THE EFFECT OF CORPORATE BRAND PERSONALITY ON CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEE'S PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR AND THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF BRAND IDENTIFICATION IN JAPANESE AUTOMOTIVE SERVICE SECTOR

SARAKUL SUKORTPROMMEE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

RAJAMANGALA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY THANYABURI

ACADEMIC YEAR 2013

THE EFFECT OF CORPORATE BRAND PERSONALITY ON CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEE'S PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR AND THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF BRAND IDENTIFICATION IN JAPANESE AUTOMOTIVE SERVICE SECTOR

SARAKUL SUKORTPROMMEE

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

RAJAMANGALA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY THANYABURI

ACADEMIC YEAR 2013

Dissertation Title	The Effect of Corporate Brand Personality on Customer-Contact Employee's Prosocial Behavior and the Mediating Effect of Brand Identification in Japanese Automotive Service Sector
Name – Surname	Mr. Sarakul Sukortprommee
Program	Business Administration
Dissertation Advisor	Associate Professor Panisa Mechinda, Ph.D.
Dissertation Co-Advisor	Miss Umawasee Sriboonlue, D.B.A.
Academic Year	2013

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

.... Chairman

(Associate Professor Kanlaya Vanichbuncha, Ph.D.)

.... Committee

(Associate Professor Chanongkorn Kuntonbutr, D.B.A.)

.... Committee

(Mr. Krisada Chienwattanasook, D.B.A.)

..................Panisa Mechinda.................. Committee

(Associate Professor Panisa Mechinda, Ph.D.)

..................U. Sriboonlue.................. Committee

(Ms. Umawasee Sriboonlue, D.B.A.)

Approved by the Faculty of Business Administration, Rajamangala University of Technology Thanyaburi in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

....Dean of Faculty of Business administration

(Associate Professor Chanongkorn Kuntonbutr, D.B.A.)

December 2013

Dissertation Title	The Effect of Corporate Brand Personality on Customer-Contact Employee's Prosocial Behavior and the Mediating Effect of Brand Identification in Japanese Automotive Service Sector
Name – Surname	Mr. Sarakul Sukortprommee
Program	Business Administration
Dissertation Advisor	Associate Professor Panisa Mechinda, Ph.D.
Dissertation Co-Advisor	Miss Umawasee Sriboonlue, D.B.A.
Academic Year	2013

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification on the relationship between corporate brand personality and organizational commitment in Japanese automotive service sector. Sampling method used was quota sampling. There were 1,061 valid questionnaires out of 1,800 questionnaires which were collected through both post and personal gathering. Data analysis employed including Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

The results revealed that corporate brand personality had an influence on personal and social identification. Secondly, personal identification had an influence on social identification. However, it had no direct effect on personal behavior but it had indirect effect on prosocial behavior via social identification and organizational commitment. Thirdly, social identification had both direct and indirect effects on prosocial behavior via organizational commitment. Finally, organizational commitment had direct effect on prosocial behavior.

Keywords: Corporate Brand Personality, Prosocial Behavior, Brand Identification, Organizational Commitment

Acknowledgements

Firstly and foremost, I would like to express my appreciation and gratefulness to my very-kind advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Panisa Mechinda who also share me her valuable time in commenting, supporting, suggesting and editing my report. Also, I would like to speak many thanks to my colleague who also acts as my co-advisor, Dr. Umawasee Sriboonlue, for her comments and recommendations during my research. Next, I would like to express many thanks to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kanlaya Vanichbuncha, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Chanongkorn Kuntonbutr, Dr. Krisada Chienwattanasook, and Dr. Khahan Na-nan for sharing their worthiest time in being my research study committee. I also would like to give Assistant Professor Dr. Wanchai Prasertsri my heartiest thanks for his provision of study program information and encouragement.

Apart from that, I would like to entirely thanks for the Faculty of Business Administration at Rajamangala University of Technology Thanyaburi (RMUTT), which offers and supports me with the opportunity of works and especially being my donor of my study. Without them, I would not have chance to hold the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration.

My next thanks must be delivered to my beloved mother, sister, brother and all other relatives for their cheering words, suggestion and guidance in my life standing. Many times I felt down, they are always side with me. Furthermore, I also need to announce many thanks to my respondents to researcher questionnaires, my friends and former students in social network who introduced relevant persons for questionnaires reply. Lastly, my special thanks need to be given to Dr. Orawee Sriboonlue for her assistance in looking and checking as well as editing my English writing report, and my youngest brother, Mr. Suraporn Onputtha, for his knowledge on new useful software related to graphics, his cheering words, and so forth.

Sarakul Sukortprommee

Table of Contents

Table of Contents (Continued)

Page

Table of Contents (Continued)

List of Tables

Page

List of Tables (Continued)

Page

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Statement of the Problems

With the impacts of globalization, the direction of economic, social development and economic structure in each country from all over the world have been shifted from agriculture to manufacture, trade, and service while the market is also changed. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for the service sector has been continuously increasing. Data showed that the contributions of GDP in 2011 in each of the countries around the world consisted of 76.7% in the United States, 77.7% in the United Kingdom, 43.3% in China, 55.6% in India, and 42.5% in Thailand. Furthermore, the service sector has widely become a dominant force and a source of job opportunities (Cali, Ellis, & te Velde, 2008).

In the service sector, there are many service business offerings such as infrastructure services (energy, telecommunications, and transportation), financial services, health and education services contributing to healthy and well-trained workforce and legal and accountancy services. In Thailand the interesting service nowadays is transportation, which also includes vehicle sales and its maintenance services. The Automotive Intelligent Unit under Thailand Automobile Institute (2012) revealed that total number of vehicles sold in the domestic market in 2011 were 794,081 vehicles, comprising 360,444 passenger cars, 433,637 commercial vehicles, 365,636 one-ton pickups, and 327,463 pure pickups. Due to the increasing number of vehicle sale, it is unavoidable to mention that the service businesses such as after-sale services, especially car service center, would seek an opportunity to exist in the market. In the study, the researcher has focused on after-sale services provided by the automotive dealer companies. Thailand Automobile Institute referred the listed companies in the report of 2011. In addition, the competition in working time also causes a huge impact, which creates the needs of car services as a result. For instance, when the car users want to check their automobile system, wash their car, change the wheels, or even change the lubricant, they would first think of the services of dealers from which they purchased the cars rather than do it by themselves. Nonetheless, the success of this business type is from not only time competition but also the way how to delight customers and always keep them return for companies' services. Particularly, employees are trained, educated, and committed in order to serve customers' needs, to deliver their satisfaction, and to create an organization image and brand perception.

According to an increase of Japanese automotive service sectors, it is in corresponding to the reviews of many researchers indicating that the marketers nowadays have been using various marketing strategies to keep consumers. One of the strategies is organizational brand image enrichment. The concept connected to brand image enhancement, explored by marketing researchers, is the concept of brand personality (Plummer, 2000). Marketing variables related to brand personality are (1) the image of the product or service provider (corporate image), (2) the image of the product or service itself, and (3) the image of customers (Biel, 1993). When brand personality is more unique, it is then more difficult to imitate.

Furthermore, brand personality could develop a good connection to the brand (Doyle, 1992) encouraging customers to select appropriate brands for their right personalities (D. A. Aaker, 1996). This is another approach to create the brand in the minds of consumers by necessarily developing not only the brand of product but also the corporate brand.

Shen, Bei, and Wu (2006) suggested that corporate brand plays crucial roles in determining employees' personality in the organization. Besides, service companies should emphasize on their employees by creating job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees rather than merely selling products. When employees are satisfied and committed, they would be more reflective of the company's brand ambassador and work harder to attain customer satisfaction. Thus, customer satisfaction and loyalty are truly related. Moreover, many companies also recognize their employees as their valuable assets, observed by various successful companies which have been creating a corporate culture for employees to match personality and brand promise (Ellwood & Taylor, 2001). However, there were a few researchers investigating the effect of corporate brand personality on customer service employees in the service sector. In conclusion, brand personality plays an important role in the competitive markets and would relatively affect personal and social identifications on organizational commitment and prosocial behavior.

In this study, the researcher concentrated on the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector provided by major international vehicle seller brands in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area (BMA). The major dealers' organizational structure has gathered many knowledgeable employees with intensive skills and expertise. Therefore, companies in this industry were appropriate for the study.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

1.2.1 To examine the effects of the five dimensions of corporate brand personality on personal and social identification in Japanese automotive service sector.

1.2.2 To examine the effects of the five dimensions of corporate brand personality on organizational commitment and prosocial behavior through personal identification and social identification in Japanese automotive service sector.

1.2.3 To investigate the effects of personal and social identifications on organizational commitment and prosocial behavior in Japanese automotive service sector.

1.2.4 To investigate the effect of personal identification on social identification in Japanese automotive service sector.

1.2.5 To investigate the effect of organizational commitment on prosocial behavior in Japanese automotive service sector.

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 RQ1: Do the five dimensions of corporate brand personality affect personal identification and social identification in Japanese automotive service sector?

1.3.2 RQ2: Do the five dimensions of corporate brand personality affect organizational commitment and prosocial behavior through personal identification and social identification in Japanese automotive service sector?

1.3.3 RQ3: Do personal identification and social identification affect organizational commitment and prosocial behavior in Japanese automotive service sector?

1.3.4 RQ4: Does personal identification affect social identification in Japanese automotive service sector?

1.3.5 RQ5: Does organizational commitment affect prosocial behavior in Japanese automotive service sector?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

Influence of Corporate Brand Personality on Brand Identification (Personal and Social Identification)

Due to the study of brand personality on brand identification, many researchers have concentrated on consumer-brand relationship. Nonetheless, this study specifically focused on the concept of brand identification in an internal corporation setting. Corporate brand personality was adopted from Aaker's five dimensions of brand personality including competence, sincerity, excitement, sophistication, and ruggedness.

Brand identification could be separated into two categories which are personal identification and social identification (Del Rio, Vazquez, & Iglesias, 2001; Shen, Bei, Wu, Kahle, & Kim, 2006). Personal identification starts from having a relationship match between a brand and self, which is related to personal identity. Personal identification is a classification of being self-established on definite traits such as being elegant and successful.

Meanwhile, social identification is a classification of self-established on a definite social group or social class. Social identification could be divided into public self and collective self, both of which are displayed to social others (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Formerly, social identification increases when a brand comprises the association of one's social group to which they aspire to belong or feel like the owners (Long & Schiffman, 2000).

In this study, corporate brand personality and brand identification have been focused on employee-brand relationship by using social identity theory (Tajfel, 2010) and the theory of brand personality based on self-concept regarding personal ideas and feeling about self. Thus, two hypotheses were conducted based on the concept as shown in the following:

H1: Corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of an employee; and

H2: Corporate brand personality has an influence on social identification of an employee.

Influence of Personal Identification and Social Identification on Organizational Commitment and Prosocial Behavior

Organizational commitment is defined as a strong feeling of responsibility that staff of the organization desires to achieve the organization's missions and goals (Ugboro, 2006). Chen, Tsui, and Farh (2002) also mentioned that it is a willing-to-do idea of employees that has strong intention to gain desirable work outcome, including employee job satisfaction, motivation, and partnership. In addition, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) also stated that organizational commitment could be defined as a degree of employees' emotion that they feel about the organization as employers and demand to still stay at the organization and intend to additionally work for the organization.

In relation to personal identification and social identification, it is related to organizational commitment and prosocial behavior because when people with different personalities, called personal identification coming from thought, feeling, and chemistry, have good attitudes toward the work, they would be reflective of positive manner toward their commitments to provide such a good work and highly service quality to customers (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002). The concept could also explain social identification since it comes from individuals influenced by the environment and socialized into a group. Herewith, the hypotheses were conducted based on this concept as shown in the following:

H3: Employees' personal identification has an influence on social identification;

H4: Employees' personal identification has an influence on organizational commitment; and

H5: Employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment.

Many researchers mentioned that organizational commitment is related to prosocial behavior. This study defined that prosocial behavior is employees' volunteering actions contributed together with their extra role, beyond their normal assignment described in the documents, to increase an efficiency of the organization.

George and Brief (1992) defined prosocial behavior as the acts that carry out the products and maintain the well-being and integrity of others. Employees with highly committed feeling to their work would contribute their abilities to have a prosocial behavior in order to carry out and increase the products and services with high efficiency. Therefore, when organizational commitment is created for employees, prosocial behavior would also be increased. In other words, organizational commitment positively influences prosocial behavior.

Prosocial behavior is defined as the acts of carrying out products and maintaining the well-being and integrity others, providing contributions to the organizations or to other individuals (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). In addition, it is believed that personal identification and social identification are related to prosocial behavior. To establish prosocial behavior, the organization must provide a beneficial and satisfied treatment for their employees. For instance, if employees are fairly treated from the organization, they would have more positive attitude toward their jobs and get them to work for the job harder. Moreover, Organ (1988) also supported that if employees have been positively motivated, they would also have more social responsibility and relationship among society which would be intentionally being contributed to their work extraordinarily. Thus, to have fair and good treatment for employees in order to create prosocial behaviors, understanding personalities about attitude, wants, and needs is also important. This treatment, such as staffing them on the right job with matched personality and rewarding them by matching with their desires, could help increase their good feeling to the company and finally contribute good things for customers and the company besides ordinary (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002). Moorman

(1991) has tested the correlation about treatment fairness in the organization (both distributive justice and procedural justice), and it is revealed that citizenship of employees would have more citizenship behavior. Therefore, the relationship between personal and social identification and prosocial behavior were stated in the following hypotheses:

H6: Employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior;

H7: Employees' social identification has an influence on prosocial behavior; and

H8: Organizational commitment has an influence on prosocial behavior.

1.5 Conceptual Framework

Aaker (1997) developed brand personality scale (BPS) to measure brand personality by intentionally focusing on testing corporate brand personality with five personality traits in each dimension. Personality is a useful variable in the consumer's choice of brands. The brands selected by consumers are usually in accordance with their own personalities. This research also revealed that the personal-social identification was also involved in the scope of the study because brand personality was related to personal-social identification. For instance, when customers want to choose some products, they would mostly look into what is matched with their preferences and personalities according to what they were perceived by the product images or brand (Milewicz & Herbig, 1994). The word "brand" is reflective of personal-social identification of employees in the organization (Philip & Lane, 2005). Lastly, dependent variables were organizational commitment and prosocial behavior. As a result, the dependent variables mentioned above would be influenced by personal-social identification.

The conceptual model of this research was illustrated in figure 1-1. Five personality traits in each dimension were adapted by using the dimensions of Aaker (1997). These dimensions included competence (reliable, intelligent, successful, and confident), sincerity (down-to-earth, honest, wholesome, and sincere), excitement (exciting, spirited, imaginative, and up-to-date), sophistication (upper class, glamorous, good looking, and charming), and ruggedness (tough, rugged, outdoorsy, and masculine).

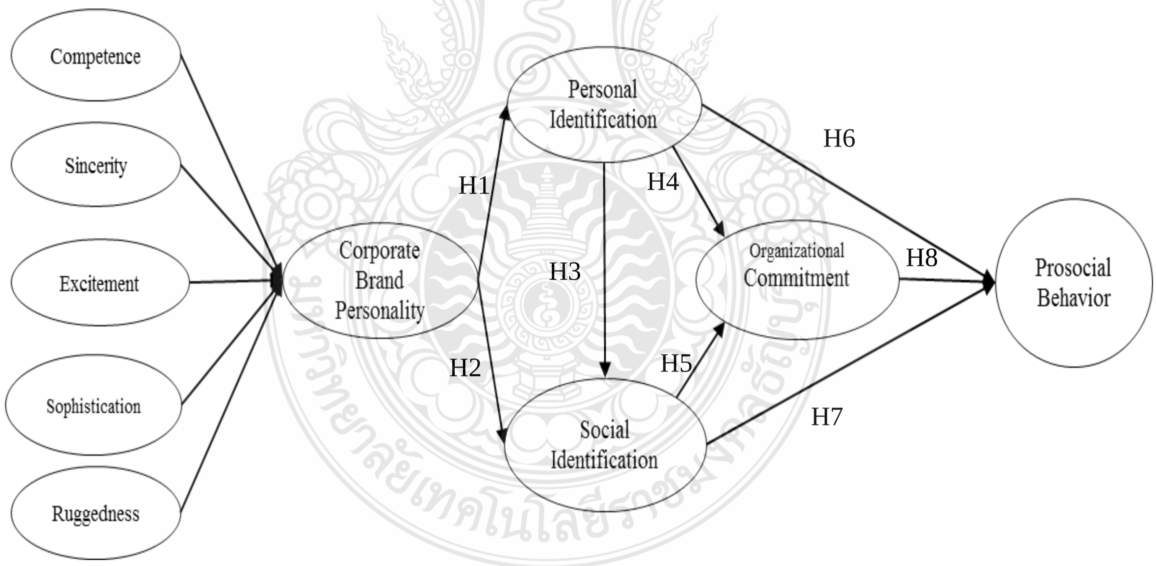

Figure 1-1 Conceptual model

1.6 Definition of Terms

Brand: The name or symbols of the goods as well as logo, trademark, or packaging of goods and services (D. A. Aaker, 1991).

Personality: The distinctive patterns of behavior, including thoughts and emotions, which characterize each individual's adaptation to the situations of his or her behavior (D. A. Aaker, 1996).

Brand personality: The set of human characteristic associated with a brand. This definition encompasses demographic characteristics, lifestyle characteristics, and human personality traits (D. A. Aaker, 1996; Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005)**.**

Brand personality dimension: The distinct personality trait associated with the brand. There are five dimensions of brand personality including competence, sincerity, excitement, sophistication, and ruggedness (J. L. Aaker, 1997).

Competence: It denotes dependability and achievement similar to conscientiousness.

Sincerity: Attributes related to warmth and honesty which are also presented in agreeableness.

Excitement: It captures the energy and activity elements of extraversion.

Sophistication: It captures more aspirational images associated with wealth and status.

Ruggedness: It is characterized by attributes to toughness, ruggedness, outdoorsy, and masculinity.

Brand identification: The consequence of people who feel about identification with a brand whose image is congruent with their self-concepts and prefer to use the brand (K. L. Keller, 1993).

Personal identification: It refers to the idea and perception of consumers that have identified their self with some brand that they buys or uses and developed their feeling, paralleling with it (Graeff, 1996). In addition, personal identification also refers to a set of attributes, beliefs, desires, and principles of action that a person thinks to distinguish him/her in such a way of individual unique attributes (Fearon, 1999; Ting-Toomey, 2005).

Social identification: It refers to the degree which brand's ability can make a consumer be able to define him/her (to be integrated or dissociated) from the group of individuals that makes up the social environment (Long & Schiffman, 2000).

Organizational commitment: The strength of the feeling of responsibility that an employee has toward the mission of an organization. Organizational commitment can also be defined as employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization and its goals (Ugboro, 2006). It can be characterized by identification, involvement, and loyalty (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Loyalty: An employee's acceptance of and belief in the primary values and goals of the organization.

Involvement: The level of effort putting forth by an employee for the benefit of the organization.

Identification: The degree to which an employee demonstrates a desire to remain a member of the organization.

Prosocial behavior: It is defined as "positive social acts carried out to produce and maintain the well-being and integrity of others" which has been framed as many forms of employee behavior, including organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988), and contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). It can be divided into two types consisting of role-prescribed behavior and extra-role behavior.

*Role-prescribed behavior***:** It refers to behavior of employees who perform their tasks to serve customers of the company (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) under the specific form of tasks such as formally descript in the document, individual assignment, and goal statement of the organization.

Extra-role behavior: The behaviors of employees or subordinates of an organization intentionally performing the best tasks beyond their normal assigned requirement to serve the customers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Service sector: The services refer to deed, effort, or performance of employee that in car service center (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997).

Japanese automotive service sector: The commercial enterprise, particularly in Japanese automotive brands, that provides work performed in an expert manner by an individual or team for the benefit of its customers. The typical service business provides intangible, cleaning, landscaping, education, insurance, treatment, and transportation service.

1.7 Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

There are delimitations and limitations of the study. Regarding the nature of this study, a number of limitations were addressed as follows:

1.7.1 The studying area only focused on service provision of three Japanese automotive brands (Toyota, Honda, and Nissan) in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area.

1.7.2 Informants for this study were staff of Japanese automotive brands (Toyota, Honda, and Nissan) who were contacting with customers such as managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff.

1.7.3 The number of Japanese automotive service centers and their data were collected merely in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area and based on information availability from their websites.

1.7.4 The study concentrated on the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector. Other variables which may affect to variables of this study were not included. As a result, generalizability of the research results was conducted with care.

1.7.5 The study also had a limitation on the period of data collection which was specifically conducted only from August 2012 to October 2012.

1.7.6 The study did not study and compare other automotive brands such as Western and even in the same regional countries.

1.8 Contributions of the Study

This study aimed to determine the effect of corporate brand personality (five personality traits) on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior (role-prescribed and extra-role behavior) and organizational commitment (affective commitment) and the mediating effect of brand identification (personal and social identification) in Japanese automotive service sector. The results would help create contributions as follows.

This study could be confirmed as the first study concentrating on the effects among the corporate brand personality, brand identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior in Japanese automotive service sector. Furthermore, it also confirmed the theory that corporate brand personality had an effect on organizational commitment and prosocial behavior.

The findings of the study confirmed the literature review on brand and personality that they were associated with each other. In terms of the organization itself, the study helped design proper employee management to increase an ability of better brand management and performance in the field of relational marketing. Regarding customers' perception toward the organization, the study allowed consumers to recognize products and services with the uniqueness of brand personality.

The study also supported the literature review on the relationship of personal and social identification that they have acted as the mediating effect of brand personality, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior. The results showed the contributions that had both direct and indirect effects to the organization and involvers. These identifications were the reflections of how an individual (life, value, and personality) and a group of people (social recognition, social respect, and social status) behave and perform to benefit the organization.

Another finding from the literature review also displayed a confirmation about the relationship between organizational commitment and prosocial behavior. The study pursuits that when an employee at a particular organization pinpoints him/herself as an employee, he/she would desire (have commitment to the organization) to remain at the organization and is willing to work extra for the organization (prosocial behavior).

Moreover, people who involve in customer-contact management, such as managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff, especially in Japanese automotive service sector, could benefit from the contributions of the findings. They could adopt them into their employee management. With all aforementioned confirmations, it could be confirmed about the possibility to utilize them. In addition, recommendations would also guild on how to recruit employees, enhance their ability, and create and treat them to have commitment through prosocial behavior.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of researches focused on customer satisfaction regarding a congruence of brand personality and personality identification toward customers. Customers are from internal (employees in the organization) and external (customers who receive services/products). Therefore, this chapter reviewed various approaches and combines the key components of the study.

In Japanese automotive service sector, the concepts of a relationship between brand personality and internal customers are strongly bonded because both of them could affect the service quality. Some researchers tried to find factors leading to the cycle of service satisfaction, and their results then turned out in various findings. Moreover, knowing customer satisfaction is not adequate for the company to compete with the competitors in the highly competitive situation. Thus, the company should understand why the internal customers or employees are very important in corporate brand personality in order that they could represent the right personality of employee and corporate brand.

This study concentrated on the internal customers employed in the organization. Their personality, including general attitudes and behaviors, would be reflective of the corporate image and could create an impact to the company as a result. The successful company could rely on the behavioral approach of employees. The behavior of employees and involvers, especially who are in charge of front-line service, plays a crucial role in delivering service. Customers would feel either good or bad to services depending on how employees express their emotion during services offering. As a result, in the service industry, developing human resources to implement the expected functions of the organization shall be taken into consideration. Human resource management can be done in many ways. Many companies use several strategies such as good selection and recruitment, training programs, good communication, and knowledge and skills development in order to enhance employees' abilities to serve and keep customers.

The literature review included various variables related to each other. The structural framework of the study was developed based on the marketing and organizational theories. The main theories were tested by dependent and independent variables through the conceptual model. Consequently, the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector were focused in the study.

The conceptual model was developed based on seven concepts including (1) the concepts of the Japanese automotive service sector, (2) the concepts of internal branding, (3) the concepts and theories of human personality, (4) the concepts and theories of brand personality, (5) the concepts and theories of brand identification: personal and social identification, (6) the concepts of organizational commitment, and (7) the concepts of prosocial behavior.

2.1 The Concepts of Service Sector

This section discussed the concepts of service sector and Japanese automotive service sector which consist of service business concept, service characteristics, and service classification. The details were discussed as shown in the following paragraphs.

2.1.1 Service Business Concept

Currently, the service industry is one of the most important industries playing a crucial role in the world. Statistically, the economic number indicate that two third of the world economy is from the service industry (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder, & Iacobucci, 2001). Factors influencing the continuous growth affect the cultural purchasing behaviors, the characteristics of population, and the change in ways of living including expansions of the service industry itself (Dotchin & Oakland, 1994; Segal-Horn & Davison, 1992). Moreover, the change in governmental policy, technology advancement, control system development, and the efforts in increasing the channel of income addition to the company are also affecting to the growth of the service industry (Lovelock & Wright, 1999). In the service industry, goods and services are products and the components in the marketing mix. Generally, products are referred to objects, devices, or things while service means the deed, the effort, or performance (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997). Due to these meanings, goods and services are different from each other, especially in the aspects of visible physicals leading to differently managing in service and marketing planning (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; De Wulf, et al., 2001).

The American Marketing Association also defines the service industry as it is referred to intangible activities or intangible benefits which the organization gives to the others whereas the service receiver, at the same time, could not be the ownership of it.

Finally, products used in service could be both physical and non-physical (Blankson & Kalafatis, 1999). This definition matches the statement by Kotler (2000) which has been accepted as the most contemporary.

