing too much on quarterly sales. This long term view will also allow organizations to identify means to build firm-specific brand management knowledge.

5.5. Limitations and Future Research Avenues

This dissertation has some limitations which can be addressed in subsequent research. From the methodological perspective, this dissertation looked at cross-sectional data using a single point key respondent survey. Although key respondent surveys are useful, it is considered that acquiring data from multiple sources would enhance the findings of the study by reducing the common method bias. In addition, considering that brands provide additional value over a long period of time, a longitudinal study would be needed to better assess the association between the components of brand management capability and brand performance.

This dissertation explored the direct effects among various components of brand management capability (organizational culture, resources, and processes) and brand performance. Some researchers hold that the organizational culture leads to the development of resources, which then lead to the development of processes. Finally, processes would lead to superior performance for the organization (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993; Day, 1994; Dierickx and Cool, 1989). In addition, resources and processes can have a non-recursive relationship (Amit and Schoemaker, 1993; Dierickx and Cool, 1989). These relationships need to be tested in future studies.

Finally, this dissertation collected information from individuals who were working in the US. Organizational culture is largely dependent on the firm's country of origin (Deshpande and Farley, 2004). Future studies should consider collecting data from an international respondent base to test for the hypothesized relationships. Brand management capability has not been explored in the international context to great extent (Chabowski et al., 2013), and future research should be directed to address this area.

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