Lovelock and Wright (1999) envisaged that service is the act or the performance which is intangible and could not take an ownership of it. The benefits and values should be at customers by making some changes to customers or their assets.

In addition, Gronroos (2000) addressed that service is the process comprising various activities and reactions between customers and the company's staffs and/or the physical products and/or the system of the company in order to solve the problems for customers, cited in the research of Grönroos (2008).

Kinnear, Bernhardt, and Kathleen (1995) argued that service is the activity which could not be touchable, and there are different levels of performance to satisfy customers. However, the service receivers could neither be the owner of that service action nor keep that service action.

2.1.2 Service Characteristics

Service characteristics are different, and there is no such good words covering the meanings of the variety of services. However, considering about the aforementioned definition, physical goods and services are compared and defined as shown in table 2-1 below.

Table 2-1 Difference between physical goods and services

Physical Goods	Services
Tangible	Intangible
Homogeneous	Heterogeneous
Product and distribution separated from consumption	Production, distribution, and consumption simultaneous process
A thing	An activity or process
Core value produced in factory	Core value produced in the buyer-seller interaction
Customer do not (normally) participate in the production process	Customer participate in the production
Can be kept in stock	Cannot be kept in stock
Transfer of ownership	No transfer of ownership

Source: Grönroos (2000)

There is a difference in each type of services (Kinnear et al., 1995). The obvious differences after comparing physical goods and services are found in four categories (Dotchin & Oakland, 1994; Hoffman & Bateson, 1997; Kotler, 2000; Payne, 1993) consisting of intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, and perishability. Each different service type requires different marketing and management strategies for successful service development (De Wulf, et al., 2001).

Intangibility

The key point making services different from goods is an abstract thing (Kinnear, et al., 1995). Consumers could only see, feel, listen to, or smell services in order to support their purchase decision making. Thus, consumers try to find out their quality assurance by looking for the company's logo, brand, or symbol representing the quality of that particular service (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; Dotchin & Oakland, 1994; Kotler, 2000). They would consider place, employees, equipment, symbol presented on service, price, and the methods of marketing communications (Kotler, 2000). This also includes the policy of the company (Kinnear et al., 1995) and the strong organizational image (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997). According to the aforementioned factors influencing in making purchase decision, the marketers should be aware of arranging services for customers and be careful of service duplication since the service is created based on employees' skills. Due to skills, law is difficult to issue the license or patent for it. Therefore, making differences in the same type of service is difficult to do (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; Dibb & Simkin, 1993; Dotchin & Oakland, 1994; Hoffman & Bateson, 1997).

Inseparability

The second characteristic of services is inseparability, where consumers had appeared in the market before services occurred. In this particular characteristic, the service receivers and senders would participate and react to each other toward the service procedure, which would influence the outcomes of the services (Dotchin & Oakland, 1994; Hoffman & Bateson, 1997; Kotler, 2000). Consumers' participation could help consumers perceive the quality of service through the service environment and systems. Accordingly, the marketers need to design the appropriate relevant factors of services for consumers and employees (Dotchin & Oakland, 1994). Consumers should have more information for making a decision, and employees should have more required skills so that both of them would gain mutual satisfaction (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997; Kotler, 2000). Moreover, this characteristic also helps in designing distribution strategies such as producing and servicing in the "right place" strategy since the service is intangible. More importantly, the marketers could not disregard it (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; Kinnear, et al., 1995).

Heterogeneity

The third characteristic of the service is heterogeneity occurring from both internal and external factors influencing each consumer's preference and perception. Even though the service is delivered by the same employee to the same consumers in the different times, it could also cause the difference in satisfaction perception to both customers and servicers (Dotchin & Oakland, 1994). Therefore, keeping the service quality in the same standard is quite difficult (Kinnear et al., 1995).

Kotler (2000) offers three approaches of quality control. The first approach is to recruit and train staffs for the service. The second one is to design the company's service blueprint for employees in the pattern of flowchart easier to be understood. The final approach is to monitor consumers' satisfaction by using surveys or questionnaires for further development.

Perishability

The fourth characteristic of the service is perishability. Actually, when the service has already been conducted to customers, it cannot be recalled, and it is thus not perishable. The service producers could not produce service in advance and store for sale like the physical goods could do while the service receivers could not also hold the ownership on the service, but they could just keep experiences gained from the service (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; Dotchin & Oakland, 1994; Hoffman & Bateson, 1997; Kinnear, et al., 1995).

When the demand is constant, the situation of the service is also constant. However, when the demand fluctuated, the decision to use the company's resources is also affected (Kinnear, et al., 1995; Kotler, 2000). Thus, the marketers are required to handle this situation by controlling demand and supply for services such as chasing demand by increasing or decreasing resources. Furthermore, controlling influential demand, such as reducing the price for the service when the demand of the service declines and retaining the service excess capacity to fit the existing demand, is needed to be taken into consideration (Dotchin & Oakland, 1994).

Accordingly, the aforementioned characteristics influenced service management and marketing to be more sophisticated (Dibb & Simkin, 1993) and more different than the management and marketing of the goods is. The service marketers need to manage and locate both concrete and abstract resources as well as often communicate and keep the relationship with their customers. Moreover, they need to design the appropriate environmental servicing for customers (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; Hoffman & Bateson, 1997).

2.1.3 Service Classification

Service classification refers to categorizations of similar business types. The classifiers use different schemes, and all of categorizations benefit the business operations (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997) and also help the marketers to appropriately select the marketing strategies for goods or services. Moreover, they also help manage and accomplish planning for business (Lovelock & Wright, 1999; Payne, 1993).

Many academicians categorize services in numerous ways including retail and wholesale services, financial and insurance services, and properties services. Nevertheless, these ways of classifications are not potentially useful for the marketers (Bunnakiatkul, 2001; Payne, 1993).

Darby and Karni (1973), cited in Krishnan and Hartline (2001), showed their opinions toward the service classification that the group of services could be classified into three types based on consumers' abilities as shown in the following.

Search attributes: This refers to consumers' ability to evaluate whether the service is satisfied before it is done. The examples of this type are such as the movies service, the laundry services, etc.

Experience attributes: This refers to consumers' ability to assess whether the service is satisfied after it is conducted. The example services are such as the beauty and salon services, the hotel services, etc.

Credence attributes: This refers to consumers' ability to evaluate whether the service is satisfied before or after it is conducted. These types of services are such as pesticide devices, car-fixing services, etc.

Meanwhile, Kotler (2000) addressed about the way to classify the types of services. Generally, each company has its own offerings mixing with either goods or services inside. It just depends on services which would be major or minor part of those offerings. So far, Kotler (2000) proposed five levels of services mixed in goods as discussed below:

Pure tangible goods: It refers to the offerings mixed with purely physical appearance goods without any accompanying services.

Tangible goods with accompanying service: It is the level which goods are the majority part in the offerings mixture, and the service is the support. The examples are such as the selling-car business, which has to provide after-sale service.

Hybrid: It is the level which the offering is equally consisted of both physical goods and services. For instance, the restaurant is a place where customers want to get both foods and services from servicers.

Major service with accompanying minor goods: It is the level which the offerings are mostly consisted of services more than physical goods. One of examples is an airline business where customers have already paid for the transportation service accompanying with the provision of foods, drinking, and/or magazines.

Pure service: It is the level which the offerings are consisted of purely services without any accompanying goods. These are such as services at the nursery school, the mentality treatment service, and others.

Nevertheless, this service classification is not conducted by using the mixture of services and goods. To implement in the marketing plan, the marketers then need to consider the other marketing scheme as well. Chase and Tansik (1983), cited in (Chen, et al., 2002), have grouped the service business into three groups classified by the levels of consumer contact as follows:

Pure service: It refers to services which consumers always need to contact with servicers through the appearing process. Services are such as the fast food restaurant.

Mixed service: It refers to services which consumers and servicers keep in touch with each other through the existing process of services whereas, at the same time, the back office service does not involve in communication to one another. The mentioned services are such as the airline business.

Quasi-manufacturing service: It refers to services which consumers do not need to contact with the service providers through the existing process of services. The aforementioned services are such as the credit card service.

Consumer contact concept: It is used in categorizing services. Nonetheless, the more contact between customers during production process and process components, the much more problems about production control the service provider would have (Lovelock & Wright, 1999). In another service classification, Grönroos (2000) offered two groups of the service classification by using continuousness of the service. The classification is divided as follows:

Continuously rendered service: It refers to services offered continuously to customers to keep the relationship with them. These are such as the bank services.

Discrete transactions: It refers to services, which are not often servicing customers and keeping the relationship with customers. These are such the hair design and decoration service.

From the service classifications mentioned, it is found that the discrete transaction type is difficult to build the relationship with customers as well as to keep the relationship in a long period of time. Therefore, the marketers should seek for appropriate strategies to build and keep the relationship with their customers. In addition, Lovelock and Wright (1999) used two criteria to also classify the types of the service industry. The first type is the service which could be either tangible action or intangible action, and the second one is the service influencing either people who are served or people's possessions. These types are divided into four types as shown in table 2-2 below.

Table 2-2 Classification of the service types

What is the Nature of the Service Act?	Who or What is the Direct Recipient of the Service?	
	People	Possessions
Tangible Actions	(People Processing)	(Possession Processing)
	Services directed at people's bodies :	Services directed at physical possessions:
	Passenger transportation	Freight transportation
	Health care	Repair and maintenance
	Lodging	Warehousing/ storage
	Beauty salons	Janitorial services
	Physical therapy	Retail distribution
	Fitness centers	Laundry and dry cleaning
	Restaurants/ bars	Refuelling
	Haircutting	Landscaping/ lawn care
	Funeral services	Disposal/ recycling
Intangible Actions	(Mental Stimulus Processing)	(Information Processing)
	Services directed at people's minds:	Services directed at intangible assets:
	Advertising/ PR	Accounting
	Arts and entertainment	Banking
	Broadcasting/ cable	Data processing
	Management consulting	Data transmission
	Education	Insurance
	Information services	Legal services
	Music concerts	Programming
	Psychotherapy	Research
	Religion	Securities investment

Source: Lovelock and Wright, 1999

People processing: It is the type of the service business which has tangible action characteristic, and the result of the service directly affects people's bodies such as transportation services, dental services, and others. Consumers need to appear at the servicing shop or the place and then participate in the process of the service. Thus, consumers and producers are coordinated with each other.

Possession processing: It is the type of the service business which has tangible action characteristic, and the result of the service directly affects physical possessions such as freight transportation services, retail business, and so on. Due to this type of services, consumers need to involve in the servicing process. In order to satisfy consumers, the service producers may need to develop consumers' possession or solve the problems for them.

Mental stimulus processing: It is another type of service sector that has intangible action, and its results directly affect consumers' mind. The examples are such as movie business, educational institutes, and others. It influences consumers' attitudes and behaviors. Consequently, the marketers need to put much effort and carefulness in producing services, especially in production process where consumers probably have either face-to-face function or partial participation. For instance, the watchers are watching television programs, listening to music, broadcasting business, etc.

Information processing: It is the type of the service business that has intangible action characteristic, and its results directly affect consumers' possessions such as bank services, insurance services, etc. Regarding this service classification, consumers merely involve in the service production process but mostly participate in information communication via communicative tools. However, the results of the service could be transformed into the forms of tangible actions; for example, the insurance service is transformed into insurance contracts, or the bank service is transformed into the bank account book.

All of service classifications mentioned could assist the marketers (1) to develop the marketing strategies, advantages to customers, and servicing environment,

(2) to manage distribution channels and demand and supply, (3) to develop technologies, and (4) to enhance human power's abilities. Furthermore, Hill and Gandhi (1992) were interested in the importance of service business classification since they have mentioned it in their study about developing strategies for an effective communication for service business advertisement. The service type classifications can obviously differentiate the characteristics between goods and service industry. Besides, Dotchin and Oakland (1994) also pointed out the service-business-classification advantages of being the tools for quality management and job performance. The classification mentioned is just a part of various classifications. The different classification is used in designing diverse strategies for unlike services. Therefore, the marketers need to be more careful in considering and planning the marketing strategies as well as the mixtures of marketing and structures in order to potentially respond to the dissimilar needs of consumers.

In the study, the researcher has chosen to study the service type as the possession-processing concept, which the results affect the procession rather than people mind. One of good examples and interesting studies is Japanese automotive service industry. Considering its characteristics, most of cars are brought into the center, and customers usually leave cars at the company and let the maintenance staffs check and work on their cars. With the need to present the product at the point where services are taken, Japanese automotive service industry is categorized into the group of the possession-processing concept.

2.2 Overview of Japanese Automotive Service Sector in Thailand

Thailand has been playing an important role and has high contribution in an economic part. In 2011, the statistical data gathered by the International Organization of Motor Vehicle Manufacturer (2012) indicated that Thailand has manufactured 1,457,798 units of automobiles, consisting of 537,987 units of cars and 919,811 units of commercial vehicles. In terms of its turnover, Thailand had 587,441.1375 Baht of its gross production value. With the huge sale amount of autos production, there are more than 21-plus companies namely Toyota, Honda, Nissan, Isuzu, Mitsubishi, Mazda, Hino, Suzuki, Subaru, N-Diesel, Chevrolet, Ford, TATA, Proton, Hyundai, Benz, B.M.W., Volvo, Volkswagen, Kia, Peugeot, and Daewoo. However, based on production units and Thai market shares occupied by Japanese automotive dealers, Business Monitor International (2012) reported that the major autos contributors were Toyota (290,061 units - 36.5%), Isuzu (132,194 units - 16.6%), Honda (83,952 units - 10.6%), Nissan (69,204 units - 8.7%), and Mitsubishi (66,002 units - 8.3%). When considering the part of passenger vehicles, it is found that companies including Toyota (125,876 units – 40.9%), Honda (93,748 units – 30.5%), Nissan (27,024 units – 8.8%), and Mazda (25,381 units – 8.3%), were ranked, respectively (Business Monitor International, 2012).

In the study, the researcher only concentrated on the top three Japanese automotive brands selected based on the passenger car sale. These brands included Toyota, Honda, and Nissan.

The first is Toyota (Toyota Motor Corporation- TMC) which was initiated in Japan and spreading out into many countries in North America, Europe, and Asia. In

Thailand, Toyota Motor Thailand Co., Ltd. (TMT) was established and launched in Thai market since 1962 with the capital of 11 million Baht. With continuously increasing sale, TMT currently generated 7,520 million Baht of the capital and occupied three giant production plants comprising Samrong plant, Gateway plant, and Ban Pho plant. In relation to production capability, TMT can produce 550,000 units per year with a total of 13,500 workers employed (Toyota, 2011).

In Thailand, Toyota was ranked as the best seller and biggest producer. Within 2011, it had totally sold 290,061 vehicles, gaining the market share of 36.5%. The obtained sale came from 138,104 passenger cars and 151,957 commercial vehicles accounted for 35.0%. In addition, Toyota also sold 134,970 (36.9%) pick-up cars with its modification and 121,887 pick-up cars (37.2%) with no modification.

Behind a huge success, Toyota puts its efforts on building sustainable development through its philosophy, manufacturing highly innovative and quality products and services, and well taking care of all stakeholders. There are four things that have been done to accomplish the organizational goal which is the Thainization Philosophy (to make non-Thai to become Thai), to adapt production processes and systems, worker relationship management, and to create a positive local identity. For its services and sales, Toyota has given the policy to the dealers for their operation.

The second brand is Honda Motor Company. Honda Motor Co., Ltd., established in 1948, runs its business with the corporate principles based on the "Respecting for the Individual" and the "Three Joys covering joy of "Buying," "Selling," and "Creating" in order to reflect the company respect and to share senses of three joys to both its employees and customers. Since its establishment, Honda became remain on the leading of the best quality of a product provider at a reasonable price and customer satisfaction. In 2010, Honda globally had 390 subsidiaries and 102 affiliates, totally producing 3,392 automobiles units and gaining 2,643,242.456 billion Baht of net sales and other operating revenues of automobiles.

Honda Motor Company, entered into Thai market under the name “Honda Automobile (Thailand) Co., Ltd.” in 1983 with the vision to produce high quality products to satisfy customers, and it has a headquarter located in Ayudhya province. Regarding its manufacturing capability, Honda Thailand had produced 240,000 units, doubling its annual output capacity in Thailand, recorded in 2008, creating more than 2,000 new jobs for people around its manufacturers and taking an investment of the country as of 21 billion Baht. In addition, regarding total sales in 2011, Honda Thailand was ranked as the third position of selling automobiles for 83,952 units, accounted for 10.6% of the Thai market share. In the aspect of domestic passenger car and pick-up sale, it was expected to be ranked as the second place with 93,748 sold units, accounted for 30.5% of the market share. Considering only passenger cars itself, Honda reported that it sold 77,933 units equaling to 21.6% of the market share.

With the principles of business operation and the aim at producing the best quality products to serve customers, Honda Thailand has established automotive centers and dealers approximately more than 123 branches in Thailand and about 57 centers servicing its customers in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area. Currently, there are more than 6,000 employees in the company (Chaimongkol et al., 2012).

The third brand of Japanese automotive manufacturers in this study is Nissan. Nissan Motor was formerly named “DAT Motorcar Co" brand in 1925, and “Datsun" was used for passenger car name in addition to this name. The majority of outputs were the trucks, at the beginning of 1918, the first DAT trucks, as well as airplane and engines, produced to serve the military market. Nissan or Nissan Motor was founded in 1934 and formerly named "DAT Motors" merged with Tobata Casting's automobile parts department, and it was then changed to a Nissan company in 1933. Therefore, it was then become the Nissan's automobile manufacturing. In 1999, Nissan entered a two-way alliance with Renault S.A. of France, which owns 43.4% of Nissan while Nissan holds 15% of Renault shares, as of 2008. After a long operation of its company to serve customers, Nissan was ranked as the sixth largest automaker in the world behind Toyota, General Motors, Volkswagen AG, Hyundai Motor Group, and Ford in 2010. As of 2011, the company's global headquarters are located in Nishi-ku and the other factory bases in Tennessee in the United States of America, England, and Australia. Nissan had globally used the slogan "You Come First" to serve its customers. Currently, Nissan changed to use the slogan "SHIFT_the future" to satisfy its customers. From the 2010 annual report of the company, it was found that Nissan Motor had fiscal-year-2009- sales results for 3,515,000 units including 630,000 units sold in Japanese, 1,067,000 units sold in North America, 517,000 units sold in Europe, 765,000 unit sold in China, and 545,000 units sold in other regions (Thailand, Middle East, and Australia), increasing upto 3% year-on-year (Nissan Annual Report, 2010). With a huge sale in many countries, Nissan Motor then had net income reached 17.02 billion Baht, increasing approximately 111.34 billion Baht from the fiscal year 2008.

Nissan entered Thailand under the ability-to-sell operation of Siam Konlakarn Company Limited and later on became Nissan Motor Thailand Co., Ltd. sited in Bang

Saothong, SamutPrakan Province. In 2009, Nissan sales in Thailand increased about 24.2% to 34,600 units. Besides, Nissan was named as Car of the Year in the "Most Environmentally Friendly Car of the Year" in this year. In addition, regarding sales in 2011, Nissan Thailand was ranked as the fourth position of the best vehicles sale of 69,204 units gaining 8.7% of the Thai market share behind Toyota, Isuzu, and Honda (particularly in Japanese automotive sector). In the part of domestic passenger car and pick-up sale, it was ranked as the third place with 27,024 sold units, accounted for about 8.8% of the market share. The most selling model is March, which is the latest environmentally friendly eco car. The financial report in 2010 indicated that revenues increased 32.35% from 59,849,534.4 Baht to 79,208,667.24 Baht. The company has totally employed 1,336 positions as of 2011 (EMIS, 2011).

2.3 The Concept of Internal Branding

The concept of internal marketing, known as internal branding, is well accepted by many marketers or marketing strategists. Its characteristics are based on an awareness which the company would please its employees, as its internal customers, before making external customers happy (Graeff, 1996; Gremler, Bitner, & Evans, 1994; Lewis & Entwistle, 1990; Yi & La, 2006). If employees are not happy in the organization, they would not be able to improve a good service to customers. Taylor and Cosenza (1997) also mentioned that the internal marketing is more than listening to employees and informing them what to do and what would happen for the company. In contrast, it is the strategy to reduce turnover and high related cost, to train, to educate, and to motivate employees and staff, as well as to share them the same goal of the whole organization to be achieved. Originally, internal marketing was applied from the principle of marketing to people within the organization who are in charge of serving external customers (Gummesson, 1991) while being developed from the philosophy of human resources management, which is originally from the studies on the quality of service section and the mechanisms of service offering by employees. Moreover, Cooper and Cronin (2000) considered internal marketing as the organization's attempts for education, reward, and generally the management of human resources for better service offering. It not only communicates such useful information for customers but also trains, educates, and motivates employees and staff for further development of customers' satisfaction (Gummesson, 1991) and creates internal activities to enhance a service culture while maintaining a service orientation among its employees (Grönroos, 2000). With good internal marketing building in the organization until employees feel as the owner of the company, they would best perform their given tasks and be able to satisfy customers and keep them back to the company (Lee & Chen, 2005).

In order to improve a focus on internal marketing, many points are needed to be taken into consideration. The first consideration is about corporate culture regarding attitudes, beliefs, and shared value. The corporate culture would reveal employees' thoughts, feelings, and chemistry positively or negatively affecting their work and service quality delivered to customers. Therefore, the company must design and provide job system and the organizational and creative internal activities in order to maintain and increase their level of participation as well as consent motivation and moral involvement for the organization. In addition, the internal promotion, designation and distribution of message communication, can also help employees to share their view of corporate value (S. B. Keller, Lynch, Ellinger, Ozment, & Calantone, 2006). The second consideration is about recruitment process where the careful consideration and selection of employees are taken into account. The personalities of candidates should be right for the job characteristics and the picture of the company. The environment and culture of the company could influence and be influenced by employees' personalities. Therefore, companies should carefully consider the personalities of employees matching the image of organization. The third consideration is a socialization process, which the company must implement culture and service perception to new employees' minds so that they would understand their roles. The socialization is informal and formal, and a term of informal socialization is that new employees would understand the company's nature, value, and achievement goal through self-observation of working atmosphere such as interaction between staff. Meanwhile, a term of formal socialization means the company should have some training programs to adjust employees' attitudes, to realize their roles for the organization, and to improve their skills for jobs. This includes the motivation and encouragement with rewards and the orientation for new employees. In other words, the company should have well-established management of the relationship between the organization and its employees (Hollensen, 2003).

Therefore, the process movement of internal branding had been transferred from the head of organization to employees with communication delivery of information from respect customers to employees who impress the corporate brand. In addition, employment would obtain the support training programs from the company as offerings in internal marketing. When having the expertise in terms of knowledge and skillfulness, employees would have a good emotion to service customers (Miles & Creed, 1995).

2.4 The Concept and Theories of Human Personality

The concept and theories of human personality play the important roles in this study. The concept has included social and cultural theories, self-concept theory, and traits theory. First of all, the social and cultural theories are involved in cultural and social variables which were the results of changes of the human personality. Second, the self-concept theory is the way how people reflect their own ideas when they perceive the images based on the idea of their actual self. Finally, the trait theory is the personality reflecting an individual's internality and externality. In this study, the researcher concentrated on the trait theory only.

Trait theory helps understand the personality. This theory revealed the characteristics of individuals (Assael, Gialou, Kakosimos, & Metaxa, 2004) which people would collect information and distinguish its unique characteristics of each individual in the different aspects. Many researchers use Five-Factor Model, or called "The Big Five," which comprises extraversion, instability, agreeableness, openness to experience, and conscientiousness, in order to identify characteristics.

Extraversion is a trait which is associated with emotional commitment (Erdheim et al., 2006), and it represents expressive, companionable, gregarious, communicative, confident, and determined persons (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Goldberg (1990) and Watson and Clark (1997) defined extraversion as spontaneous, chatty, energetic, positive, and enthusiastic personality. With good emotion defined, the extrovert is used in many marketing plan makings in order to improve the way how to make customer happy. Employee with extrovert personality, representing happy and positive thinking and reaction, is believed that it could finally lead to job gratification. There are some researchers who also mentioned that this blissful personality is the key feature of job satisfaction (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). In addition, due to job performance, many mentors in high level management would use extroverts as the analysis tool to evaluate professions like administrations, social relation, and sales performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Instability refers to neuroticism personality representing unsecured and uneven emotion (McCrae & John, 1992), including annoyed, stressed, sulky, unsociable, nervous, embarrassed, uncertain, doubtful, unconfident, fearful, and dejected (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge, et al., 2002). Persons with the neurotic traits would have no belief and faith on others (Goldberg, 1990) and have no social participation to handle the problematic situations (Judge, et al., 2002). The person with this neurotic personality would have an impact to the job satisfaction (Judge, et al., 2002) and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). To improve their job performance, the company should set the proper work system and provide gentle approaches for them.

Agreeableness is the personality reflecting not only self-sacrifice, helpful, nurturance, gentle, and emotional supports but also an enmity, indifference to others, and self-interest (Digman, 1990). The person with this personality would be desired to work with because they have straight action and not-two-face behaviors. The correlation of agreeableness and job performance is very weak (Barrick & Mount, 1991). This facet of big five model is significantly related to normative commitments (Erdehim et al., 2006).

Openness to experience is a personality that represents creative, cultivated, curious, open-minded, intellectual idea and has a need for diversity, aesthetic and sensitivity (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992). The person with this personality is suitable for management. In addition to intense good feelings, this personality also has a negative side where sometimes persons under this trait present themselves with intense bad feelings (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Consequently, it refers that mind openness must be influenced by affective responses such as subjective well-being (Judge et al., 2002).

Conscientiousness traits include diligent, attentive, vigilant, comprehensive, responsible, systematized, and determined (Barrick & Mount, 1991). It also reflects the personality such as logical, reliable, and risk averter (Goldberg, 1990). The person with this personality concentrates on a success in work and their characteristics of being able to take the opportunity to get formal and informal rewards (Organ & Lingl, 1995). It could help them improve their work accomplishment. Therefore, this trait is believed to be highly related to job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002) and job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

To measure personality traits under the theory of the personality, the "Myers-Briggs Type Indicator" has been used. Carl Jung divided the measurement into four types including sensing-intuiting, thinking-feeling, extraversion-introversion, and judging-perceiving. Sensing-intuiting is studied to understand the utilization of self-capacity while thinking-feeling is studied to understand the practice and learning things.

Extraversion-introversion is studied to understand the decision making whereas judging-perceiving is studied to understand the plan making of self-life. As the results, these pairs of indicators would thus help determine how to assign the appropriate jobs to persons.

2.5 The Concept of Brand Personality

Nowadays companies need to utilize the different strategic measures to compete with competitors in the rapidly and extremely competitive business environment. One of the strategies is to create an impression of their services to customers. To allow customers to recognize the brand, the service organization could show the dominant characteristics over competitors. Therefore, the corporate branding needs to be differentiated from competitors, and the brand personality should be established.

Plummer (2000) described the components of a brand image consisting of three parts, which are physical elements, functional elements, and brand personality. The brand was the theme of a great deal of research, together with the concepts of brand identity, brand equity, brand image (K. L. Keller, 1993), and brand personality (J. L. Aaker, 1997).

Brand personality is a relationship between brand and personality which people associate personality (expressing depth, findings, and linking) with the inanimate object on the basis of their opinion and evaluation of the same. Brand personality, as a set of human characteristics associated with the brand, is not only a factor of brand identity but also a broader construct (D. A. Aaker, 1996). Batra, Lehmann, and Singh

(1993) defined the brand personality as "the way in which a consumer perceives the brand on dimensions that typically capture a person's personality." Ferrandi and Valette-Florence (2002) conceptualized the brand personality as "all personality traits used to characterize the individual and associated with a brand." Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) defined the brand personality as "the set of human personality traits that are both appropriate and relevant to brands." Plummer (2000) additionally defined the interpreted brand personality as the "characterization aspects of the brands." The brand also allows consumers to recognize products and services in terms of the values. The extraordinary brand cannot be imitated from the opponent brand. Besides, Keller (2000) described about the brand that it could explain the tangible structure and be created from a blend of various external characteristics associated with beliefs and attitudes of the consumers on the brand. Plummer (2000) commented that human being feels the need to personality objects so that it would help their connections with the insubstantial world. All contacts, either direct or indirect, which consumers have with a brand could generate and affect the perceptions of the brand personality traits.

Regarding personality, the definition is necessarily used in this study as it offers the major improvement of defining brand personality on the basis of human personality traits. Keller (1993) discussed "personality attributes" as a type of brand association that helps form the brand image being constructed in his conceptual model of brand knowledge. Batra, Lehmann, and Singh (1993) noted that the two terms are often used interchangeably and different from each other only in the sense that brand image is the broader of the two concepts. Therefore, the personality traits could be well defined as preferences to adapt reliable modes of cognition, effect, and behavior

(McCrae & Costa Jr, 1999) and be appropriately measured as psychological characteristics to reflect human experiences as well as actions. As a result, it can be then used the brand management as marketing tools (Ambroise et al., 2005).

While the academic marketing literature does not provide many brand personality definitions, the same cannot be said to brand image (Jimeno et al., 1996). What the literature does reveal is about a number of marketing researchers including a personality component in their notion of the brand image. Reynolds and Gutman (1984), for example, listed brand personality including general characteristics, feelings or impressions, perceptions of products, beliefs and attitudes, and the linkages between characteristics and feelings/emotions. When brands that are inanimate objects are selected, consumers often view them as having human characteristics (J. L. Aaker, 1997).

Regarding to the brand personality, it was proposed by Aaker (1997) that the brand personality can be perhaps formed by the company's image, logo, packaging and its product or service ambassador. To study into the consequences of having brand personality, Siguaw, Mattila, and Austin (1999) explored that having well-formed brand personality can increase in favorable emotion and usage, which finally create trust and loyalty in the brand. In addition to previous results, Freling and Forbes (2005) studying about brand personality also explored a positive influence of brand personality on product evaluations. After consumers evaluated personality of products that it can reflect his/her own self-image, he/she will then feel closed and tied more to that personality (Govers & Schoormans, 2005). In the other hand, it can be said that the brand trust is the link between brand loyalty and brand management.

In conclusion, brand personality is a very meaningful and sustainable tool for differentiation since it could distinguish its characteristics without an imitation, and it is mostly used to evaluate brand when product attributions are hard to be measured.

Brand Personality Measurement

Personality could be an important variable for brands selection of consumers. Consumers would choose the brand to respond for what they like, they will, as observed, pin point on the brand which can reflect their own personalities. As a similar understanding explored by Keller (1993), the self-symbolization and self-expression can also be defined as the functions of the brand personality.

In the past, the big five scale had been used for measuring brand personality including agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, culture, and neuroticism (Digman, 1990). The evidence of the research showing that brand personality is employed as a part of all positioning strategies (Burke, 1994). Aaker (1996) emphasized that a brand is more than a set of functional attributes of a product, and a brand should approach customers by giving emotional and self-expressive benefits. When measuring brand personality traits, it could lead to include ad hoc terms that exist in no human personality measurement tool.

According to the components of brand personality, there are many researchers mentioning about these. The first is Levy (1959) who indicated that the demographic characteristics including social class, sex and age can be some parts of brand personality. There are both direct and indirect ways to influence the brand personality. These include brand users’ images (as a direct way) and product attributes (as an indirect way). In addition, brand personality perhaps has demonstrated and expressed the personality at the same time as noted by Kotler and Keller (2005) that select a brand due to their ideal self-concept and/or the social self-concept.

In the part of the benefits of brand personality, Doyle (1992) proposed that building distinct and strong brand personality is very important in successfully facilitating customers with the brand. This propos then created various later studies. It included the study by Milewicz and Herbig (1994) who pointed out that brand personality can influence users to select the product if that product has their own brand personalities. Furthermore, it was supported by Karande et al. (1997) who displayed that brand personality can help provide marketing plans. Therefore, brand personality can create a significant point of relation between brand personality and users.

Later, Olsen, Blagoev, Gnad, Macek, Kumar, Mortensen, and Mann (2006) saw a significance in brand personality convey. The researchers pointed out that changing the way to convey the existing brand personality is needed to be reviewed. The most consideration to take into account is to consider original brand personality and value so that it can help prevent customer’s feeling of confusion and contradiction (Lin, 2010). Similar to the personality scale of the U.S., the newly established brand personality scale is also constituted of five dimensions including excitement, competence, sincerity, sophistication, and peacefulness. Moreover, it induces 12 facets and 36 traits. Phau and Lau (2000) used the 36 traits in the brand personality scale to measure brand personality, in which the respondents were requested to select the degree of their impression on a five-point Likert scale.

Aaker (1997) later established the Brand Personality Scale (BPS) comprising three sources, which are personality scales from psychology, personality scales used by marketers, and original qualitative research of personality traits associated with a number of renowned brands. The development was from not only the 42 items BPS but also a theoretical brand personality framework consisting of five personality dimensions, which are sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness. Nevertheless, it is stated that the BPS may not be the perfect fit across cultures. Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) and many researchers apply the brand personality framework to practice in various product groups and across different cultures.

Table 2-3 Five dimensions of brand personality

Competence	**Sincerity**	**Excitement**	**Sophistication**	**Ruggedness**
Reliable	Down-to-earth	Daring	Upper-class	Outdoorsy
Hard-working	Family oriented	Trendy	Glamorous	Masculine
Secure	Small-town	Exciting	Good-looking	Western
Intelligent	Honest	Spirited	Charming	Tough
Technical	Sincere	Cool	Feminine	Rugged
Corporate	Real	Young	Smooth	
Successful	Wholesome	Imaginative		
Leader	Original	Unique		
Confident	Cheerful	Up-to-date		
	Sentimental	Independent		
	Friendly	Contemporary		

Source: Creating images and the psychology of marketing communication (Bee & Kahle, 2006)

Many marketers are interested in searching for strong brand personality which is congruent with customers and the employee. The famous marketers like Keller (K. L. Keller, 1993, 2001) argued that brand associations regarding the benefits are functional, experiential, and symbolic associations. Symbolic association of a brand is related to the needs for social appreciation, personal expression, or outer-directed self-esteem.

Symbolic value is determined by prestige, exclusivity that a brand holds (Solomon, 1983). This reason was supported by Ogilvy (1983) who proposed that image means personality and stated that “products, like people, have personality, and they can make or break them in the market place”. The physical advantage of a product or service performs the utilitarian functions whereas brand personality performs a figurative function (Shavitt, 1990).

The brand and human personality traits have both direct and indirect contact that consumers have with the brand. The direct brand personality traits come from an individual related to the brand and passing though all perception of the brand personality (J. L. Aaker, 1997). Furthermore, the relation with a brand is indirect brand personality traits originated from information as brand attributes, demographic characteristics, and social class.

Besides, the comparison of brand personality scale to measure brand personality from which the fittest traits in each dimension were selected as a dimension’s facets scale was utilized for measurement(Shen, et al., 2006).

Table 2-4 A comparison of the dimensions of brand personality

Dimension	Aaker et al. (2001)	Lu (2002)
Excitement	Talkative	
	Funny	Cute: Mature (in Competence)
	Optimistic	
	Positive	Diligent: Relaxed (in Peacefulness)
	Contemporary	
	Free	
	Friendly	Friendly: Proud
	Happy	Cheerful: Gloomy
	Likable	Likable: Wild
	Youthful	Youth: Aged
	Energetic	
	Spirited	
		Demonstrative: Restrained (in Competence)
		Creative: Conservative (in Competence)
		Brave: Timid
Competence	Consistent	
	Responsible	
	Reliable	
	Dignified	
	Determined	
	Confident	Confident: Modest (in Peacefulness)
	Patient	
	Tenacious	
	Masculine	Masculine: Feminine (in Sophistication)
		Mature: Cute (in Excitement)
		Restrained: Demonstrative (in Excitement)
		Realistic: Romantic (in Sophistication)
		Conservative: Creative (in Excitement)
		Format: Casual (in Peacefulness)

Table 2-4 A comparison of the dimensions of brand personality (continue)

Dimension	Aaker et al. (2001)	Lu (2002)
Peacefulness	Shy Mannered Peaceful Naive Dependent Childlike 	 Relaxed: Diligent (in Excitement) Casual: Formal (in Competence)
Sincerity	Warm Thoughtful Kind	 Thoughtful: Sloppy Modest: Confident (in Competence) Gregarious: Independent Family-oriented: Individualized Humanistic: Technological
Sophistication	Elegant Smooth Romantic Stylish Sophisticated Extravagant	Elegant: Crude Romantic: Realistic (in Competence) Sophisticated: Rough Extravagant: Common Feminine: Masculine (in Competence) Charming: Dull Unique: Ordinary Fashionable: Old-fashioned

Source: Creating images and the psychology of marketing communication (Kahle, 2006).

2.6 The Concept and Theories of Brand Identification

2.6.1 Personal Identification and Social Identification

Identity is a very important issue but elusive and vague. Back to nearly a half of century ago, Erikson (1968) had studied and developed the concept of identity defining that the identity is one's feelings about oneself, especially according to her/his character, goals, and origins. Many researchers explained the construction of the identities saying that it is involved in self-presentation how he/she internalizes others' perspectives (Collier & Thomas, 1988; Mead, 1934; Ting-Toomey, 2005). In addition, the identity is the integration of how he/she sees or presents him/herself toward others and thinks of others see him/her. With non-clarification of identity presentation, the distinction of how we see ourselves, how we present ourselves toward others, and how we think others see us is unclear. Thus, there is no clear idea of our self-perceived identity in our minds (Izumi, 2010). Fearon (1999) has identified that identity comprises two components, which are personal identity and social identity. Personal identity refers “a set of attributes, beliefs, desires, or principles of action that a person thinks to distinguish her in such a way of individual unique attributes” while social identity refers "a similar set of the personal identity concept but different in socially relevant ways” (Fearon, 1999; Ting-Toomey, 2005). Similarly, Meng (2005) defined identity consonance as the perception that fits between a focal person’s belief of his or her identity (as personal identity) and the recognition and verification of this identity by other community members (social identity). Moreover, the identity consonance is proposed as a key construct of communication, information technology (IT), member satisfaction, and knowledge contribution. The two concepts including personal identity and social identity are discussed in the details below.

2.6.2 The concepts of personal identification

The identity theory or personal identity is studied to explain personal identification. Mostly, many psychologists commonly use the term “identity” to “describe personal identity, or the idiosyncratic thing that makes a person unique” (Côté & Levine, 2002). The researchers identified that psychological identity relates to self-image (a person’s mental imagine himself/herself), self-esteem, and individuality.

Regarding the cognitive psychology, identity refers to an ability to reflect and be aware of himself/herself.

With personal identity definition, Ting-Toomey (2005) defined the personal identity as individual unique attributes. Personal identity itself comprises two elements including competence and personality, as its constitutive elements. Due to the individual unique attributes, the personality includes both acquired attributes (e.g., capability) and inborn attributes (e.g., eye color, skin color). The inborn attribution in some part is overlapping with the social identity (e.g., skin color and ethnicity). However, the point of difference between them is a group membership (Izumi, 2010). Alvesson, Ashcraft and Thomas (2008) also defined that personal identity refers to unique individual attributes which assumedly not to be united with other people or group membership. This is different from social identity which refers to his or her individual's perception in a social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Sometimes, personal identity is also called "dispositional identity" because it is composed of its individual traits such as brave, optimistic, or installing (Tafjel, 1981) as cited in (Meng, 2005). Briggs and Cheek (1986) indicates that personal identity is one's self-perception as an individual. The personal identity concept often encounters with the questions of asking such as "who am I?" and "where did I come from?" The definitions of personal identity include personal information given at birth (such as name, date, and place of birth), personal identifiers (such as social security number and passport number), physical descriptions (such as height and weight), and biometric information (such as fingerprint and DNA) (Li, Wang, & Chen, 2011). In addition, a study conducted by the United Kingdom Home Office (2002) suggested that personal identity also includes the illegal use.

There are three phenomena regarding personal identity. Communication of identity means the interactional process whereby a person presents his or her personal identity toward the interactant(s) and receives their reactions to his or her identity presentation. According to self-perceived identity, it refers to one's qualities including competence, personality, and group membership, which an individual reminds and believes that he/she is looked as distinctive existence. In other words, self-perceived identity is how a person personally ponders himself or herself without other perspectives' criticizing.

Satoko (2010) mentioned that the situation where people become mindful of their self-perceived identities is when they perceive information about self. When persons perceive different views from what they presented themselves to others (e.g., how others see her), this situation is called identity emerges as contrastive cognition (Li, et al., 2011).

The concept of social identification

The social identity theory (SIT) is studied to explain social identification. Social identification, or sometimes called social identity, is essentially a perception of oneness with a group of persons (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Tajfel and Turner (1979) defined social identity, or social-psychological theory, as the efforts to explain and categorize the cognitions and behaviors into various categories, such as religious membership, age group, and organizational association (Tajfel, 1978, 1979; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Furthermore, all types of group behavior, such as unity contained by collections and discrimination in the contradiction of out-groups, are parts of social identity (Abrams & Hogg, 1988).

In the organizational context, it has been defined as “the degree to which a member defines him or herself by the same attributes which he/she believes define the organization” (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). Many researchers proclaimed that individuals categorize themselves and identify with the group and classification sharing similarities of identity could predict the behavior of the group members (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Tafjel, 1981; Turner, 1975). Organizational identity could also refer to social identity since it creates a group of individuals. There were some researchers also supported that organizational identity is not created as history, experience and feeling of company and its members, but also variously involves in multi-interactions from outsiders of the company such as its client, rivals and supplier (Ashforth & Mael, 1996; Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000).

Ashforth and Mael (1996) defined social identity as ongoing relationships, interactions, and comparisons with various out-groups. Hogg and Abrams (1988) also emphasized that social identity theory had concentrated on “the group in the individual” and responsibility of any person converting themselves into a part of the community or social group. This categorization of themselves and others into the diverse social groups and classifications is thus called social identification, where identity is formed (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Tapp and Clowes (2002) presented that team identity could also be defined as social identity since team identity has comprised the membership of a social group. Therefore, social identity is “that part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from knowledge of his membership of a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (Tafjel, 1981).

In social identity theory, the related self-categorization theory can also be explained. The self-categorization focuses primarily on the process by which individuals recognize themselves as members of distinct groups (Abrams, 1992). Feeling in a social group exists when an individual recognizes similarities between oneself and others making up that group including similar skin color, attitudes, and behavior, creating a sense of "we-ness" (Hogg, 1992). To the extent that the similarities between self and others are strong, and group membership is attractive and desirable, the individual defines himself/herself as a group member. Enlargement of SIT by Tajfel's collaborator, who suggested the self-categorization theory (Turner, 1999; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Both of the theories have the awareness of social identity but in the self-categorization theory (SCT). Social identity is seen as the process that changes interactively to inter-group behavior (Turner, 1999; Turner, et al., 1987). Turner (1985) and Hogg (1992) gave the different view but similar to the previous definition of social identity. The researchers defined the concept that the theorists use the concept of "depersonalization" to explain the motivation to conform to group standards. Depersonalization results from social identification and occurs when individuals see themselves as "the interchangeable exemplars of a social category" rather than having unique attributes (Turner, 1985). Hence, depersonalization motivates individuals to imitate themselves as the representatives of their respective groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Recently, there are a lot of studies showing that identification increases the contributions to collective goods. De Cremer and Van Vugt (1999, 2002) found that in the social identity condition the subjects were led to believe that the group to which they were assigned was compared to another group. Participants receiving a personal identity manipulation were told that the researchers were interested in individual decision making. In these studies, those receiving a social identity manipulation donated significantly more to the public good than those receiving a personal identity manipulation. The heart of social identity theory was the awareness that when people define and evaluate themselves in group terms (e.g. social identity), they make inter group social comparisons that intent to distinguish in-group from out-group. People do this in-group favoring ways because social identity originates its valance from the possessions of one's own group comparing to other group. SIT has been exposed as a suitable theoretical contextual for identity correlated gratifications in the usage (Blumler, 1979), and it could determine to group involvements and to authorize the possessions of identification in each context of prototypes in marketing researches (Kyle, 2009).

Akerlof and Kranton (2000) applied social identity theory in an economic context and, most importantly for this study, acknowledged that "identity is fundamental to behavior, the choice of identity may be the most important economic decision people make."

Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun (2006) and Kuenzel and Halliday (2008) argued that applying the identification concept in the context of brand-customer should be well reviewed in terms of social identity theory meanwhile the identification concepts with an organization can sometimes happen without formal interact as like social context. In terms of social identity theory, Kuenzel and Halliday (2008) indicated that social identity will give truly understanding of brand owners' reflection on how much brand can be identified. Thus far, to expand and repurchase brand, it is recommended that the “word of mouth” technique is the most powerful communication tool to encourage the society’s intentions of repurchasing for the brand.

Relating to social identification in marketing, there were many previous researchers both studying social identification in non-profit and profit sectors (Arnett, German, & Hunt, 2003; Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Laverie & Arnett, 2000). In the profit sector, Ahearne et al. (2005) focused on studying social identification physicians’ perceptions of pharmaceutical companies. Social identification was found to support that personal identification was established by social identification. In addition, Haslam, Postmes, and Ellemers (2003) and Morgan (1997) used social identity theory to study consumer behavior to see whether consumers see themselves as the parts of a social group or not. In conclusion, social identification is very important to be used in this study.

2.6.3 Social Identity Theory

This study provides social identity theory (SIT) to explain identification. Social identity theory was first recommended by Tajfel (1978, 1979) and later by Tajfel and Turner (1979). It is a social-psychological theory struggling to explain the cognitions and behaviors by the assistance of assembly-procedures. This theory has various categories, for instance, religious membership, age group, and organizational association (Turner, 1985). Besides, it assumes to have confirmation of all types of group behavior, such as unity, contained by our collections and discrimination in a contradiction of out-groups as a part of social identity procedures, by a way of the ambition to attain optimistic self-esteem as well as self-enhancement (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). Consequently, SIT had concentrated on “the group in the individual” (Abrams & Hogg, 1988), and this is to take responsibility any person could convert a part of the community or social group. Those categorize themselves and others as being appropriate to diverse social groups and appraise these classifications (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Therefore, SIT could be defined by a way of the “cognition of membership of a group and the value and emotional significance attached to its membership.”

The heart of social identity theory was the awareness that when people define and evaluate themselves in group terms (e.g., social identity), they make inter group social comparisons that intent to distinguish in-group from out-group. People do this in-group favoring ways because social identity originates its valance from the possessions of one’s own group comparing to other group. SIT has been exposed as a suitable theoretical contextual for identity correlated gratifications in the usage (Blumler, 1979), and it could determine to group involvements and to authorize the possessions of identification in each context of prototypes in marketing researches (Kyle, 2009).

The enlargement of SIT by Tajfel’s collaborator, who suggested the self-categorization theory (Turner, 1999; Turner, et al., 1987). Both of these theories have the awareness of social identity. Nonetheless, in self-categorization theory (SCT), social identity is seen as the process that changes interactively to (Turner, 1999) inter-group behavior.

There are companionable and interrelated conceptual components of a comprehensive social identity theory of the relationship between self-concept and group behavior (Hogg, 1996). The importance theory used in this study regarding the congruity theory is congruence between two dimensions.

Previous studies in marketing have been conducted in non-profit sector (Arnett, et al., 2003; Bhattacharya, et al., 1995; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Laverie & Arnett, 2000). Ahearne et al. (2005) focused on the for-profit sector by investigating physicians' perceptions of pharmaceutical companies.

In conclusion, social identification takes place when an individual identified with a certain group. Social identity theory is used to study consumer behavior because consumers not only need the act together with other consumer but also see themselves as parts of a social group. Organizational identity has been the subject in many researches, mostly applied to the belief and attitudes of employee (Haslam, et al., 2003; Morgan, 1997).

2.6.4 Self-Categorization Theory

Self-categorization theory (SCT) (Turner, 1985; Turner, et al., 1987) is an addition of social identity theory concentrating on the categorization formula. The main of this theory constructs the procedures that alteration interpersonal to inter-group behavior. Furthermore, SCT suggests that personal identity and social identity symbolize differentiated parallels of self-categorization and regulate the degree behavior articulates individual differences or collective similarities. Nevertheless, the equally personal and social identity can become outstanding in several circumstances.

Social-categorization depersonalizes the perception in terms of in-groups or out-groups' prototypes which are formed according to the principle of met contrast. Nevertheless, SCT had the motivational part of self-esteem in intergroup comparisons, and it is no longer stressed by the way of it in social identity theory while social comparison concepts are apparent in an altered appearance. Furthermore, social comparison was the pathway to inspiration in social identity theory and crossed the threshold into self-categorization theory since self-categorization and social comparison are interdependent. Therefore, similarly to the idea of Goethals and Darley (1977), social categorizations are based on social comparison and social comparisons function in the context of advanced-order social categorizations.

Consequently, both social identity theory (SIT) and social categorization theory (SCT) was drawn, and its proposal in brand personality research was also considered. SIT has been used to explain inter-group and show the selective exposure determined by group memberships and to prove the effects of identification. In this study, the researcher used SIT and SCT to test the congruence between corporate brand personality and personal identification of employee as well as the personal and social identification in the context of service sector.

2.6.5 Self-Image Congruency Theory

Self-image congruency theory is expanding to explore how a corporation can appeal the right employee (Sirgy, 1982). Self-image congruency or image congruency will assess and decide on consumption substances conferring to how the entities' images are in corresponding to the consumer's self-image. Thus, this is related to the concept of person-organization congruence which is defined as the congruence between the beliefs and customs of specific personnel and those of an organization (Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, & McMurrian, 1997). In addition, the person-organization correspondence has been originated to be confidently connected to a person's job satisfaction and administrative assurance (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Formerly, Gremler, Gwinner, and Brown (2001) conveyed that in the case of banking and dental services, personal connection between customers and employees positively inclined consumer perceptions of trust in the direction of the employee.

2.7 Self-Concept Theory

Normally, self-concept can be typically defined as "the entirety of the individual's views and feelings having reference to himself as an object" (Sirgy, 1982; Wylie, 1989). In relation to the customer, self-concept will refer preferences of willing to purchase as well as the level of satisfaction (Jamal, 2004; Mehta, 1999). This also draws parallel with the definition of person-person congruence which related to relationship between the individual beliefs, customs, and goals that has to those of others.

In addition, the self-concept also involved about the relevant situations, awareness of his or her capabilities and physical characteristics (Graeff, 1996; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987) which described through the social interaction by standards, collective values, and implications (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999).

Regarding the self-concept, there are many researchers used it in their interested studies. They applied the concept to study about the work environment. As the result of this study, it was found that people with the similar values and personalities were continued in the environment where there was a similarity of characteristics (Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004; Wegner, Schneider, Carter, & White, 1987). Besides, Brown, and Swarts (1989) also confirmed the importance of the self-concept by evaluating the self-concept in the medical services. Meanwhile, Jamal and Adelowore (2008) showed the relationship between customer satisfaction, relationship satisfaction, personal interaction and loyalty toward employees.

In conclusion, self-concept theory has been related to the collaboration between employees and customers which relatively generated the self-employee congruence. Thus, this theory still suggests that the concept of self is designed as communication progression between an individual and others in the process of interaction (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967; Sirgy, 1982).

2.8 The Concept of Organizational Commitment

2.8.1 Definition of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment could be defined as the degree to which an employee pinpoints him/herself with an employer, desiring to remain with the organization, and is willing to work extra for the organization (Mowday, et al., 1982). Chen et al.(2002) also defined organizational commitment as a willing-to-do idea of workers to their employing organization, and it is a positive influence to desirable work outcome including the employee’s job satisfaction, motivation, and partnership. Furthermore, organizational commitment is also described as a partisan, accomplishing the goals and values of an organization, as an individual’s role to create a relationship to those goals and values, and as the organization for its own objectives in addition to normal goals (Buchanan, 1974).

The approaches of organizational commitment has been developed and described that it comprises three components which are the organization’s goals and values, interest to additionally distribute for the organization, and acts to remain with the employers. Furthermore, organizational commitment has also been indicated as it consisted of four affective components including personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics, and experience of work (Mowday, et al., 1982).

According to other researches, Meyer and Allen (1991) additionally defined organizational commitment as the common understanding of the relationship relating to an organization, employees, and an employee's decision to remain being hired by that organization. They also described the differences in the attachment processes in such a way organizational commitment is developed. All three components including normative commitment, continuance commitment, and affective commitment had been studied and tested the relationships among them influencing organizational commitment. The results revealed that the relationship between the employee and the organization differently affected the degrees of each component. Due to all of these three components, the affective and normative commitments are less likely to leave the organization unlike continuance commitment. Finally, the employee who is highly in affective and normative commitments will stereotypically demonstrate less continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Ketchand and Strawser (2001) mentioned that organizational commitment is an individual's additional action established to the hiring organizations, and it influences an employee's decision-making, such as turnover intentions and actual employee turnover. Besides, organizational commitment was also mentioned by Zangaro (2001) that it is very important to the employing organization because an employee, who was committed to an organization, can help increase the probability of retention, consistent attendance, and increased productivity. It then can be seen that organizational commitment could be shortly considered as a connection between an employee and an organization.

Organizational commitment was also shared in three different approaches. (Buchanan, 1974; Mowday, et al., 1982; Reichers, 1985). First, the exchange approach defines the organizational commitment as an outcome of transactions of incentive and contribution between an organization and a member. Second, the psychological approach views the definition of commitment that it is like an attitude or an orientation toward the organization, either linking or attaching the identity of the person toward the organization. Last, Reichers (1985) shared the attributions approach toward organizational commitment as a compulsory of the individual behaving and attributing a viewpoint of commitment to themselves after engaging in volitional, explicit, and irrevocable behaviors (Reichers, 1985). Organizational commitment also pointed out that the commitment still maintains an organizational focus and does not overlap theoretically with other measures (Akhtar & Tan, 1994; Reichers, 1985).

In multinational corporations (MNCs), Khandelwal (2009) studied about organizational commitment in multinationals. The results revealed that organizational masculinity, organizational individualism, organizational power distance, societal masculinity, societal power distance, number of jobs changed, education, experience prior to joining, marital status, tenure, promotion, and sex are significantly related to the commitment. Moreover, the researcher suggested that both socio-cultural and organizational values, and perhaps align the two are necessary to be carefully considered as it can foster to the commitment.

Bar-Haim (1992) also commented about organizational commitment, in the cross cultural aspects, as it is not a state of mind but a behavior of choice, meaning that when the employing organization is in worst situation where the company is unable to reward a valuable contribution given to the company, employees may still choose to contribute their knowledge, skills, and abilities instead of automatically rushing to take advantages from the organization. Therefore, the commitment sometimes is not the meaning of doing something upon the agreement of gainfulness, but it is something to work voluntarily for desirable work outcome.

2.8.2 The Importance of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is one of important issues playing a crucial role in the organization. There are many ideas and studies indicating about the importance of organizational commitment. All ideas and studies are related to increasing in productivity of work, bettering communicating to others, and increasing organizational prosocial behavior and others.

Meyer and Allen (1997) commented on organizational commitment that it has an impact toward the relationship between an employee and an organization. With highly believed and scientifically corroborated, it is found that highly committed employees having greater loyalty positively affect the better productivity, and a willingness to assume more responsibility for the organization. They also mentioned that higher committed employees can contribute more positive productivity to the organization than lesser committed employees.

Chow (1994) mentioned that organizational commitment can be considered as a practical and reliable predictor in terms of absenteeism, turnover, effectiveness, productivity, and job satisfaction in some situation. In addition, employees with the high level of organizational commitment express positive contribution to their organizations. This is in corresponding with the review by Mowday et al. (1982) who found that with high commitment in employing company, employees are proud to communicate and association with their organization. Due to employees, the study on the motivation of public sector employees showed that organizational commitment is a key to increase public service motivation (Dobel, 1990; Perry & Wise, 1990; Romzek, 1990).

In addition to the employee side, organizational commitment has also affected an understanding of the work behavior of employees. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found evidence that organizational commitment is an important element in understanding of employees' work behavior. It engages in more creative and innovative behaviors, which enhance their potential and promote the health of the organization. Moreover, organizational commitment strengthens the desire to remain in an organization and, therefore, the retention of membership.

Due to organizational prosocial behavior (organizational citizenship behaviors), organizational commitment also plays a key role and influence toward it. Many researches indicated that affective organizational commitment has created positive employee behaviors such as organizational citizenship behaviors and helping behaviors to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989).

The study, made by Meyer and other supporting researches, supported the importance and good points of affective organizational commitment that it has been linked to increased job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and attendance as well as decreased turnover intentions and turnover behavior (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Emphasizing on the importance of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) and other related researchers indicated that organizational commitment is one of many determinants of voluntary turnover, and it is negatively correlated to intentions to quit (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Even in the United States, employees who involved in high stability of job quality, wages, and promotional opportunities still need to have organizational commitment, and employees participating in unions had a negative effect on organizational commitment (Lincoln & Boothe, 1993). By reassuring the statement, Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Casier (2000) also said employees who have strong affective commitment to an organization would contribute more to the organization's goals, and they are less likely to leave the organization.

Even though there are a lot of good points of organizational commitment, there will be also the opposite side. To emphasize on the above good side statements, there are many studies examined the correlations between affective commitment and its hypothesized antecedents. The variables tested in the study included organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, and work experiences (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, et al., 1982). There are many conceptualizations and measurements (Meyer & Allen, 1997) including the most permanent topics in the organizational sciences (Bauer & Green, 1998).

Allen and Meyer (1991) proposed that commitment is a multidimensional construct composed of three components: (a) affective commitment, (b) continuance commitment, and (c) normative commitment. The affective commitment is an emotional attachment to an organization. The continuance commitment involves the perceived costs associated with leaving an organization. Finally, the normative commitment is the reflection of a person's desire to stay with an organization because he or she feels accountable. Allen and Meyer (2002) investigated the relationship of this three-component model through a meta-analysis along with their antecedent variables. Buchko et al. (1998) found demographic variables of age, education, and organization tenure, among others are in about the antecedents of organizational commitment.

Ketchand and Strawser (2001) found the two main antecedents of organizational commitment which are personal and situational factors. The personal factors are about the situation where a person possessed prior to joining the organization while the situational factors are about the circumstances. The consideration to organization is based on the antecedents of organizational commitment including job quality, degree of participative leadership, and co-worker commitment. Referring to age, it is claimed that a worker's age affects the employee's commitment to the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Hrebiniak, 1974). Cohen (1990) indicated that in the middle and later stages of this or her career, an individual has a higher degree of the commitment and a positive efficacy regarding performance. Gender refers to male and female, and it is about the right balancing. Hsu and Chiu (2004) demonstrated that there is no significant difference between female and male managers in organizational commitment in the field of high-tech industries. Another importance component in the factor is about educational levels. Mowday et al. (1982) pointed out that more educated employees might have higher expectations than the organization is able to meet. Moreover, the job position increases the commitment to an organization (Cohen &

Lowenberg, 1990). The higher an employee's job position, the greater the payment from their company will be, thus increasing the level of the commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983). The last point is about the working experience. Meyer and Allen (1991) found the strongest and most consistent correlation with affective commitment across studies was working experience. Various antecedents of organizational commitment fall into the broad category of working experiences.

2.8.3 Theoretical Framework of Organizational Commitment

The multivariate predictive framework is the first theoretical framework, developed by Steers (1977), which was selected to be used in the study. This model consists of the backgrounds and the outcomes of commitment.

The second theoretical framework developed is the multiple commitment framework created by Reichers (1985) with an assumption of organizational commitment that it can be accurately understood as a collection of theoretical framework is based on an organizational theory related to organizational commitments to the different groups, both inside and outside the organization (Blau & Scott, 1962).

2.9 The Concept of Prosocial Behavior

Behavior of employees voluntarily contributed together to increase an efficiency of the organization is called prosocial behavior. It is also referred to extra-role behavior. George and Brief (1992) defined prosocial behavior as the act of carrying out product and maintaining the well-being and integrity others. Bettencourt and Brown (1997) also commented about prosocial behavior that it is referred to the helpful behaviors of the service providers contributed to the organizations or to other individuals. Pro-social behavior has been framed in many forms of employee's behavior, including organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988), contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), and ethical or moral decision making behavior (Jeong, 2011; Jones, 1991; Sonenshein, 2007; Treviño, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006). Organ (1994) looked at these people with the mentioned behaviors as they are good soldiers. There are five citizen characteristics being spoken by many researchers including:

a. Altruism: The behavior is to be willing to help others;
b. Conscientiousness: The behavior is to conform to the regulation and laws of the company;
c. Courtesy: The behavior is to respect other individuals' rights;
d. Sportsmanship: The behavior is to avoid of speaking ill; and
e. Civic Virtue: The behavior is to involve in social responsibility concern.

When prosocial behavior conceptualization has been used in the organization, the interaction and actions of members, which extend beyond the formal requirement of the jobs, attributed to enhancing effectiveness and sustainability of organizations (Katz, 1964; King, George, & Hebl, 2005; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). To capture these extra-role behaviors, Smith et al. (1983) have used the term organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) mentioned that these conceptualizations capture behaviors spanning from helping and cooperation to compliance and obedience. The common underlying theme is that employees have the discretion to pursue others' and the organization's welfare, even when it is beyond their prescribed role expectations and thus may not be personally beneficial to employees. Furthermore, prosocial behavior needs employees' prosocial values. In other words, employees' prosocial values are called as the central elements of prosocial behavior or organizational citizenship behavior, driving organizational performance (Dalal, 2005). However, the positive effects are driven on not only an organizational performance but also the social economic and social welfare. For instance, the European Commission stated in its Competitiveness Report 2008 that "if more European businesses are more socially and environmentally responsible, this should help Europe as a whole to meet its objectives under the growth and jobs strategy." Employees' prosocial values contribute to organizational effectiveness by:

a. Enhancing co-worker and managerial productivity;
b. Fostering intergroup coordination;
c. Empowering ability of organization in order to attract and retain the best employees;
d. Increasing the ability of performance; and
e. Encouraging the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental change (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

Researchers and organizations have been interested in prosocial behavior as one of the ways in which the organizations could overcome such agency issues. The forms of employee's cooperation and collaboration in the organization are important for achieving organizational goals to overcome agency risks (Katz & Kahn, 1966). However, the organizations face a challenge in motivating such behavior as they are discretionary employee behaviors which are usually not explicitly contracted by the formal control system, making it difficult for the organizations to monitor and reward

(Katz & Kahn, 1978; Organ, 1988). As encouraging, prosocial behavior is not as straightforward as managing in-role performances, and much debate has been going on related to the motivational processes underlying employee's prosocial behavior in the workplace.

Regarding organizational citizenship behavior, employees believe that if they are fair treated from the organization, they would have positive attitude toward their jobs. Organ (1988) has set the assumption stating that the perception of fair treatment for employees has positively motivated enhancing the ability of employees toward social responsibility by motivating the relationships among society. When employees feel in organization performance, they would show an organizational citizenship behavior by themselves. Moorman (1991) has tested the correlation about treatment fairness in the organization (both distributive justice and procedural justice) and the citizenship of employees where the results of citizenship behavior would be most of interest.

In the management literature, prosocial behavior is especially prevalent in the organizational citizenship behavior literature (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). However, it is important to note that prosocial behavior can also take the form of restraint of action that is refraining from engaging in a non-prosocial behavior. Examples of organizational citizenship behavior that represent a restraint of action including not taking undeserved breaks (Smith, et al., 1983), not conducting personal business on company time (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997), and not complaining about trivial matters (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Many examples of ethical decisions also involve inactions which are the refraining from engaging in unethical, self-interested behaviors such as bribing, cheating, withholding information, and so on.

Identifying the objectives of prosocial behavior offers the insights into why an individual engaging in prosocial behaviors is also important. Penner and Finkelstein (1998) have found in an empirical study about an important and positive relationship between the motives and the quality of prosocial behaviors. The underlying motivation toward prosocial behavior can largely be shared into two approaches. The first approach focuses on the role of affective and positive emotions in prosocial behavior (George, 1991, 1998; George & Brief, 1992). The second approach is empathy (Batson & Shaw, 1991) performing as the predictors of helping. This approach initially helped draw the distinction between in-role performance and prosocial behavior as extra-role performance in the early stages of organizational citizenship behavior research (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

2.10 Cognition Based Perspective

Cognitive theory is one of motivation theories used to explain prosocial behavior in the workplace. Regarding the cognitive theory, there are two theories selected to be used in this dissertation, which are the theory of other-orientation and the social exchange theory. One focused on contributing group level social, cues, and consequences while the other focused on exchanging human behavior or social interaction, exchanging activity inactivity, tangible and intangible (Homans, 1961) particularly of rewards and cost. These two theories share in common the influence of prosocial behavior. Therefore, this study focused on reviewing the theory of other-orientation and social exchange.

2.10.1 Theory of Other-Orientation

Humans are actually driven by both self-interest and other motives including other-orientation. Hence, one of pondered theatrical aspects of motives of prosocial and prosocial organizational behavior is the theory of other-orientation. Recently, the other-orientation theory has been discussed among the social scientists and philosophers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; De Dreu, Evers, Beersma, Kluwer, & Nauta, 2001; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; Rust, Stewart, Miller, & Pielack, 1996; Solomon, 1983). Some reviews indicated that other-orientation theory leads individuals to consider collective group/organization, characteristics and qualities (e.g., relatedness), joint inputs and outcomes, and collective success (De Dreu, et al., 2001; De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). This is in corresponding with the review by Nauta, De Dreu, and Van Der Vaart (2002) stating that the more people are concerned with group or department welfare, the harder they work to benefit the group. Besides, it also corresponded to the reviews stating that the theory focuses on the role of employee motivational orientation in explaining judgment process underlying prosocial behavior in the workplace (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 2004; Korsgaard, Meglino, Lester, & Jeong, 2010). In addition, the theory, by a broader group of theories, focuses on the relationship between the motivational states and the modes of cognition processing (Jeong, 2011; Loewenstein & Small, 2007; Tenbrunsel, Diekmann, Wade-Benzoni, & Bazerman, 2010).

According to the theory, the other-orientation is summarized as a motivational orientation representing the extent to which individuals are concerned for the welfare of others (Lester, Meglino, & Korsgaard, 2008; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2006), and it has been theorized as both a dispositional propensity to be concerned for others (i.e. “trait”) and an induction of situational factors such as task characteristics or identification with groups. Regarding the other-oriented theory, Lombardo and Eichinger have also revealed it as the actions of caring about others, caring about direct reports, compassion, and listening. Based on further implications, the theory supports the relationship with job satisfaction and helps the behavior as a form of organizational citizenship behavior (Korsgaard, et al., 2010; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2007).

Simon (1990) found that altruism is associated with the theory of other-orientation where it is related to people’s propensity to accept social information with and without evaluating personal costs and benefits. There are two theories, including heuristic processing and deliberative processing, which are different in terms of the definitions. The heuristic processing stands for the way in the mode of cognition of processing in accepting the social information which individuals involve in the social norm, when facing a choice. When making a decision, an individual under the heuristic processing will consider the social cues and exist norms prescribe where it is defined as the right thing to do and will choose to do without rational deliberation. This is different from the deliberative processing which is related to choosing the option that yields the most beneficial points meaning that the making decision makers will consider the reasons such as the rational, calculative, outcome oriented mode, assumed by many theories on employee motivation (Vroom, 1964). In conclusion, however, the aforementioned cognitive modes (heuristic processing and deliberative processing) display a crucial role in accepting the social information (Korsgaard, et al., 2010). As such, the theory mentions that individuals high in other-orientation are less likely to engage in rational processing and more likely to engage in heuristic processing (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2006).

In this way of cognitive making decision process in which either considers less rational judgment and effortful calculation of cost and benefit for the self or relies on social admonition, the theory so far has not specified the causal direction between motivational orientation and cognitive modes of processing, but rather views the association as two distinct states where the two components reinforce one another. This helps support the linking of the processes to prosocial behavior and the theory of other-orientation. It maintains a purely cognition-based stance, emphasizing the cognitive aspect of decision making by concentrating on the confluence of the effects of concerns for other and the mode of cognitive processing. In other words, the theory of other-orientation does give an insight on how individuals process the social norms and information pertinent to personal consequences differently in a conflict of interest situation. According to the theory of other-orientation, the decision of individuals high in other-orientation will be based on moral norms which are salient in the situation while the decision of individuals low in other-orientation will be based on expected outcomes of actions (Korsgaard, et al., 2010).

In summary, the theory of other-orientation connects motivational orientation, and two distinct modes of cognitive processing will be helpful in overarching a framework to review in this study on the congruence between corporate brand personality and employees' personalities.

2.10.2 Social Exchange Theory

Zafirovski (2005) reviewed that the exchange theory of socio-psychological has become the most ambitious social and claims that social exchange can serve as a general paradigm for sociology and anthropology as well as social psychology since the human behavior is an exchange of rewards between actors. Homans (1961) mentioned that the exchange theory is based on the point where human behavior or social interaction in exchanging activity in tangible and intangible particularly of rewards and costs. The exchange theory involves in benefits, notably giving others something more valuable to them than is costly to the giver, and vice versa as the underlying basis or open the secret of human behavior (Homans, 1961) and so a phenomenon permeating all social life (Coleman, 1990).

In organizational behavior, the social exchange theory (SET) is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Regarding prosocial behavior, the social exchange theory has been focusing on the exchange relationship between employees and the organization where employees have the discretion to offer either in exchange for expected benefits or based on an obligation to reciprocate the past benefit from the organization. Recently, many researchers reviewed the social exchange theory that it is currently the major perspective explaining various employees behaving in the workplace, exchanging relationship by employees and organizations which was seen as two separated parties for rewards and benefits. The behaviors in organizational citizenship behavior are doing so for rewards and benefits (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The social exchange theory provides explanations about organizational citizenship behavior that it closely maps the other-orientation in the theory of other-orientation (Jeong, 2011; Korsgaard, et al., 2010; Lester, et al., 2008). Expected reciprocity motivates individuals to involve in organizational citizenship behavior in order to ensure that one receives the benefit from the organization in the future. In this cognitive processing type, the social exchange theory involves the anticipated future benefit calculation, which is consistent with the deliberative processing proposed in the theory of other-orientation. On the other hand, an obligation to reciprocate leads employees to display organizational citizenship behavior on the basis of moral norms to reciprocate the benefits they received from the organization in the past. This process mirrors the heuristic processing in the theory of other-orientation, as it entails adherence to social norms without rational deliberation of the consequences of doing so (Jeong, 2011).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction to the Research Methods

Chapter 3 attended as a significant and through introduction to and a validation for the chosen research approach. The chapter discussed the particulars and complications related to this simultaneous quantitative method study, which studied the effect of corporate brand personality (five personality traits) on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior (role-prescribed and extra-role behavior) and organizational commitment (affective commitment) and the mediating effect of brand identification (personal and social identification) in Japanese automotive service sector. The chapter covered the subsequent research areas including model/ theoretical framework, hypotheses and research questions, studying area, population and sample selection, measurement instrument, data collection, and data analysis.

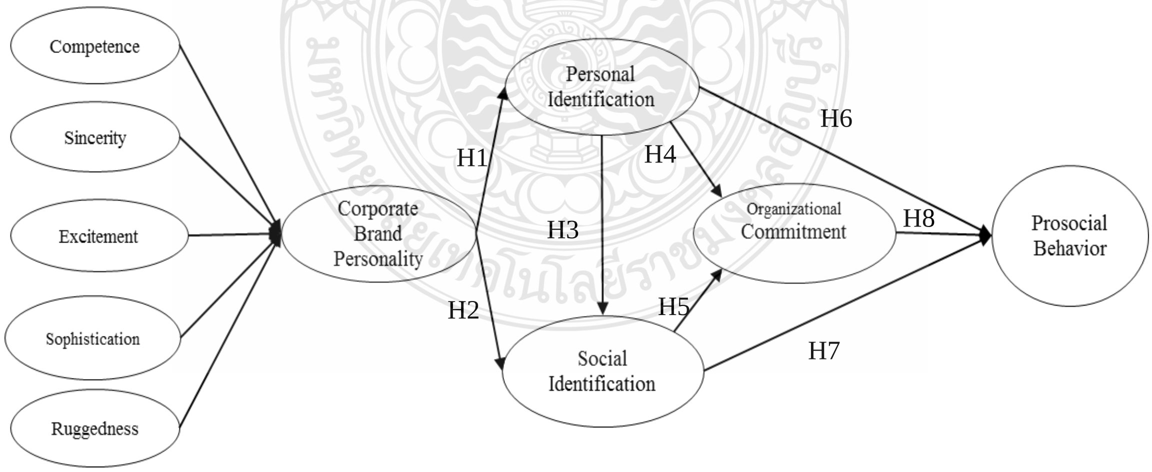

Figure 3-1 Conceptual model

3.2 Research Hypotheses

3.2.1 Influence of Corporate Brand Personality on Brand Identification

Regarding the formerly reviewed literature, most researches on brand personality and brand identification have concentrated on consumer-brand relationship. Nevertheless, this study concentrated on the concept of brand identification in an internal corporation setting.

Brand identification could be divided into two categories including personal identification and social identification (Del Rio, et al., 2001). Personal identification begins with having a relationship match between a brand and self related to personal identity whereas social identification increases when a brand comprises the association of one’s social group to which he/she aspires to belong or feel like the owner (Long & Schiffman, 2000; Shen, et al., 2006). In this study corporate brand personality and brand identification focused on employee-brand relationship by using social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 2004) and theory of brand personality based on self-concept, personal ideas, and feeling about self. Personal identification is a classification of self-established on definite traits such as being elegant and successful. Besides, social identity is a classification of self into a definite social group or social class. Social identity can be divided into public self and collective self, both of which are displayed to social others (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Persons feel an intelligence of self-classification by using a brand and connecting it to others. Consequently, people feel identification with a brand whose image is harmonizing with their self-concepts and desire to use the brand. Therefore, there is a relationship between their personal and social identity. Two hypotheses were conducted based on this idea as follows:

H1: Corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of an employee; and

H2: Corporate brand personality has an influence on social identification of an employee.

3.2.2 Influence of Personal and Social Identification on Organizational Commitment and Prosocial Behavior

The employee's personal and social identifications are related to organizational commitment. Employees are needed to have organizational commitment when the brand personalities of their companies are congruent with their personalities. The hypothesis is that personal identification affects social identification because personal identification cannot be separated from social identification. Meanwhile, personal and social identification influence organizational commitment. Personal identification is related to people who want a higher step of identification. The following hypotheses were then developed:

H3: Employees' personal identification has an influence on social identification;

H4: Employees' personal identification has an influence on organizational commitment; and

H5: Employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment.

Prosocial behavior is defined as the act of carrying out a product and maintaining the well-being and integrity others, providing contribution to the organizations or to other individuals (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Its positive effects are driven based on an organizational performance. Employees believe that if they are fair treated from the organization, they would have positive attitude toward their jobs. Organ (1988) stated that if employees have been positively motivated, they would have more social responsibility and relationship among the society. To have fair and good treatment for employees in order to have prosocial behaviors, understanding personalities about their attitudes, wants, and needs is also important. These treatments such as putting employees on the right job with matched personality or rewarding them based on their desires could help increase their good feeling to the company and finally contribute good things for customers and the company (Susan, 1997). Moorman (1991) has tested the correlation about treatment fairness in the organization (both distributive justice and procedural justice), and it revealed that citizenship of employees would have more citizenship behavior as results. Therefore, the relationships between personal identification, social identification, and prosocial behavior could be stated as shown in the following hypotheses;

H6: Employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior;

H7: Employees' social identification has an influence on prosocial behavior; and

H8: Organizational commitment has an influence on prosocial behavior.

3.3 Research Design and Methodology

The study intended to investigate the structural associations among corporate brand personality, personal identification, social identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior. In this study, the researcher focused on studying three major brands of car service centers including Toyota, Honda, and Nissan, specifically in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area.

The surveys of this study were conducted to collect information from employees who have been working in car service centers under the worldwide brands of car business in Thailand. They were requested to respond to the survey regarding brand personality, brand identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior.

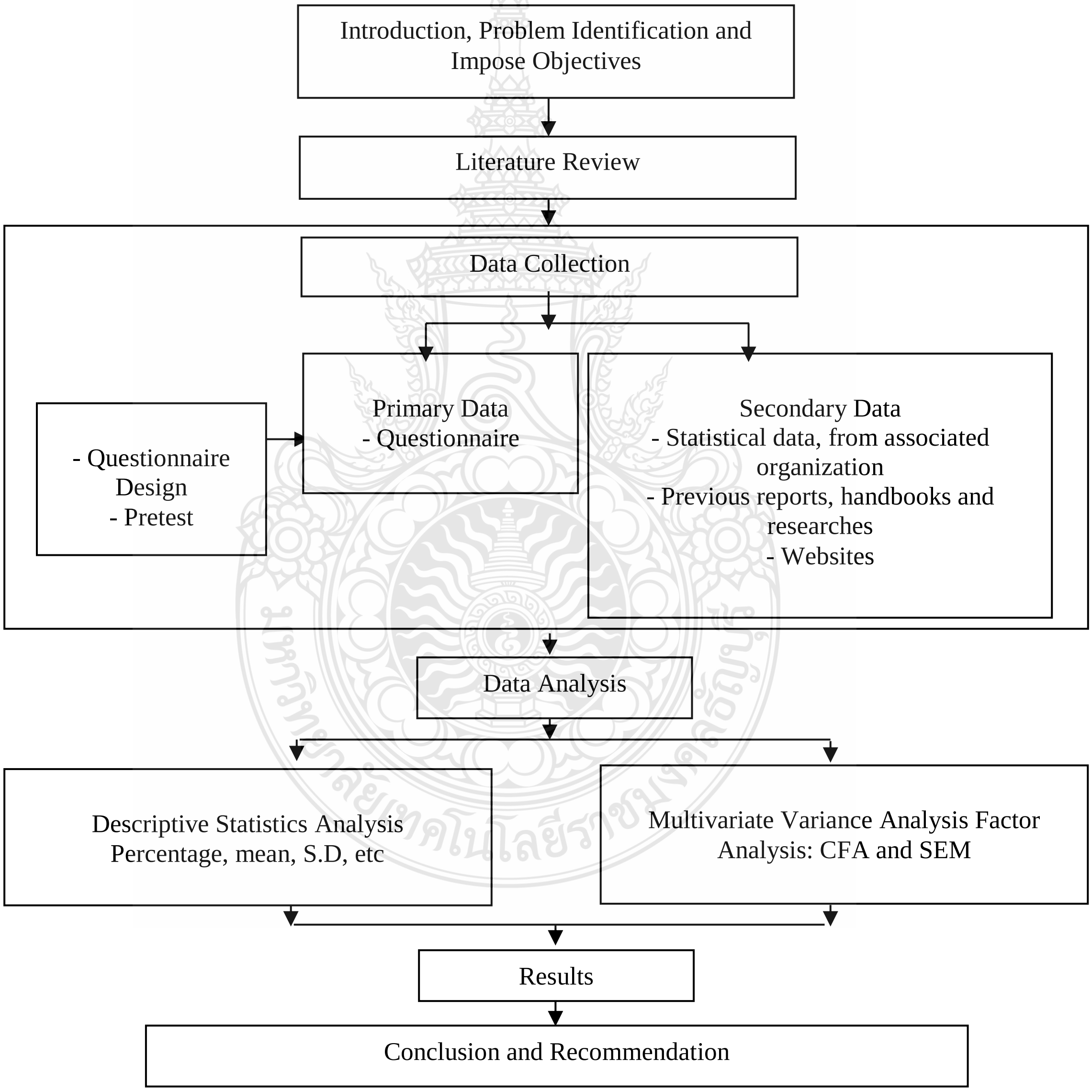

Figure 3-2 Research framework

3.4 Studying Area

In this study, the researcher selected to study the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee’s prosocial behavior and organizational commitment and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector. The selection of major automobile companies, comprising Toyota, Honda, and Nissan, was based on total sales in 2011. Besides, Bangkok and Metropolitan Area of Thailand was the key area for data collection.

3.5 Population and Sample Size

With the aim of this study that focused on the customer-contact employees, the targeted population was then employees including managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff who communicate with customers in the showrooms of three major Japanese automotive companies namely Toyota (136 showrooms), Honda (57 showrooms), and Nissan (46 showrooms) in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area in Thailand. With the difficulty in finding the exact number of overall employees, the researcher estimated the population size by assuming that each showroom had the targeted employees to be surveyed for 10 persons. There are approximately 1,360 employees of Toyota, 570 employees of Honda, and 460 employees of Nissan, respectively. The population size of the study was therefore equal to 2,862 employees as a total.

After having identified the population size, the researcher calculated a number of sample size by referring to the rule of Structural Equation Model (SEM) where the number of dependent and independent variables were carefully considered. The result of the rule demonstrated approximately 741 samples. In order to get adequate data, the researcher estimated to have 1,000 samples.

3.6 Sampling Method

Due to an estimation of 1,000 samples from three automotive brands, the researcher selected quota sampling as a sampling method by using proportional quota of a number of showrooms to generate the showroom availability ratio. Then, the obtained ratio was used to compute for the number of employees for each brand. The results showed that approximately 569 samples were collected from Toyota employees, 238 samples from Honda employees, and 193 samples from Nissan employees, respectively. Table 3-1 illustrated the number of employees collected from each brand.

Table 3-1 Expected samples classified by automotive brands

Automotive brands	Number of Showroom	Estimated Samples (Employees)
Toyota	136	569
Honda	57	238
Nissan	46	193
Total	239	1,000

Source: Computation

All of these respondents, including front desk employees, supporting unit staff, salespersons, managers, were employees of three Japanese automotive service brands (Toyota, Honda, and Nissan) as shown in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2 Description of respondents involved in the samples

Brands	Respondent Involvement
Toyota	Managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff
Honda	Managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff
Nissan	Managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff

Respondents

The researcher distributed a total of 1,800 questionnaires to three automotive brands in order to obtain enough data for the study. However, there were 1,061 questionnaires returned to the researcher. These included 576 of Toyota employees, 266 of Honda employees, and 219 of Nissan employees, respectively. The respondents consisted of employees of service car companies as well as front desk employees, supporting unit staff, salespersons, managers, who also communicate with customers during their work period. All respondents were asked for permission from their branch manager before sending questionnaires. The age of respondents ranged from 20s to 50s. The business units' brand of car companies covered Bangkok and Metropolitan Area (BMA), and the respondents were employees of branches located in this area.

3.7 Research Instrument

3.7.1 Brand Personality

The study adopted five dimensions of brand personality in the research model and used four items to obtain five dimensions, referring to a scale of Aaker (1997) which was published in the Marketing Scale Handbook (Bruner, Hensel, & James, 2001) and used worldwide. These five dimensions were competence (reliable, intelligent, successful, and confident), sincerity (down-to-earth, honest, wholesome, and sincere), excitement (exciting, spirited, imaginative, and up-to-date), sophistication (upper class, glamorous, good looking, and charming), and ruggedness (tough, rugged, outdoorsy, and masculine). These were also used in the pilot test to investigate the reliability and confirmatory. The 7-point scales ranging from strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7) were used.

3.7.2 Brand Identification

Brand identification interested in this study was personal and social identifications (Del Rio, et al., 2001; Lassar, Mittal, & Sharma, 1995). The study measured *personal identification* by using many aspects including personality-congruent, lifestyle-congruent, and value-congruent to create the questionnaires. The first three statements in the questionnaires were adopted from the previous study by Lassar et al.(1995) which included “The image of my organization fits my personality”, “The image of my organization matches my lifestyle”, and “The image of my organization represents my values well.” The other four remaining statements were adopted from the study of Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) which included “The image of my organization symbolized the kind of person I really am inside”, “The image of my organization reflects my personality”, “The image of my organization is an extension of my inner self”, and “The image of my organization mirrors the real of me.” The 7-point scales, selected only one from 1 to 7 with the meaning ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree,” respectively, were used to identify an expression to each statement.

To measure *social identification*, the study used many aspects including social-recognition, social-respect, and social-status. The first two statements in the questionnaires were adopted from the previous study done by Lassar et al. (1995) which included “The image of my organization gives me social recognition and respects” and “The image of my organization enhances social status.” The other four remaining statements were adopted from the study of Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) which included “This image of my organization contributes to my image”, “This image of my organization adds to a social “role” I play”, “This image of my organization has positive impact on what others think of me”, and “This image of my organization improves the way society views me.” Moreover, the 7-point scales, selected only one from 1 to 7 with the meaning ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree,” respectively, were used to identify an expression to each statement. The questionnaire translated from English to Thai was used by many previous studies.

3.7.3 Organizational Commitment

To measure organizational commitment, the study has selected the affective commitment in order to ask employees about their attitudes toward the organization. The statements used in the questionnaires were taken from the previous study of Mowday and Steers (1979) which was written in the Handbook of Organizational Measurement, published by the International Journal of Manpower, and used worldwide (Price, 1997). These questions included: “1) I really care for the fate of this organization”; “2) I am willing to put in a great deal of effort”; “3) This organization really inspires me to put forth my best effort”; “4) I would accept almost my type of job assignment”; “5) I am extremely glad that I choose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined” ; and “6) Overall I am committed to this organization” Furthermore, the 7-point scales were used, and the respondents were requested to share their personal idea based on each statement by choosing only one from 1 to 7 with the meaning ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," respectively.

3.7.4 Prosocial Behavior

To measure prosocial behavior, the study used two aspects including role-prescribed behavior and extra-role behavior. The statements used in the questionnaires were taken from the previous study of Bettencourt and Brown (1997) which were used worldwide. For role-prescribed behavior, these questions included: "1) I perform all those tasks for guests that are required of me"; "2) I meet formal performance requirements when serving guests"; "3) I fulfill responsibilities to guests as expected by management"; "4) I help guests with those things that are necessary and expected"; "5) I adequately complete all expected guest service behaviors"; and "6) I fulfill responsibilities to guests as specified in my job description" Due to extra-role behavior, these questions comprised: "1) I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements"; "2) I willingly go out of my way to make a gust satisfied"; "3) I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers"; "4) I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me"; "5) I fluently go out of the way to help hotel guests"; and "6) I often serve customers in manner that exceeds my formal job requirements" The 7-point scales, selected only one from 1 to 7 with the meaning ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," respectively, were used to identify an expression to each statement.

3.7.5 Validity of Instruments

All instruments used in this study have been referred to previous measurements from other researches which were published and used worldwide. Regarding the measurement of brand personality, the researcher referred to the use by Aaker (1997) from the Marketing Scale Handbook (Bruner, et al., 2001). As for brand identification, the measurement was adopted from the studies of Lassar et al. (1995) and Carroll and Ahuvia (2006). Due to organizational commitment, the measurement adopted from the study of Mowday and Steers (1979) published in the International Journal of Manpower (Price, 1997) was selected for the study. Finally, to test prosocial behavior, a sharing of measurement by Bettencourt and Brown (1997) was chosen for the study.

After these instruments were found, the researcher has used the techniques of back translation from English as original version converted into Thai and later reconverted into English in order to avoid a bias of language and content mimicking. All translation versions were done by English translators and approved by English expert.

To verify the validity of the instrument, the researcher invited academicians who were specialized in related fields. The instruments used in the study were required to be fit with the context of the studying area (Thailand) where it must be involving in culture, easy-to-understand for reading and accuracy to original emotional phases. The academicians were asked to verify the instruments by using the following three questions.

1. Are the words or sentences suitable for Thai culture and do they communicate the correct meaning the informants?
2. Does each item sufficiently covers all dimensions and is it suitable enough to measure, especially Thai organization culture?
3. Are there any problems regarding the cultural differences from the use of an instrument from English version to Thai version?

Finally, after the instruments were verified, the questionnaires were piloted before being distributed to the respondents.

Data-Model Fit Evaluation and Its Criteria

Table 3-3 Data-model fit evaluation and its criteria

Data-Model Fit Evaluation	Criteria	Consideration
p-value (Chi-square Probability Level)	$p > 0.05$	*p*-value must be higher than 0.05. The higher *p* value is, the fitter the model is.
CMIN/df (Relative Chi-square)	< 3	CMIN/df value must less than 3. If its value is closed to 0 (zero), the model is accounted to be fit.
GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	> 0.90	GFI value must be higher than 0.90. If its value is closed to 1.00 (one), the more model is accepted to be fit.
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	< 0.08	RMSEA value must be less than 0.08. If its value is closed to 0.00 (zero), the model is accounted to be fit.
TLI (Tucker Lewis Index)	> 0.90	TLI value must be higher than 0.90.
NFI (Normed Fit Index)	> 0.90	NFI value must be higher than 0.90.
AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit) The overall model analysis where there is an adjustment of number of estimated coefficients.	> 0.90	AGFI value must be higher than 0.90.

Source: Sinjaru (2012) and Rangsungnoen (2011)

3.8 Data Collection

3.8.1 Primary Data Collection

Due to the primary data, the researcher used the questionnaire as a research instrument for data collection. There were 1,000 questionnaires being copied and distributed to three major vehicle showrooms in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area. The details of expected samples were shown in the topic "Population and Sample Selection." Before distributing the questionnaires to companies, the university's cover letter, requesting for the permission to answer the questionnaires, was attached. All questionnaires were used to ask managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff who always communicate with customers during the period of the work time. Regarding the questionnaire, it was divided into five parts consisting of 1) personal information such age, gender, education, income, positions and working experiences, 2) brand personalities, 3) personal-social identification, 4) organizational commitment, and 5) prosocial behavior. When the questionnaires were completely filled in, the researcher asked companies for a favor to send them back to the university and also went to pick them up if necessary.

3.8.2 Secondary Data Collection

Due to the secondary data, the researcher collected required information such as journals, documents, magazines, the Internet, and other sources relating to the study of the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and organizational commitment and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector in order to support some missing points. This is an important concept because some data of someone else for some other purposes would help fulfill the points. Sources of the secondary data were such as the university library, online sources (ProQuest), governmental websites, Japanese automotive company profile websites, and so on. In addition, the secondary data would also help analyze in terms of quantitative analysis.

3.9 Pilot Test

The pilot test was done in order to test the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior (role-prescribed and extra-role behavior) and organizational commitment (affective commitment) and the mediating effect of brand identification (personal and social identification) in Japanese automotive service sector (Toyota, Honda, and Nissan). There were 40 questionnaires distributed to companies. The respondents were managers, salespersons, front-desk employees, and supporting unit staff. In the questionnaire, the researcher has referred to the previous questionnaires used by many researchers such as Aaker (1997), Mowday and Steers (1979), and Bettencourt and Brown (1997). Since the questionnaire was originally written in English, the researcher has thus employed an English academician to translate it into Thai and to do a back translation in order to check for its correction. A tool for data analysis was SPSS software (version 17.0) while statistics used were mean, standard deviation, and *t*- test value. In addition, the pilot test was also examined for its reliability, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also used.

3.10 Data Processing and Analysis

3.10.1 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS)

After the returned questionnaires were received, data analysis was conducted. Descriptive statistics including percentage, frequency, and mean were used to generate generic information of the respondents consisting of education, gender, income, and others. Another method and tool used was the structural requirement modeling by structural equation modeling (SEM) using a software called Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS). The SEM was used to test the correlation of independent variables and latent factors. The variables were hypothesized in the section of conceptual model related to the dimensions of brand personality.

Five dimensions of brand personality (J. L. Aaker, 1997) in the study have been approved in the current research. Besides, in order to confirm that the five dimensions were effective for car service center, the factor analysis was accompanied in the first phase of the study.

3.10.2 Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis is a measurement that could let the researcher to examine the reliability of the properties of measurement scales and the items providing information about the relationships between individual items in the scale. Garver and Mentzer (1999) recommended computing Cronbach’s alpha coefficients to determine the scale reliability. If the value of alpha is greater than or equal to 0.70, it implies sufficiency of reliability.

3.10.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also used in the study since it lets the researcher to examine the relationship between variables and priority relationship pattern of the study and then tests the hypothesis statistically. There were various impacts against the Confirmatory Factor Analysis such as the research hypothesis, the requirement of sufficient sample size, the instruments of measurement, and the missing data (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996).

The research processed CFA by reviewing the relevant theories and literature to support model specification, specifying a model, determining model identification, collecting data, and testing the measurement model in order to determine whether the research model would be appropriate, related indicators including *p*-value (Chi-square Probability Level), CMIN/df (Relative Chi-square), TLI (Tucker Lewis Index), GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), NFI (Normed Fit Index), and AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit). The *p*-value should be more than 0.05 whereas the CMIN/df value should be less than 3. The values of GFI, TLI, NFI, and AGFI should be higher than 0.90. Finally, the RMSEA value must be lower than 0.08. If this value is satisfactory, the CFA would be considered as the data-fit model (Arbuckle, 2011).

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULT

Chapter 4 presented the results of statistical analysis for research questions and hypotheses and data collection from 1,061 respondents of three Japanese brands of service car centers. The results were organized into four sections including (a) the population and sample response rate, (b) statistical analysis of the five-part questionnaires including general information of respondents, corporate brand personality, personal and social identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior, (c) statistical analysis answering to the research questions and hypotheses, and (d) summary.

4.1 Data Preparation

4.1.1 The Population and Sample Response Rate

The target population in this study was the service car centers from three major Japanese automotive brands including Toyota, Honda, and Nissan located in Bangkok and Metropolitan Area. To get these numbers, the researcher selected the quota sampling as a sampling tool by using percentage to generate the showroom availability ratio and then used an obtained ratio to compute the number of employees for each brand. Regarding the selection of the respondents for the study, the researcher has considered selecting the non-probability as the sampling method. All of these respondents, including customer services, front desk employees, supporting unit staff, salespersons, sale-supervisors, and managers, worked in three Japanese automotive service brands. The expected numbers of respondents were 1,000 consisting of 569 from Toyota, 238 from Honda, and 193 from Nissan.

In order to meet the expected samples computed in the research methodology, the researcher has distributed questionnaires to three Japanese automotive service brands accompanying with the letters authorized by Rajamangala University of Technology Thanyaburi (RMUTT).

Besides, the researcher visited those showrooms in order to collect data. The total numbers of questionnaires distributed were 1,800 questionnaires. However, there were only 1,061 valid questionnaires comprising 576 from Toyota, 266 from Honda, and 219 from Nissan returned to the researcher, so a response rate was about 58.94%.

4.1.2 Data Coding and Entry

More than a thousand of questionnaires were answered and completed by the respondents working in the part of service centers of three Japanese automobile showrooms including Toyota, Honda, and Nissan around Bangkok and its outskirt provinces and returned to the researcher. The obtained data were then encoded and inserted into the computer by using abbreviations relevant to all variables shown in Table 4-1. These variables were named in the abbreviation form because they would be easily understood and interpreted when data analysis was needed. The software called “SPSS” and “AMOS” were used for data analysis.

Table 4-1 Abbreviation of constructs

Construct group	Factor loadings	Abbreviation	Type of variable
Brand personality	Competence	Competence	Exogenous latent variable
	Sincerity	Sincerity	Exogenous latent variable
	Excitement	Excitement	Exogenous latent variable
	Sophistication	Sophistication	Exogenous latent variable
	Ruggedness	Ruggedness	Exogenous latent variable
Identification	Personal identification	Personal	Mediator
	Social identification	Social	Mediator
Organizational Commitment	Affective Organizational	Commitment	Mediator
Prosocial behavior	Prescribed-role behavior	Role	Endogenous latent variable
	Extra role behavior	Extrarole	Endogenous latent variable

4.2 Profile of Respondents

In this part, the questionnaires were distributed to the targeted respondents working in three major companies (Toyota, Honda, and Nissan) in order to collect demographic information consisting of gender, age, marital status, education level, working experiences, position, and income. The detail of the obtained information were discussed below.

Table 4-2 Respondents' profile

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	418	39.4
Female	643	60.6
Age (years old)		
21-25	282	26.6
26-30	388	36.6
31-35	215	20.3
36-40	84	7.9
41-45	51	4.8
46-50	34	3.2
More than 51	7	0.7
Married status		
Single	663	62.5
Married	361	34.0
Divorced	37	3.5
Educational level		
Undergraduate	243	22.9
Graduate	775	73.0
Postgraduate	43	4.1
Year of working experience		
1-5	705	66.4
6-10	232	21.9
11-15	58	5.5
16-20	26	2.5
21-25	33	3.1
26-30	7	0.7
More than 31	0	0.0
Position		
Manager	64	6.0
Head of department	119	11.2
Sale representative	455	42.9
Reception	170	16.0
Others	253	23.8
Income (baht/month)		
Less than 15,000 Baht	466	43.9
15,001-25,000 Baht	298	28.1
25,001-35,000 Baht	152	14.3
35,001-45,000 Baht	82	7.7
45,001-55,000 Baht	38	3.6
More than 55,001Baht	25	2.4
Company		
Toyota	576	54.3
Honda	266	25.1
Nissan	219	20.6

In the aspect of gender, the study revealed that the respondents consisted of 60.6% of female and 39.4% of male.

In terms of age, the research showed that the majority of employees' age is in the group of 26-30 years old (36.6%), followed by the group of 21-25 years old (26.6%), the group of 31-35 years old (20.3%), the group of 36-40 years old (7.9%), the group of 41-45 years old (4.8%), the group of 46-50 years old (3.2%), and the group of the age that over than 51 years old (0.7%), respectively.

Regarding marital status of the respondents, it indicated that there were 663 respondents who were in single group (62.5%) while there were 361 respondents who were in married status (34.0%), and 37 respondents who were in divorced group (3.5%).

Regarding educational level, 775 respondents were in graduates group (73.0%), followed by 243 respondents in undergraduates group (22.9%) and 43 respondents in postgraduates group (4.1%).

In the aspect of working experiences, the majority of the respondents had working experiences between 1-5 years (66.4%). The second order was between 6-10 years (21.9%), and the third order was between 11-15 years (5.5%). The others were between 16-20 years (2.5%), between 21-25 years (3.1%) and between 26-30 years (0.7%), respectively. The study also revealed that none of the respondents had been working in their company longer than 31 years.

In relation to the position of the respondents, the study indicated that most of the respondents were sale representatives as accounted for 42.9% of total respondents. The customer service staff, the heads of department, and the managers were accounted for 16.0%, 11.2%, and 6.0%, respectively. Meanwhile, there were 23.8% of the returned questionnaires which the respondents' position, comprising auto parts department, customer relation, insurance, and security guards, did not fall into the proposed categorizations.

In terms of income, 466 respondents (43.9%) had the monthly income less than 15,000 Baht, followed by 298 respondents with the monthly income between 15,001 - 25,000 Baht (28.1%), 152 respondents with the monthly income between 25,001 - 35,000 Baht (14.3%), 82 respondents with the monthly income between 35,001- 45,000 Baht (7.7%), 38 respondents with the monthly income between 45,001 - 55,000 Baht (3.6%), and only 25 respondents with the monthly income more than 55,001 Baht (2.4%).

Among 1,061 respondents, 576 respondents (54.3%) are working in Toyota Company, while 266 respondents (25.1%) are working in Honda Company, and 219 respondents (20.6%) are working in Nissan Company, consequently.

4.2.1 Profile of Respondents Categorized by the Company

In addition, the below data presentation has also shown a profile of respondents in the form of the percentage and frequency of samples categorized based on the company.

Table 4-3 Characteristics of the sample categorized by the company

Characteristics	No. of respondents			
	Brands			Total
	Toyota Frequency (%)	Honda Frequency (%)	Nissan Frequency (%)	
Gender				
Male	232 (40.3)	95 (35.7)	91 (41.6)	418 (39.4)
Female	344 (59.7)	171 (64.3)	128 (58.4)	643 (60.6)
Age				
21-25	169 (29.3)	68 (25.6)	45 (20.5)	282 (26.6)
26-30	218 (37.8)	98 (36.8)	72 (32.9)	388 (36.6)
31-35	118 (20.5)	55 (20.7)	42 (19.2)	215 (20.3)
36-40	42 (7.3)	18 (6.8)	24 (11.0)	84 (7.9)
41-45	14 (2.4)	16 (6.0)	21 (9.6)	51 (4.8)
46-50	15 (2.6)	9 (3.4)	10 (4.6)	34 (3.2)
More than 51	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	5 (2.3)	7 (0.7)
Marital status				
Single	372 (64.6)	170 (63.9)	121 (55.3)	663 (62.5)
married	185 (32.1)	88 (33.1)	88 (40.2)	361 (34.0)
Divorced	19 (3.3)	8 (3.0)	10 (4.6)	37 (3.5)
Educational level				
Undergraduates	144 (25.0)	53 (19.9)	46 (21.0)	243 (22.9)
Graduate	419 (72.7)	198 (74.4)	158 (72.1)	775 (73.0)
Postgraduate	13 (2.3)	15 (5.6)	15 (6.8)	43 (4.1)
Working experience				
1-5	402 (69.8)	165 (62.0)	138 (63.0)	705 (66.4)
6-10	127 (22.0)	65 (24.4)	40 (18.3)	232 (21.9)
11-15	27 (4.7)	16 (6.0)	15 (6.8)	58 (5.5)
16-20	7 (1.2)	7 (2.6)	12 (5.5)	26 (2.5)
21-25	13 (2.3)	12 (4.5)	8 (3.7)	33 (3.1)
26-30	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	6 (2.7)	7 (0.7)
More than 31	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Position				
Manager	29 (5.0)	14 (5.3)	21 (9.6)	64 (6.0)
Head of department	51 (8.9)	36 (13.5)	32 (14.6)	119 (11.2)
Sale representative	244 (42.4)	117 (44.0)	94 (42.9)	455 (42.9)
Reception	99 (17.2)	43 (16.2)	28 (12.8)	170 (16.0)
Other	153 (26.6)	56 (21.1)	44 (20.1)	253 (23.8)
Income (Baht/month)				
less than 15,000	289 (50.2)	111 (41.7)	66 (30.1)	466 (43.9)
15,001-25,000	147 (25.5)	66 (24.8)	85 (38.8)	298 (28.1)
25,001-35,000	67 (11.6)	47 (17.7)	38 (17.4)	152 (14.3)
35,001-45,000	38 (6.6)	23 (8.6)	21 (9.6)	82 (7.7)
45,001-55,000	20 (3.5)	10 (3.8)	8 (3.7)	38 (3.6)
More than 55,001	15 (2.6)	9 (3.4)	1 (0.5)	25 (2.4)

4.2.2 Characteristics of the Majority of the Respondents

Table 4-4 Characteristics of the majority of the respondents

Percent	Characteristics
60.6	Female
36.6	Age between 26-30 years old
62.5	Single
73.0	Graduates
66.4	1-5 years of working experiences
42.9	Being as the sale representative
43.9	Earning less than 15,000 Baht per month
54.3	Working with the company

In summary, after data were analyzed, the results revealed that the majority of the respondents was female accounted for 60.6% of total respondents. In terms of age, the respondents were between 26-30 years old. The majority was single accounted for 62.5%. Besides, based on educational level, 73.0% of the respondents were categorized into graduate level. Considering the working experiences, approximately 66.4% of the respondents had 1-5 years of working experiences. According to the career of the respondents, it was found that 42.9% of the respondents were the sale representatives of the company while 43.9% of the respondents could get paid less than 15,000 Baht per month, and 54.3% working with Toyota.

4.3 Main Study of Construct Assessment

In this part, the researcher used the structural requirement modeling software called analysis of moment structures (AMOS) to assess the correlation of independent variables and latent factors. The process employed in this stage included Exploratory Factor Analysis by Component Principle Axis Factoring and reliability analysis using SPSS program, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), both first and second-order. After the CFA was done, structural model was assessed to determine the model fit. The scales assessed were five dimensions of brand personality, personal identification, social identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior.

4.3.1 Scale Evaluation for Brand Personality – Exogenous Variables

- **Scale Dimension and Reliability Analysis**

The scales for measuring brand personality were composed of five dimensions developed by Aaker (1997). The five dimensions of brand personality included competence, sincerity, excitement, sophistication, and ruggedness. The researcher started by performing an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring and Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalization in order to determine the scale dimensionality. Five components were extracted which were accounted for 77.75, 73.25, 72.39, 77.92, and 78.72 percent of the total variance, respectively. Furthermore, Wanichbancha (2008) recommended checking Bartlett's test of sphericity that produced a significant value of 3537.41, 3248.19, 2956.17, 3965.23, and 3744.25, respectively ($p < 0.01$), indicating that all dimensions have correlated to each other significantly. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value in all dimensions were 0.86, 0.84, 0.84, 0.79, and 0.84 (which were higher than 0.7). This represented the appropriation of all items in measuring brand personality. Next, the researcher performed reliability analysis of each dimension, and the result showed that all dimensions produced a high alpha coefficient value ranging from 0.91 to 0.94. Apart from the alpha value, all item-total correlation was high ranging from 0.66 to 0.88 as shown in tabulation. To identify the reliability, the analyst needs to know about the Cronbach's Alpha value which is required to be above 0.7 and closed to 1.00. In addition, the terms called “corrected item-total correlation” must also be considered whose value should not be in a negative side.

From the study, the overall observation indicated that five personality dimensions have been in very high point and accepted for the reliability. Table 4-14 showed the reliability analysis results of personality traits.

Table 4-5 Component matrix of personality dimensions

Items	Factor Loadings				
	Competence	**Sincerity**	**Excitement**	**Sophistication**	**Ruggedness**
Competence1	0.89				
Competence2	0.85				
Competence3	0.90				
Competence4	0.89				
Sincerity1		0.68			
Sincerity2		0.88			
Sincerity3		0.92			
Sincerity4		0.92			
Excitement1			0.86		
Excitement2			0.88		
Excitement3			0.87		
Excitement4			0.79		
Sophistication1				0.86	
Sophistication2				0.90	
Sophistication3				0.89	
Sophistication4				0.88	
Ruggedness1					0.87
Ruggedness2					0.93
Ruggedness3					0.85
Ruggedness4					0.90
Number of cases	1,061	1,061	1,061	1,061	1,061
Eigenvalues value	3.11	2.93	2.90	3.12	3.15
% of Variance extracted	77.75	73.25	72.39	77.92	78.72
Cronbach's alpha	0.93	0.91	0.91	0.93	0.94

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

Competence: After analyzing the reliability of the data based on competence, the result revealed that four items had high Cronbach's Alpha value which was 0.93. In terms of the value of corrected item-total correlation, each item appeared to have high favorable value ranging from 0.82 – 0.85 (see Appendix A).

Sincerity: Regarding the scale for measuring sincerity which consisted of four items, the results turned out to acceptance point where the Cronbach's Alpha value was very high which was 0.91. The range of corrected item-total correlation value was also high ranging from 0.66 to 0.86 (see Appendix A).

Excitement: The scale for measuring the reliability of excitement scale has high Cronbach's Alpha value which was 0.91. Meanwhile, a range of corrected item-total correlation value was also positive ranging from 0.75-0.83 (see Appendix A).

Sophistication: As for the reliability analysis of this dimension covering four traits including upper class, glamorous, good looking, and charming, the result of Cronbach's Alpha value was discovered in high level which was 0.93, meaning that the reliability of the sophistication is highly acceptable. In relation to the value of corrected item-total correlation, the range of the item value was also high ranging from 0.83 to 0.87 (see Appendix A).

Ruggedness: The ruggedness with its traits, namely tough, rugged, outdoorsy, and masculine, produced high Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.94. It is the highest value comparing with other personality dimensions. Moreover, it also created the most favorable range of item-total correlation value ranging from 0.82 – 0.86 (see Appendix A).

In conclusion, all brand personality sub-scales had the Cronbach's Alpha value between 0.91 and 0.94. Besides, all item-total correlation values were in an acceptable range. The details were described in Appendices to analyze any studied scale whether it is reliable or not, and the reliability analysis should be taken into account. The result of the reliability analysis of the five dimensions of brand personality was positive indicating that data involving these dimensions were acceptable for further analysis.

- **Purification of Brand Personality**

Each dimension of brand personality model was assessed by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in order to ensure that the scales have correlation between variables and latent variables which could help understand the latent variables via the observe variables. It could also help investigate whether the theoretical model could be used in the different population and different area. The AMOS (version 20) program was employed in the study. The fit model evaluation criteria could be looked upon data-model fit evaluation and its criteria (Arbuckle, 2011). After the data from SPSS software were computed, the values were displayed in standardized estimate mode. Once the data-fit model does not fall within the criteria, it means that the current studying model is not acceptable. Then, the model decoration is needed to be implemented. In order to decorate the model, the MI (modification indices) is mainly considered.

CFA of competence

Competence scale consisting of reliable, intelligent, successful, and confident which were represented by Competence 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively were assessed by using CFA in AMOS program in order to purify the measurement model (Arbuckle, 2011). the result showed that the value of crucial criteria upon the data-model fit evaluation table was not fit (*p*-value value = 0.00). The model was not accepted, and the *p*-value value was less than 0.05 as recommended. Thus, the researcher has adjusted the value by correlating item “Competence 1” and “Competence 2.” The selection of these two items was made because they had the highest value of Modification Indices (MI) according to the decorated model recommendation (Sinjaru, 2012). After that, the values used to analyze how fit the data model is were positive upon the recommended criteria. The *p*-value was 0.10, and CMIN/df was 2.74 while GFI was 1.00, and RMSEA was 0.00. With these favorable values, the model of competence scale was accepted as the data-model fit. Furthermore, it required to consider at TLI (Tucker Lewis Index) and NFI (Normed Fit Index) value to marginally support for the proposed model whether it is acceptable as well as to overlook at the AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit) value which helps assess the overall model where there is an adjustment of the number of estimated coefficients. In this case, these values (TLI = 1.00, NFI = 1.00, and AGFI = 0.99) were favorable meaning that the model was accepted because their scores were more than 0.90 as recommended.

Table 4-6 Model fit statistics of competence

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Competence (1,2,3,4)	19.46	2	9.73	0.00	0.99	0.95	0.01	0.09	0.99	1.00	1.00
Adjusted model	2.74	1	2.74	0.10	1.00	0.99	0.00	0.04	1.00	1.00	1.00

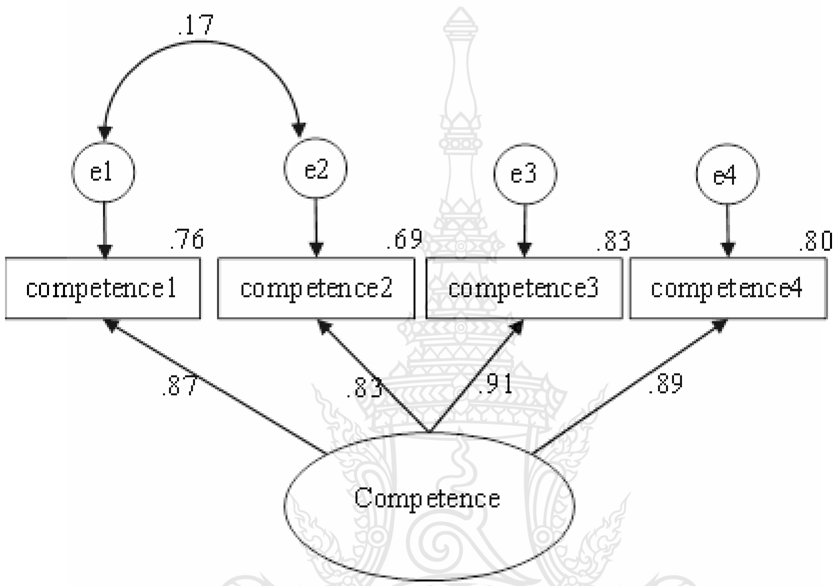

Figure 4-1 Measurement model of competence

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results indicated that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.83 to 0.913 with *t*-value ranging from 13.53 to 17.99 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Furthermore, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.69 and 0.83. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.93. Then, this presents that each factor loading and the model were consistent and adequately fit.

CFA of sincerity

Sincerity model comprising with down-to-earth, honest, wholesome, and sincere which represented by Sincerity 1, 2, 3, and 4, consequently were evaluated by CFA in order to answer whether the data model is fit to the study. The result showed the value of crucial criteria recommended by data-model fit evaluation (Sinjaru, 2012) turned out to be positive. The *p*-value was 0.08, and CMIN/df was 2.53 whereas GFI was 1.00, and RMSEA was 0.04. With these favorable values, the model of sincerity was accepted as the data-model fit. In addition, TLI and NFI values were used to marginally support the proposed model while the AGFI was used to assess the overall model. In this case, these values (TLI = 1.00, NFI = 1.00, and AGFI = 1.00) were favorable indicating that the model was accepted.

Table 4-7 Model fit statistics of sincerity

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Sincerity (1, 2, 3, 4)	5.05	2	2.53	0.08	1.00	1.00	0.01	0.04	1.00	1.00	1.00

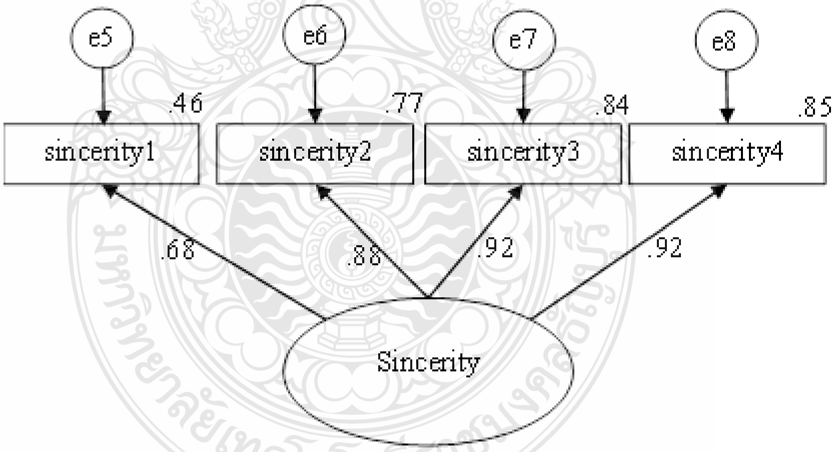

Figure 4-2 Measurement model of sincerity

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

Regarding data analysis, the results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.68 to 0.92 with *t*-value ranging from 26.86 to 48.73 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.46 and 0.85. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.91. As a result, this presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

CFA of excitement

The CFA was used in order to study the purification of the excitement (Excitement 1, 2, 3, and 4 which stand for exciting, spirited, imaginative, and up-to-date, respectively). The model was firstly studied by putting in the AMOS program, but the results (*p*-value = 0.00) came out with none of satisfaction to consider as it is a fit model. The *p*-value was less than 0.05 as recommended. So far, the researcher has adjusted its value by using recommended method of Sinjaru (2012). The score of Modification Indices was taken to see which observed variables would be combined. Considering the observed variables, Excitement 3 and 4 were selected. After using the mentioned method, the model was considered as the fit model because it had 0.91 of *p*-value, 0.01 of CMIN/df value, 1.00 of GFI value, and 0.00 of RMSEA value, consequently. Moreover, TLI and NFI values and AGFI value were used to marginally support the proposed model whether the model is accepted. Its value showed favorable meaning where each value was positive to the model acceptability analysis (TLI = 1.00, NFI = 1.00, and AGFI = 1.00).

Table 4-8 Model fit statistics of excitement

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Excitement (1, 2, 3, 4)	55.71	2	27.86	0.00	0.97	0.86	0.03	0.16	0.95	0.98	0.98
Adjusted model	0.01	1	0.01	0.91	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

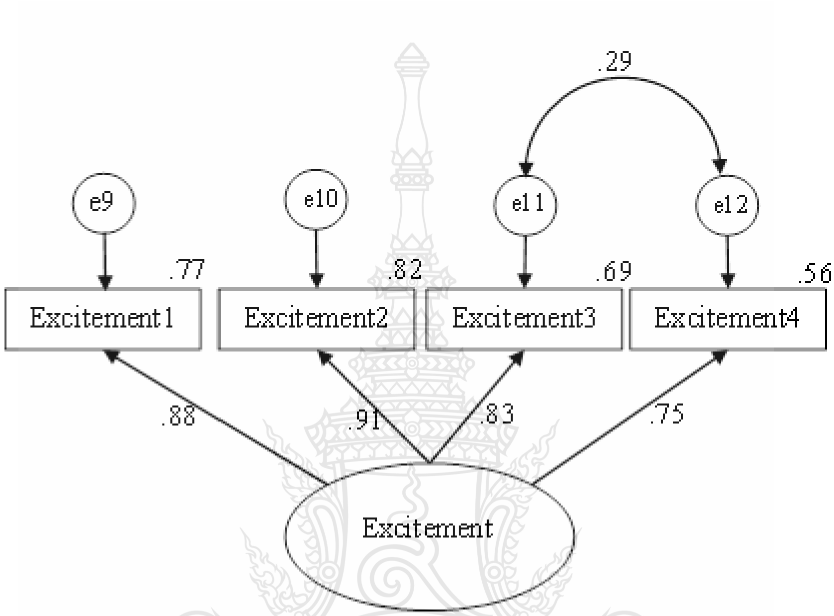

Figure 4-3 Measurement model of excitement

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.75 to 0.91 with *t*-value ranging from 32.52 to 34.97 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Besides, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.56 and 0.82. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach’s Alpha value was 0.91. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

CFA of sophistication

The sophistication model consisting of upper class, glamorous, good looking, and charming presented by Sophistication 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively were assessed by CFA in order to purify the scale. After the first analysis before the model decoration, the results were not fit (*p*-value = 0.00) affecting the point of the model that would not be fit upon the statistically set point. The *p*-value was less than 0.05 as recommended which is not acceptable for being a data-model fit (Arbuckle, 2011). In addition, the value of CMIN/df was 217.12 (greater than 3 is not acceptable suggested by Sinjaru (2012) and Rangsungnoen (2011)), and the value of GFI was 0.82 (less than 0.90 is not acceptable) while the value of RMSEA was 0.45 (greater than 0.08 is not acceptable). However, after the model decoration was done, the value of *p*-value, CMIN/df, GFI, and RMSEA was each acceptable as shown the values of 0.08, 3.03, 1.00, and 0.04, respectively. Considering CMIN/df value, it was found that the value did not meet the requirement of the model acceptability. The other fit indices such as TLI, NFI, and AGFI were also additionally employed to marginally support the proposed model. In this case, the values of TLI (1.00), NFI (1.00), and AGFI (0.99) were acceptable because each value was higher than 0.9 as recommended. Overall, the model of sophistication was accepted as the data-model fit.

Table 4-9 Model fit statistics of sophistication

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Sophistication (1, 2, 3, 4)	434.23	2	217.12	0.00	0.82	0.09	0.08	0.45	0.67	0.89	0.89
Adjusted model	3.03	1	3.03	0.08	1.00	0.99	0.00	0.04	1.00	1.00	1.00

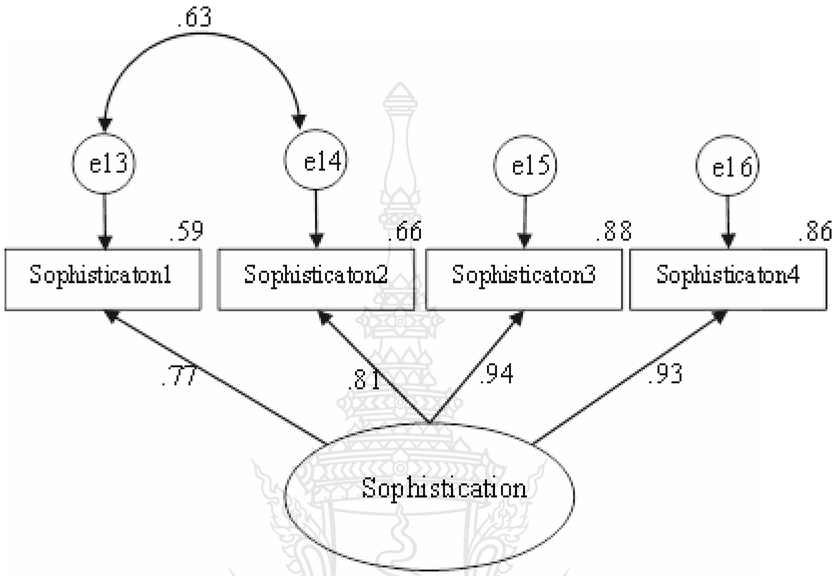

Figure 4-4 Measurement model of sophistication

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.77 to 0.93 with *t*-value ranging from 33.33 to 48.89 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Furthermore, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.58 and 0.82. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.93. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

CFA of ruggedness

The ruggedness model consisting of tough, rugged, outdoorsy, and masculine presented by Ruggedness 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively were assessed by CFA. After the first analysis, it was found that the model was not fit. So far, there had been decorated the model, and the results were found improved after that. The values of CMIN/df, GFI, and RMSEA were equal to 10.74, 1.00, and 0.10, respectively as shown in the below table. It could be concluded that the model of ruggedness is accepted as the data-model fit. Lastly, the other fit indices such as TLI, NFI, and AGFI were also used to marginally support the proposed model. In this case, the values of TLI (0.98), NFI (1.00), and AGFI (0.95) were acceptable because each value was higher than 0.9 as recommended.

Table 4-10 Model fit statistics of ruggedness

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Ruggedness 1, 2, 3, 4	70.48	2	35.24	0.00	0.97	0.85	0.03	0.18	0.95	0.98	0.98
Adjusted model	10.74	1	10.74	0.00	1.00	0.95	0.01	0.10	0.98	1.00	1.00

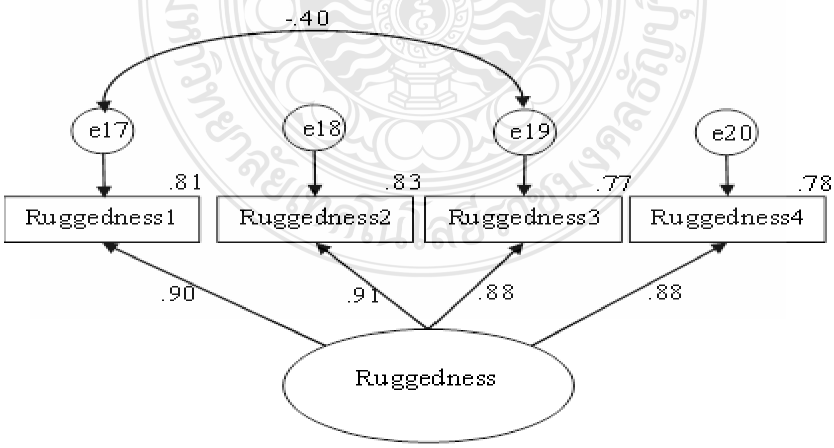

Figure 4-5 Measurement model of ruggedness

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.88 to 0.91 with t-value ranging from 36.07 to 42.00 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.77 and 0.83. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.94. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

- **Higher–order Factor Analysis Model for Corporate Brand Personality (Composite Factor)**

After each dimension of corporate brand personality was assessed, the higher–order factor analysis was taken into account to analyze the acceptability of the overall model. After the assessment, the *p*-value was found to be equal to 0.00. To be fit model, the other fit indices were still marginally acceptable. The CMIN/df was equal to 6.29 while the GFI was equal to 0.91, and the RMSEA was equal to 0.07. Lastly, the other fit indices such as TLI, NFI, and AGFI were also used to marginally support the proposed overall model. In this case, the values of TLI (0.96), NFI (0.96), and AGFI (0.89) were acceptable because each value was higher than 0.9 as recommended.

Table 4-11 Model fit statistics of corporate brand personality

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Composite factor	981.88	156	6.29	0.00	0.91	0.89	0.05	0.07	0.96	0.96	0.96

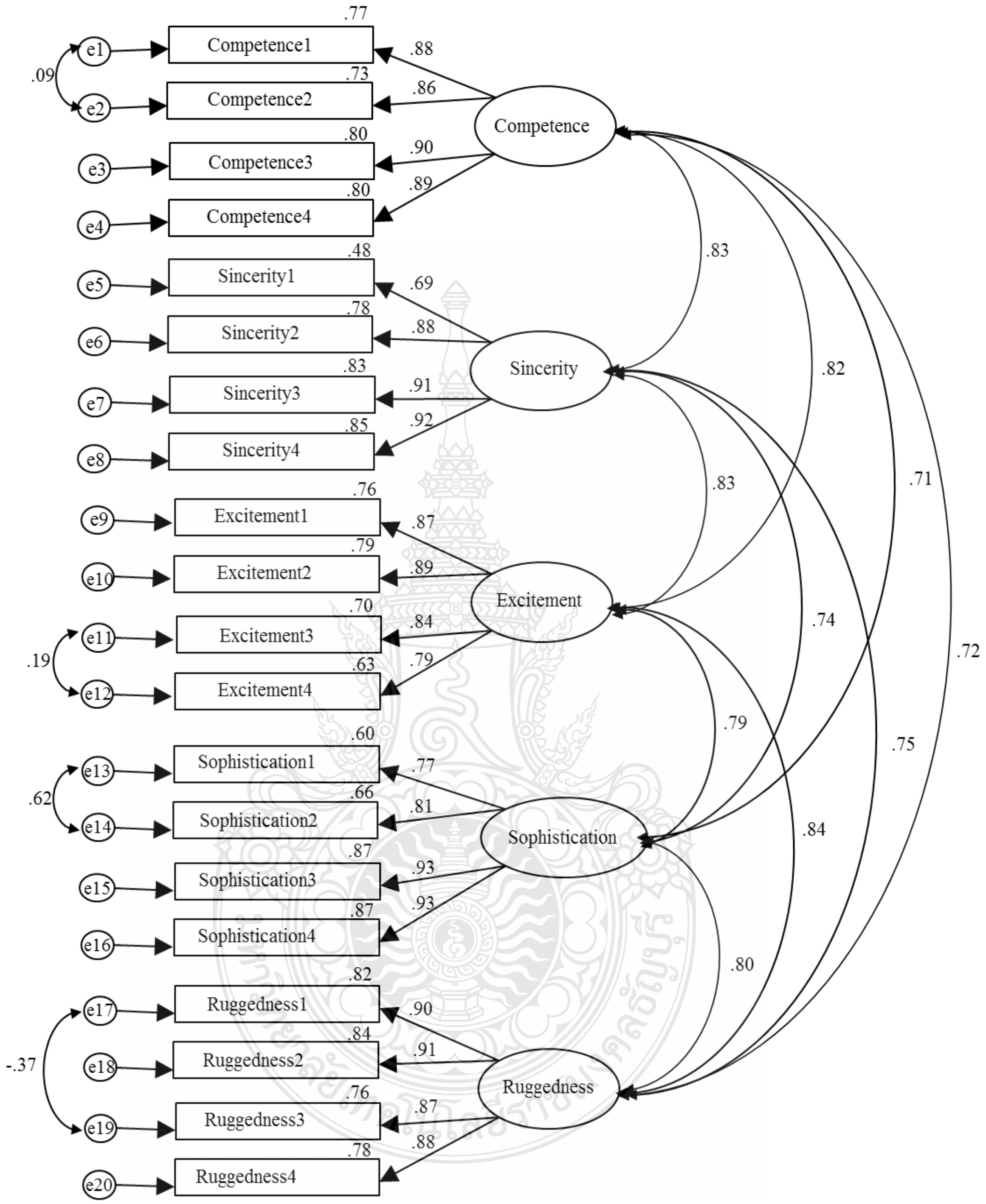

Figure 4-6 Measurement model of corporate brand personality

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown. 3) Coefficient shown between latent constructs are correlation coefficient.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.83 to 0.93 with *t*-value ranging from 27.72 to 49.83 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.69 and 0.93. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

- **Second Order of Factor Analysis Model for Corporate Brand Personality (Composite Factor)**

After each model of five corporate brand personalities were assessed by using the first order CFA and higher order CFA, the researcher used the second order CFA to evaluate the fitness of the data-fit model. The estimation of maximum likelihood was used here, and the result was shown in the standardized estimation display. To see whether the model is fit, the indices including GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NFI were employed to evaluate and analyze the result.

After the second order of factor analysis model was employed to study the fitness of the model, the results revealed that the indices including , CMIN/DF (6.85), *p*-value (0.00), GFI (0.96), AGFI (0.87), RMSEA (0.07), TLI (0.95), and NFI (0.95) were good because these values were higher than a recommendation of the model fit criteria (Arbuckle, 2011).

Table 4-12 Model fit statistics of second order of factor analysis of corporate brand personality

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Composite factor	1102.45	161	6.85	0.00	0.90	0.87	0.06	0.07	0.95	0.96	0.95

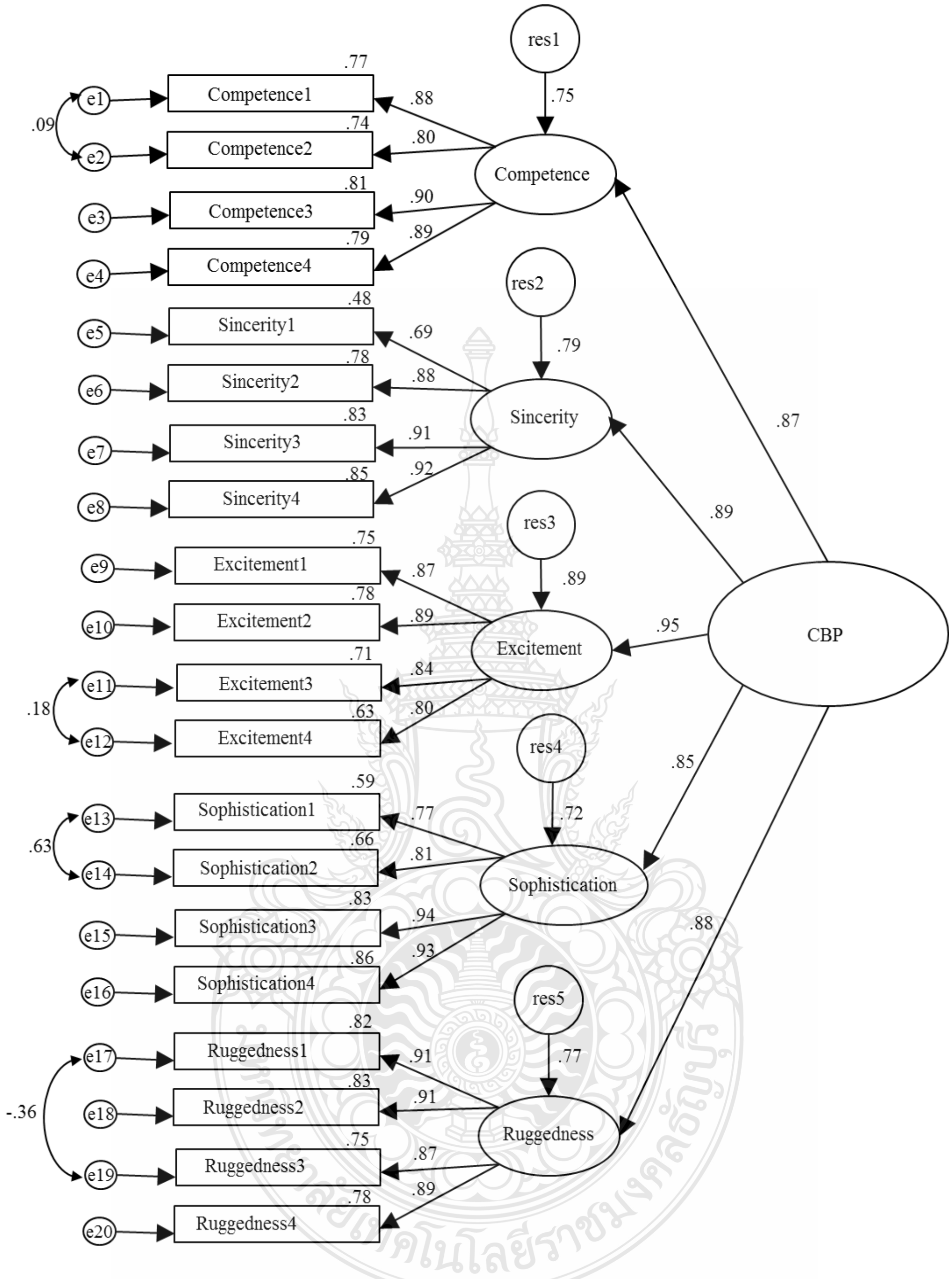

Figure 4-6 Measurement model of corporate brand personality

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown. 3) Coefficient shown between latent constructs are correlation coefficient.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.69 to 0.94 with *t*-value ranging from 26.70 to 53.21 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.47 and 0.89. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

4.3.2 Scale Evaluation for Personal-Social Identification (PI-SI) – Mediating Variables

- **Scale Dimension and Reliability**

To evaluate personal and social identifications, the researcher employed the exploratory factor analysis by using principal axis factoring and Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalization. The variances of personal identification were extracted accounted for 71.87 percent of the total variance while the variances of social identification were extracted accounted for 7.61 percent of the total variance. Furthermore, Wanichbancha (2008) recommended checking Bartlett's test of sphericity which produced a significant value of 16883.99 ($p < 0.01$) as well as Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of .954 (higher than 0.7), indicating that all dimensions have correlated to each other's significantly. This represents the appropriation of all items in measuring personal and social identifications. Next, the researcher performed the reliability analysis of each dimension. To identify the reliability, the analyst needs to know about the Cronbach's Alpha value which is required to be higher than 0.7 and closed to 1.00. Table 4-13 showed the results of rotated pattern matrix of personal and social identification.

Table 4-13 Rotated pattern matrix of personal and social identification

Items	Factor Loadings	
	Personal Identification	**Social Identification**
Personal1: The image of my organization fits my personality.	0.81	
Personal2: The image of my organization matches lifestyle.	0.86	
Personal3: The image of my organization represents my values well.	0.92	
Personal4: The image of my organization symbolizes the kind of person I really am inside.	0.99	
Personal5: This image of my organization reflects my personality.	0.91	
Personal6: This image of my organization is an extension of my inner self.	0.82	
Personal7: This image of my organization mirrors the real of me.	0.79	
Social1: The image of my organization gives me social recognition and respects.		0.86
Social2: The image of my organization enhances social status.		0.90
Social3: This image of my organization contributes to my image.		0.93
Social4: This image of my organization adds to a social "role" I play.		0.87
Social5: This image of my organization has positive impact on what others think of me.		0.93
Social6: This image of my organization improves the way society views me.		0.85
Number of case	1,061	1,061
Eigenvalue	9.55	1.19
% of variance extracted	71.87	7.61
Cronbach's Alpha	0.96	0.96

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin rotation with Kaiser Normalization.

Personal identification

Due to the study of factor loadings, Table 4-13 illustrated that the values of personal identification in each item ranged from 0.79 - 0.99 which were higher than 4.0. Therefore, none of studied items was deleted. Regarding the reliability analysis, the alpha score of the personal identification was 0.96 which was higher than 0.7 as empirical research recommended. With the higher score comparing the set standard, it means that the scales were reliable enough to be used in the study (see Appendix A).

Social identification

According to the factor loadings of social identification, the result indicated that the values of social identification were also very high in each item ranging from 0.85 - 0.93 which was higher than 4.0. Therefore, none of studied items was deleted. Regarding the reliability analysis, the alpha score of social identification was found to be very positive at 0.96 which was higher than 0.7 as an empirical research recommended. With the higher score comparing the set standard, it could be concluded that the scales were reliable enough to be used in the study (see Appendix A).

- **CFA of Personal and Social Identification**

After studying the factor loadings and the reliability analysis, the results confirmed that the scales were accepted. The next was to evaluate the model by employing CFA in the process. The result ensured that the scales had correlation between variables and latent variables which can help understand the latent variables via the observe variables. The good-fit model indices were used for evaluation (Arbuckle, 2011).

CFA of personal identification

The CFA method to purify the scale under personal identification (Personal 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7) was used to assess the fit model, and the results were not fit (*p*-value = 0.00, CMIN/df = 39.17, AGFI = 0.73, and RMSEA = 0.19) affecting the point of the model fit (Arbuckle, 2011). So far, the model was decorated by removing Personal 1, 2 and 3, and correlating 6 and 7, consequently in order to get an improvement of the model. The reason of deciding to remove and link them was considered by the pairs of the highest value of Modification Indices (Sinjaru, 2012). This decoration had been continuously made until the better results were found. As a result, the values of *p*-value = 0.29, CMIN/df = 1.10, GFI = 1.0, and RMSEA = 0.01 were acceptable to be analyzed. Moreover, the other fit indices such as TLI, NFI, and AGFI were also used to marginally support the proposed model. In this case, the values of TLI (1.00), NFI (1), and AGFI (0.99) were acceptable because each value was higher than 0.9 as recommended. With these favorable values, the model of personal identification was therefore acceptable for data-model fit.

Table 4-14 Model fit statistics of personal identification

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Personal 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	548.33	14	39.16	0.00	0.87	0.73	0.05	0.19	0.91	0.92	0.94
Adjusted model	1.10	1	1.10	0.29	1.00	0.99	0.00	0.01	1.00	1.00	1.00

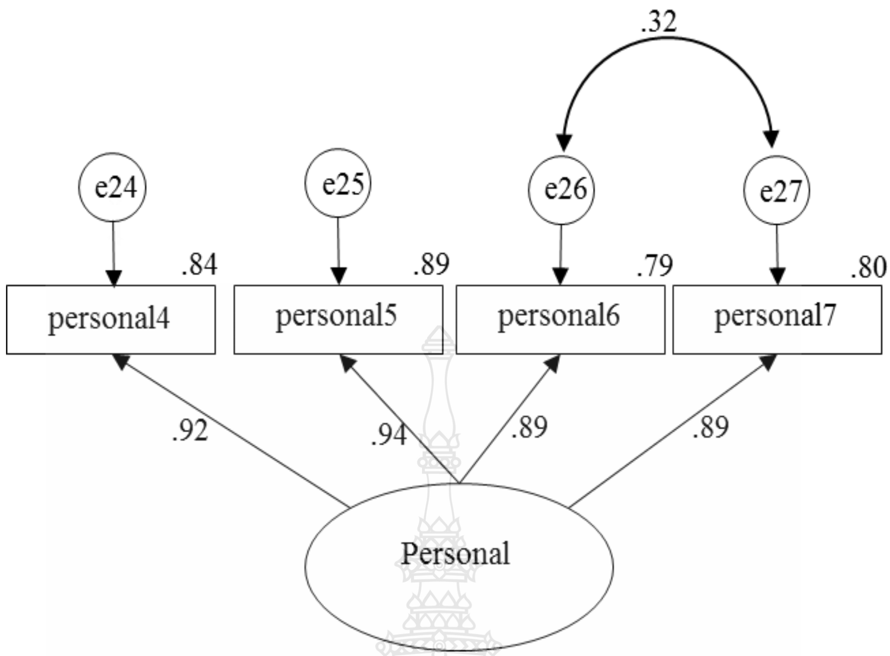

Figure 4-7 Measurement model of personal identification

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.89 to 0.94 with *t*-value ranging from 46.30 to 53.24 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.79 and 0.89. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.96. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

CFA of social identification

The CFA method to purify the scale under social identification (Social 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) was used to assess the fit model, and the results were not fit (CMIN/df = 19.24, *p*-value = 0.00, and RMSEA = 0.13) affecting the point of the model fit analysis (Arbuckle, 2011). Thus, the model decoration is necessary to be considered to be taken into consideration. The item "Social 6" was removed while the Social 1 and 2 were correlated. The removal and correlation were made due to the highest modification index (MI) values. The MI is generally considered for model decoration. After that, the results were found improved - the value of *p*-value = 0.02, CMIN/df = 2.96, GFI = 1, and RMSEA = 0.04. Thus far, the data-model fitness was acceptable. Moreover, the other fit indices such as TLI, NFI, and AGFI were also used to marginally support the proposed model. In this case, the values of TLI (1.00), NFI (1.00), and AGFI (0.98) were acceptable because each value was higher than 0.9 as recommended. The closer score to 1, the better to analyze the model is fit. With these favorable values, the model of social identification was acceptable for data-model fit.

Table 4-15 Model fit statistics of social identification

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Social 1,2,3,4,5,6	173.18	9	19.24	0.00	0.95	0.87	0.02	0.13	0.96	0.98	0.98
Adjusted model	11.86	4	2.96	0.02	1.00	0.98	0.01	0.04	1.00	1.00	1.00

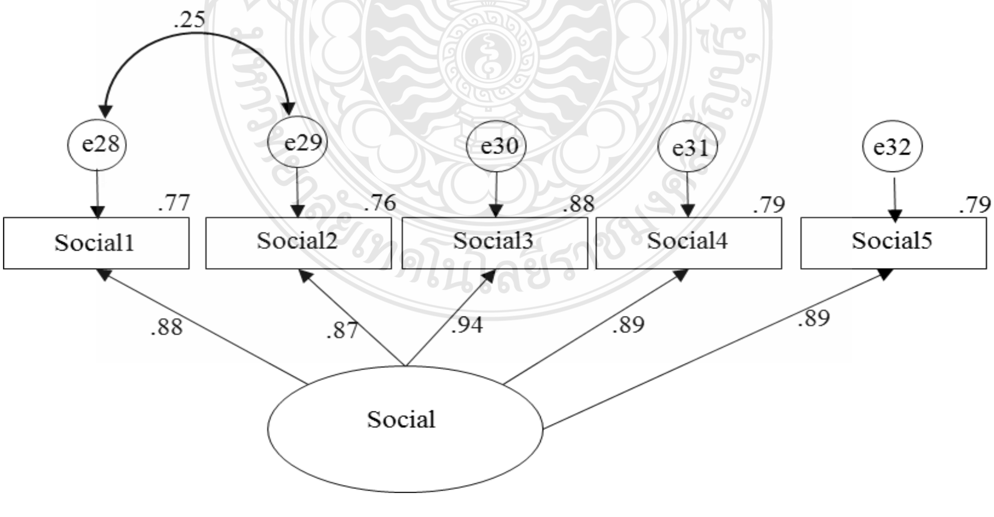

Figure 4-8 Measurement model of social identification
Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.87 to 0.94 with *t*-value ranging from 46.10 to 49.15 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.76 and 0.88. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.96. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

4.3.3 Scale Evaluation for Organizational Commitment (OC) – Mediating Variables

- **Scale Dimension and Reliability**

To evaluate organizational commitment, the researcher employed the exploratory factor analysis by using principal axis factoring and Oblimin rotation. The variances of organizational commitment were extracted which were accounted for 73.20 percent of the total variance. Also, Bartlett's test of sphericity produced a significant value of 5763.14 ($p < 0.01$) as well as Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.90 which was higher than 0.7), indicating that all dimensions have correlated to each other's significantly. This represents the appropriation of all items in measuring organizational commitment. Next, the researcher performed the reliability analysis of each dimension. To identify the reliability, the analyst needs to know about the Cronbach's Alpha value which is required to be higher than 0.7 and closed to 1.00. After the reliability was assessed, organizational commitment produced a very good value which was 0.94. Table 4-16 showed the results of rotated factor matrix of organizational commitment.

Table 4-16 Factor matrix of organizational commitment

Items	Factor Loadings Organizational Commitment
Commitment1: I really care for the fate of this organization.	0.78
Commitment2: I am willing to put in a great deal of effort.	0.87
Commitment3: This organization really inspires me to put my best effort.	0.89
Commitment4: I would accept almost my type of job assignment.	0.90
Commitment5: I am extremely glad that I choose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	0.86
Commitment6: Overall I am committed to this organization.	0.82
Number of case	1,061
Eigenvalue	4.66
% of variance extracted	73.20
Cronbach's Alpha	0.94

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Only one factor was extracted. The solution cannot be rotated.

After the study, the results were very satisfied because the Cronbach's Alpha value was very prestigious as it was 0.94. So far, it meant that this scale was acceptable to be used for further analysis. Furthermore, each item also had a high score and was more than suggested alpha value. The highest valued item was Commitment1 with its score of 0.94. In this case, the researcher also used the corrected item-total correlation to support the reliability of this variable. All items revealed positive scores ranging from 0.76 to 0.87 (see Appendix A).

CFA of organizational commitment

To study the purification of organizational commitment, the CFA was used. Once again, in each analysis of purification scale, the CFA criteria comprising CMIN/DF, *p*-value, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NFI were needed to be understood. The commitment model consisting of six items (commitment1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) obtained *p*-value at 0.00 at the first time. Even though the other values were accepted upon the set criteria shown in the table, the data-model fit analysis did not allow this such model being accepted if the *p*-value was still 0.00. Thus, the researcher has decorated the model by correlating the item which had a value of MI (modification indices) higher than others. The decoration has been continuously taken into the problem solution until the value of *p*-value represented that the model fit was acceptable. Herewith, the item “Commitment 1” and “Commitment 6” were removed while “Commitment 2” and “Commitment 5” were correlated. After many items were considered to be adjusted, the *p*-value came out with a positive value at 0.3 which was higher than set criteria. In addition, other fit indices such as CMIN/DF (1.08), GFI (1), AGFI (0.99), RMSEA (0.01), TLI (1), and NFI (1) were also positive since all of them passed the criteria of data-model fit (see Table 4-17).

Table 4-17 Model fit statistics of organizational commitment

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Commitment 1,2,3,4,5,6	282.81	9	31.42	0.00	0.92	0.80	0.04	0.17	0.92	0.95	0.95
Adjusted model	1.08	1	1.08	0.30	1.00	0.99	0.00	0.01	1.00	1.00	1.00

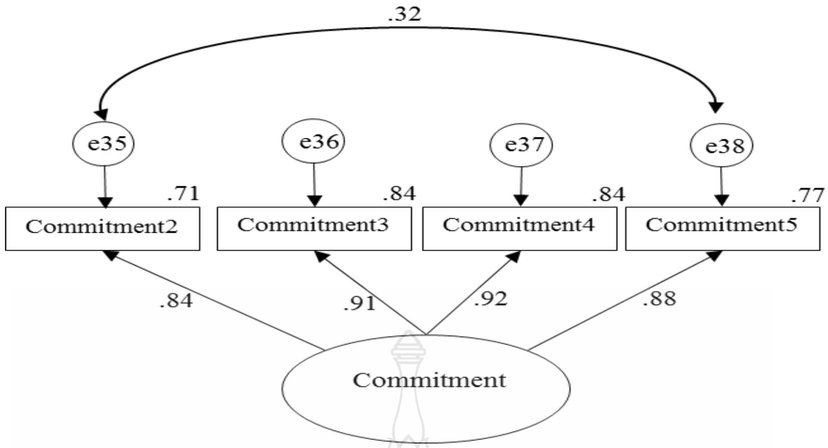

Figure 4-9 Measurement model of organizational commitment

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.84 to 0.92 with *t*-value ranging from 39.34 to 49.42 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.71 and 0.84. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.942. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

4.3.4 Scale Evaluation for Prosocial Behavior (PSB) – Dependent Variables

- **Scale Dimension and Reliability of Prosocial Behavior (PSB)**

To assess prosocial behavior, the researcher employed the exploratory factor analysis by using principal axis factoring and Oblimin rotation. Prosocial behavior that performed as dependent variables was divided into two dimensions, including prescribed-role behavior and extra-role behavior, in order to study the scale dimension and reliability. The results revealed that the variables of prescribed-role behavior were extracted accounted for 68.81 percent of the total variance while the variances of social identification were extracted accounted for 6.49 percent of the total variance. Furthermore, the Bartlett's test of sphericity in the study also produced a significant value of 13566.47 ($p < 0.01$) as well as Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy value of 0.95 (higher than 0.7), indicating that all dimensions have correlated to each other's significantly. This represents the appropriation of all items in measuring prosocial behavior. Next, the researcher performed the reliability analysis of each dimension. To identify the reliability, the analyst needs to know about the Cronbach's Alpha value which is required to be higher than 0.7 and closed to 1.00. Table 4-18 showed the results of the rotated factor matrix of personal and social identifications.

Table 4-18 Rotated pattern matrix of prosocial behavior (PSB)

Items	Factor Loadings	
	Prescribed-role behavior	Extra-role behavior
Role1: I perform all those tasks for guests that are required of me.	0.91	
Role2: I meet formal performance requirements when serving guests	0.96	
Role3: I fulfil responsibilities to guests as expected by management.	0.78	
Role4: I help guests with those things that are necessary and expected.	0.68	
Role5: I adequately complete all expected guest service behaviors.	0.86	
Role6: I fulfil responsibilities to guests as specified in my job description	0.79	
Extrarole1: I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements.		0.67
Extrarole2: I willingly go out of my way to make a gust satisfied.		0.52
Extrarole3: I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.		0.93
Extrarole4: I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me		0.88
Extrarole5: I fluently go out of the way to help hotel guests.		0.83
Extrarole6: I often serve customers in manner that exceeds my formal job requirements.		0.98
Number of case	1,061	1,061
Eigenvalue	8.50	1.01
% of variance extracted	68.82	6.49
Cronbach's Alpha	0.94	0.95

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Prescribed-role behavior

Due to the reliability of variable in the aspects of prescribed-role behavior, there were six items (ranging from Role 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) being studied. The results revealed that the alphas of these items were discovered in very high point (0.92, 0.92, 0.92, 0.94, 0.92, and 0.92, respectively), and it was 0.94 as a total. Both each and total score of the items had values higher than 0.7 as remarked in criteria recommendation. The highest value of the reliability was the item “Role 4” having a score of 0.94. Considering the item-total correlation which displayed a relation of the questions used in the questionnaires, it ranged from 0.69 to 0.85 indicating positive value (see Appendix A).

Extra-role behavior

There were six items (Extrarole 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) being studied for the reliability of extra-role behavior. The results revealed that the satisfied score of Cronbach's Alpha was 0.95 as a total. Furthermore, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient in each item was also high and greater than 0.7 as suggested. The most reliable variable was Extrarole 2 which was 0.95. Considering the item-total correlation in these variables, it also indicated that the relation of the questions in the questionnaires was correlated ranging positively from 0.81 to 0.90 (see Appendix A).

- **Purification of Analysis of Prosocial Behavior (PSB)**

CFA of prescribed-role behavior

The researcher used CFA to analyze its purification of model. The indices of CFA components including CMIN/DF, *p*-value, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NFI were needed to be understood. After the study, the model of prescribed-role behavior comprising six items (Role 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) obtained *p*-value at 0.0 at the first time. With this value, the data-model fit analysis did not accept this model. (To be fit, the model should have value more than 0.05). Therefore, the researcher has decorated the model by correlating the item which had a value of MI (modification indices) higher than others. This decoration was continuously done until the value was found to be improved. As consideration, the item “Role 4” and “Role 6” were removed, and the item “Role 3” and “Role 5” were correlated. After decoration, the value of *p*-value was considered acceptable since its value finally was 0.64 which fell within a favorable point (higher than 0.05). In addition, other fit indices such as CMIN/DF (0.21), GFI (1), AGFI (1), RMSEA (0.00), TLI (1), and NFI (1) were also positive because all of them passed the criteria of the model acceptability consideration (see Table 4-19).

Table 4-19 Model fit statistics of prescribed-role behavior

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Role1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	399.74	9	44.42	0.00	0.87	0.70	0.04	0.20	0.89	0.93	0.93
Adjusted Model	0.21	1	0.21	0.64	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

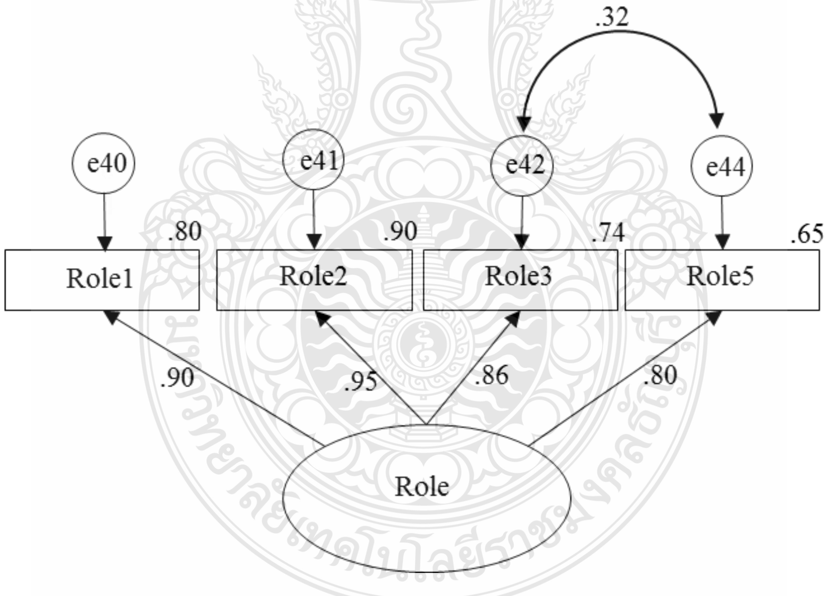

Figure 4-10 Measurement model of prescribed-role behavior

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights are ranging from 0.80 to 0.95 with *t*-value ranging from 36.57 to 43.20 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Besides, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.65 and 0.90. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.94. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

CFA of extra-role behavior

The extra-role behavior consisting of six items (including Extra 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) was assessed by CFA in order to study the purification analysis of the model would. After analyzing through the CFA processes, the model was firstly found to not fit. The value of CMIN/DF was 32.11, and *p*-value was 0.00 while RMSEA was 0.17. Thus, the model decoration was done. The extra-role 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 were analyzed according to the recommendation of MI (modification indices) to be correlated. In this scale none of items was decided to be removed, but the correlation of the item method was used instead since the index values of the model fitness components were found more favorable. After decoration, the model was interestingly improved. The values of CMIN/DF, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NFI were 0.98, 1.00, 0.99, 0.00, 1.00, and 1.00, respectively. More importantly, the *p*-value which was firstly at 0.00 became more positive with its value of 0.37. Thus, the model was fit.

Table 4-20 Model fit statistics of extra-role behavior

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Extra 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	289.01	9	32.11	0.00	0.92	0.81	0.03	0.17	0.93	0.96	0.96
Adjusted model	1.97	2	0.98	0.37	1.00	0.99	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

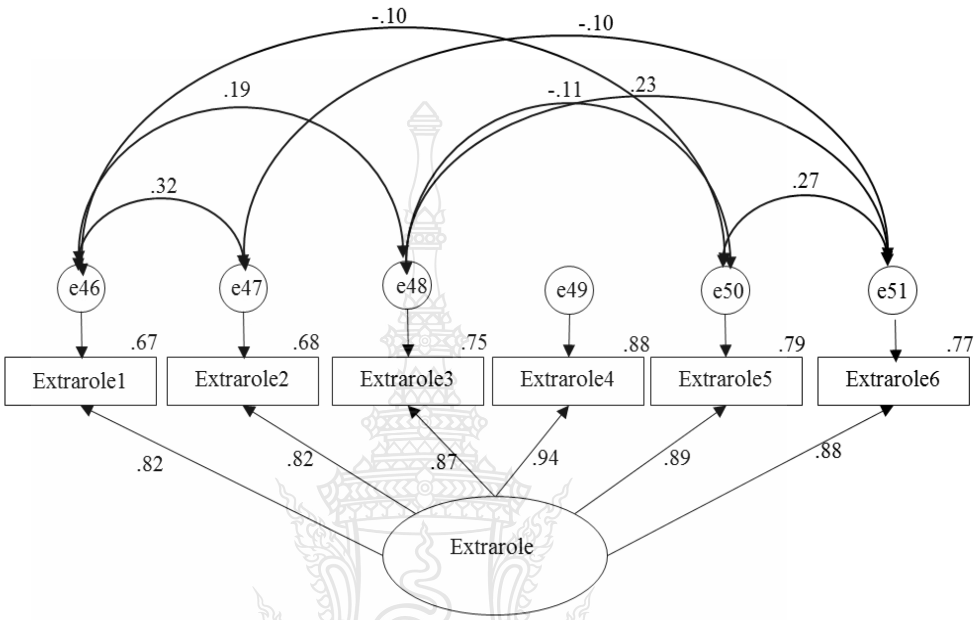

Figure 4-11 Measurement model of extra-role behavior

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.82 to 0.94 with *t*-value ranging from 34.2 to 44.04 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Furthermore, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.67 and 0.88. Moreover, the reliability showed Cronbach's Alpha value was 0.952. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

- **Higher–order factor analysis model for prosocial behavior (composite factor)**

For prosocial behavior, the higher-order factor analysis was taken into account to analyze the acceptability of the overall model. The result indicated that the model had a statistical significance level at 0.00 (*p*-value). As the model was found to be significant (*p*-value = 0.00), the other fit indices were employed to measure the model. After considering through the values, the model was then acceptable because the values of indices such as the GFI of 0.95 and the RMSEA of 0.01 were very favorable. Furthermore, the other fit indices such as TLI, NFI, and AGFI were also used to consider marginally supporting the proposed overall model. In this case, the values of TLI (0.96) and NFI (0.97) were very favorable except AGFI (0.89) which was lower than a recommendation. However, the value of AGFI which was 0.89 was also close to a recommendation. Therefore, the model of prosocial behavior was fit and accepted.

Table 4-21 Model fit statistics of prosocial behavior

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Composite factor loadings	301.07	26	11.58	0.00	0.95	0.89	0.04	0.10	0.96	0.98	0.97

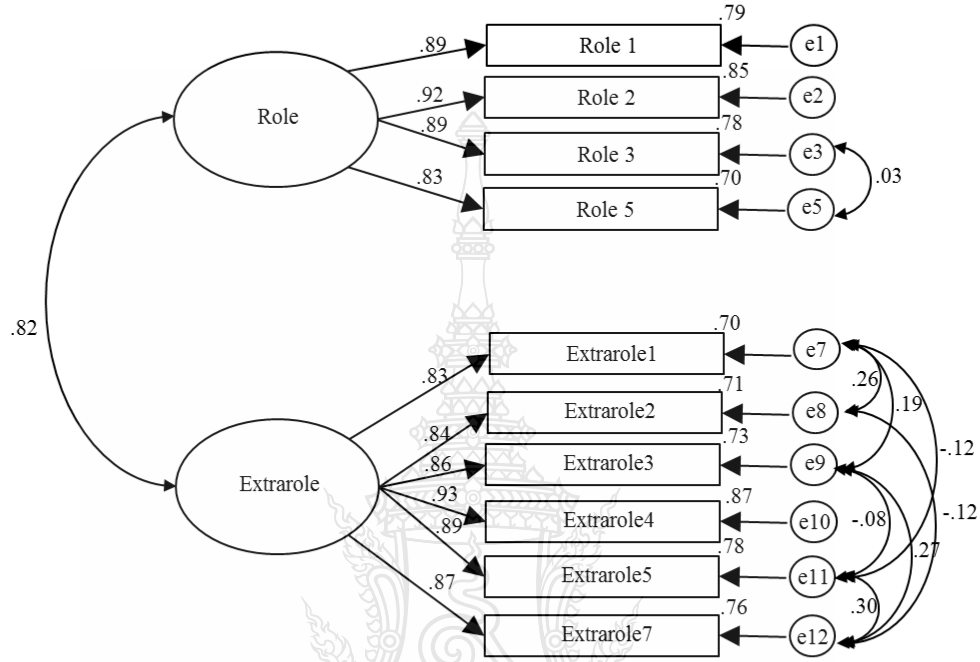

Figure 4-12 Measurement model of prosocial behavior

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown.

The results revealed that the standardized regression weights were ranging from 0.83 to 0.93 with *t*-value ranging from 35.26 to 45.14 above the criteria value of 1.96 at a significance level of 0.01 and higher than 0.50 as recommended (Sinjaru, 2012). Also, the square multiple correlations were in range between 0.69 and 0.86. This presents that each factor loading as well as the model were consistent and adequately fit.

4.3.5 Summarization of Items Used in Hypothesized Model Analysis

After performing exploratory factor analysis by using principal axis factoring and Oblimin rotation in order to determine the scale dimensionality computed by using SPSS program, all factor loadings had the values higher than 0.40 as recommended by Wanichbancha (2008). Apart from that, the study also produced satisfied Cronbach's Alpha values (higher than 0.7) which were used to determine the reliability of factor loadings.

After getting appropriate factor loadings, the researcher then employed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and the second confirmatory factor analysis (2^{nd}-CFA) with appropriate indices (CMIN, df, CMIN/DF, *p*-value, GFI, AGFI, RMR, RMSEA, TLI, CFI and NFI) by using AMOS program to identify the model fitness. After the model assessment process, the results indicated that some of items were necessary to be removed due to causes of unfitted model. All results drawn from the previous part of the study were displayed as follows:

Table 4-22 Summarization of items used in hypothesized model analysis

Constructs	Items	Questions	Decision
Corporate Brand Personality			
	Competence1	Reliable	Kept
	Competence2	Intelligent	Kept
	Competence3	Successful	Kept
	Competence4	Confident	Kept
	Sincerity1	Down-to-earth	Kept
	Sincerity2	Honest	Kept
	Sincerity3	Wholesome	Kept
	Sincerity4	Sincere	Kept
	Excitement1	Exciting	Kept
	Excitement2	Spirited	Kept
	Excitement3	Imaginative	Kept
	Excitement4	Up-to-date	Kept
	Sophistication1	Upper class	Kept
	Sophistication2	Glamorous	Kept
	Sophistication3	Good looking	Kept
	Sophistication4	Charming	Kept
	Ruggedness1	Tough	Kept
	Ruggedness2	Rugged	Kept
	Ruggedness3	Outdoorsy	Kept
	Ruggedness4	Masculine	Kept
Personal Identification	Personal1	The image of my organization fits my personality.	Dropped
	Personal2	The image of my organization matches lifestyle.	Dropped
	Personal3	The image of my organization represents my values well.	Dropped
	Personal4	The image of my organization symbolizes the kind of person I really am inside.	Kept
	Personal5	This image of my organization reflects my personality.	Kept
	Personal6	This image of my organization is an extension of my inner self.	Kept
	Personal7	This image of my organization mirrors the real of me.	Kept

Table 4- 22 Summarization of items used in hypothesized model analysis (continue)

Constructs	Items	Questions	Decision
Social Identification	Social1	The image of my organization gives me social recognition and respects.	Kept
	Social2	The image of my organization enhances social status.	Kept
	Social3	This image of my organization contributes to my image.	Kept
	Social4	This image of my organization adds to a social "role" I play.	Kept
	Social5	This image of my organization has positive impact on what others think of me.	Kept
	Social6	This image of my organization improves the way society views me.	Dropped
Organizational Commitment	Commitment1	I really care for the fate of this organization.	Dropped
	Commitment2	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort.	Kept
	Commitment3	This organization really inspires me to put my best effort.	Kept
	Commitment4	I would accept almost my type of job assignment.	Kept
	Commitment5	I am extremely glad that I choose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	Kept
	Commitment6	Overall I am committed to this organization.	Dropped
Prosocial Behavior	Role1	I perform all those tasks for guests that are required of me.	Kept
	Role2	I meet formal performance requirements when serving guests	Kept
	Role3	I fulfil responsibilities to guests as expected by management.	Kept
	Role4	I help guests with those things that are necessary and expected.	Dropped
	Role5	I adequately complete all expected guest service behaviors.	Kept
	Role6	I fulfil responsibilities to guests as specified in my job description	Dropped
	Extrarole1	I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements.	Kept
	Extrarole2	I willingly go out of my way to make a gust satisfied.	Kept
	Extrarole3	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	Kept
	Extrarole4	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me	Kept
	Extrarole5	I fluently go out of the way to help hotel guests.	Kept
	Extrarole6	I often serve customers in manner that exceeds my formal job requirements.	Kept

In conclusion, corporate brand personality was measured by using five dimensions including competence (reliable, intelligent, successful, and confident), sincerity (down-to-earth, honest, wholesome, and sincere), excitement (exciting, spirited, imaginative, and up-to-date), and sophistication (upper class, glamorous, good looking, and charming), and ruggedness (tough, rugged, outdoorsy, and masculine). Personal identification and social identification were measured by using 13 questions (7 questions for personal identification and 6 questions for social identification). Organizational commitment was measured by using 6 questions. Lastly, prosocial behavior was measured by using 12 questions. In addition, these questions were assessed by using the 7-point scale.

According to the reliability analysis, several items were kept and dropped. In terms of corporate brand personality, none of them was dropped. In the aspect of personal-social identification, the item "Personal 1", "Personal 2", "Personal 3", and "Social 6" were dropped while the others were kept. Due to organizational commitment, the study revealed that the items "Commitment 1" and "Commitment 6" were dropped, but the others were kept. Finally, the study also removed the item "Role 4" and "Role 6."

4.3.6 SEM Analysis of a Proposal Model

After each of the proposed models was evaluated whether it was the data-fit model, then each model would be combined into the overall model in order to identify the answer for the hypothesis. To analyze the overall model, the SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) was employed to firstly indicate the correlation between latent variables and latent and to secondly inform the correlation between and observed variables and latent variables.

Before becoming the model in SEM structure as a result, the researcher has also assessed its reliability and good-fitness of models. The reliability was assessed by determining at Cronbach's Alpha coefficient which is not lower than 0.7 in order to see which factor loadings (observed variables) are needed to be dropped or kept as the first stage. The good-fit model was evaluated by using CFA drawn in AMOS software. Once the result of CFA analysis was found as not being positive, the model decoration was then employed until the model was accepted. The CFA levels ranging from the first order, the higher order, and the second order were taken into consideration. SEM was used at the end.

SEM consists of the model of five corporate brand personalities (remaining 20 from 20 items), personal identification (remaining 4 from 7 items), social identification (remaining 5 from 6 items), organizational commitment (remaining 4 from 6 items), and prosocial behavior (remaining 10 from 12 items). The model was demonstrated as follows.

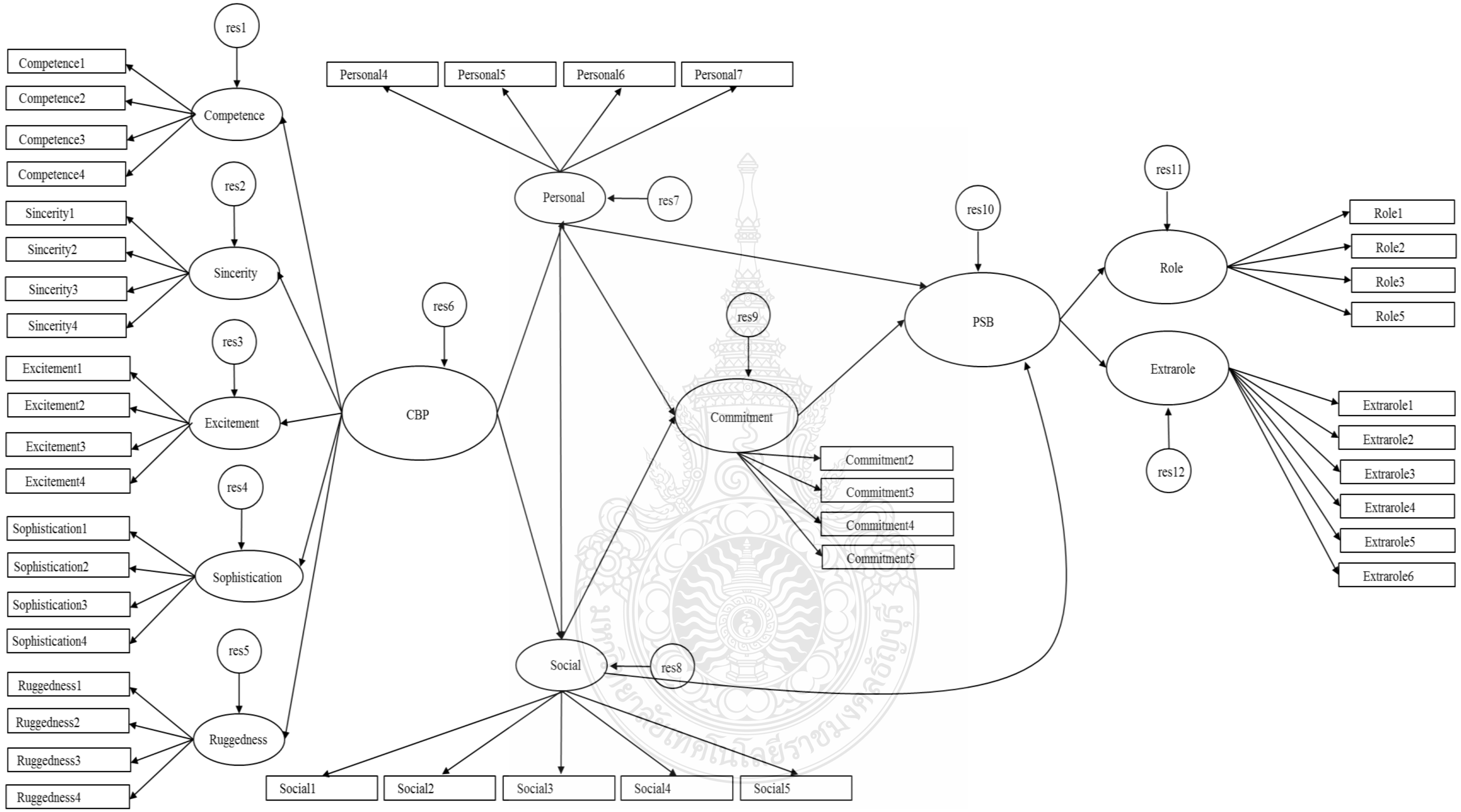

Figure 4-13 Proposal model in forms of SEM analysis

By analyzing SEM of the proposed models, the researcher used AMOS software with the Maximum Likelihood estimation and Unbiased and displayed results based in standardized estimation mode. To analyze the model, the indices such as CMIN/DF, *p*-value, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, TLI, and NFI were employed, and the results of the model fitting indices were 3.94 of CMIN/DF, 0.00 of *p*-value, 0.87 of GFI, 0.85 of AGFI, 0.05 of RMSEA, 0.95 of TLI, and 0.94 of NFI.

Given the results of model tested, some scores were found to mismatch with recommendation criteria of the model fitting. These scores included CMIN/DF (3.94), GFI (0.87), and AGFI (0.85). Even though these values were found to be unfavorable, the model was still accepted with the reason that this model has comprised with the already-tested models at the time of studying. At that time, the scores of the model passed any criteria terms. Even though some score did not match with the criteria, the other scores were still in the range of acceptability. For example, the CMIN/DF which had a value of 3.94 was also reasonable indicating to be usable. The other values were GFI (0.87) and AGFI (0.85) which should not be lower than 0.90. However, these gained values of GFI and AGFI were closed to 0.90.

In order to ensure that the model cannot be further adjusted to gain model fit criteria, the researcher, therefore, removed unfavorable regression weight in H6 which was -.04. After removing, the results slightly improved in terms of CMIN (3272.76) and df (831). The other indices remained the same values. In conclusion, the adjusted model was not different from hypothesis model.

Table 4-23 Model fit statistics of overall proposal model

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/DF	*p*-value	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	NFI
Hypothesis model	3272.01	830	3.94	0.00	0.87	0.85	0.09	0.05	0.95	0.95	0.94
Adjusted Model	3272.76	831	3.94	0.00	0.87	0.85	0.09	0.05	0.95	0.95	0.94

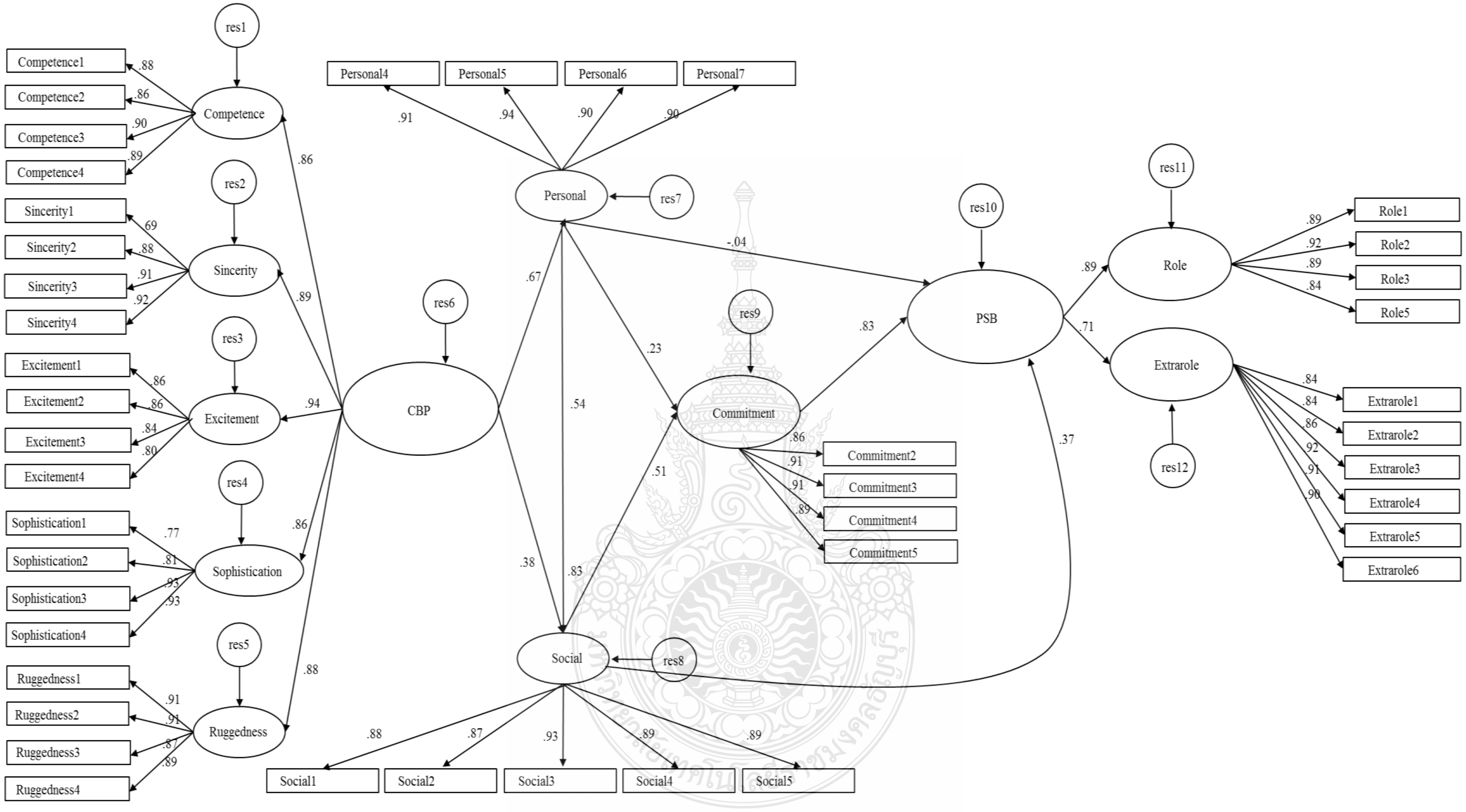

Figure 4-14 Measurement model of overall proposal model

Note: 1) Coefficient shown between latent constructs and indicators is the standardized factor loading. 2) Square multiple correlations (SMC) for each indicator are also shown. 3) Coefficient shown between latent constructs are correlation coefficient.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing of a Proposal Model and Its Results

The models were evaluated, and the results were computed in order to be used for the hypothesis testing. All results were used to investigate the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector. In this study, a total of 8 hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, and H8) were conducted. According to the hypotheses, corporate brand personality has performed as an exogenous and hypothesized with the mediators, comprising of personal and social identification and organizational commitment. Moreover exogenous and mediators were tested in the relation with the endogenous of prosocial behavior (prescribed-role behavior).

To test the hypotheses, there are some values required to be understood. These values are such as *t*-Test value at the significance value at **p*-value < 0.05, ***p*-value < 0.01, ****p*-value <0.001, and critical value (C.R.) (Arbuckle, 2011) shown in Table 4-24.

Table 4-24 Important values of hypothesizes analysis

			Standard Estimate	***t*-value**	***p*-value**
Corporate brand personality	--->	Personal identification	0.670	21.766	(0.001)***
Corporate brand personality	--->	Social identification	0.380	13.298	(0.001)***
Personal identification	--->	Social identification	0.544	19.634	(0.001)***
Personal identification	--->	Organizational commitment	0.230	5.359	(0.001)***
Social identification	--->	Organizational commitment	0.512	11.740	(0.001)***
Personal identification	--->	Prosocial behavior	-0.038	-0.872	0.394
Social identification	--->	Prosocial behavior	0.373	7.867	(0.001)***
Organizational commitment	--->	Prosocial behavior	0.503	13.626	(0.001)***

Note: *t*-Test value at the significance value at **p*-value < 0.05, ***p*-value < 0.01, and ****p*-value < 0.001 and critical value (C.R.)

4.4.1 H1: Corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of an employee.

From Table 4-24, the findings indicated about corporate brand personality, comprising with competence, sincerity, excitement, sophistication, and ruggedness, that it had an influence on personal identification with *p*-value at 0.001 and *t*-value at 21.766. Meanwhile, regression weight was 0.670. Regarding the hypothesis statement (H1) desiring to test whether corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of employee, it could be concluded that corporate brand personality had influences on personal identification of an employee. Therefore, the hypothesis 1 was supported.

4.4.2 H2: Corporate brand personality has an influence on social identification of an employee.

From Table 4-24, it revealed that the standardized estimation of corporate brand personality with its *p*-value. Corporate brand personality had *p*-value less than 0.001 which means that it significantly supported the hypothesis. The standardized regression weight was 0.380, and critical values were 13.298. The results pointed out that corporate brand personality had influences on social identification of an employee. Thus, it could be concluded that the hypothesis 2 was supported.

4.4.3 H3: Employees' personal identification has an influence on social identification.

The result shown in Table 4-24 indicated that the hypothesis had a statistical significance because the observation on *p*-value of personal identification (***) having an influence on social identification at a significance level less than 0.001 while the critical value was 19.634. Furthermore, the regression weight of personal identification to social identification was 0.544 which was quite positive interpretation. The result pointed out that employees' personal identification had an influence on social identification, so the hypothesis 3 was supported.

4.4.5 H4: Employees' personal identification has an influence on organizational commitment.

The result from the structural proposed model indicated the influence of the hypothesis 4 (H4) with the estimate regression weight value of 0.230. The prestigious findings portrayed a positive analysis of the hypothesis because the *p*-value of the influence of personal identification on organizational commitment was lower than a significance level of 0.001 with its critical value of 5.359. It could be concluded that employees' personal identification had an influence on organizational commitment. Thus, the hypothesis 4 was supported.

4.4.6 H5: Employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment.

In the relation to the study of the hypothesis stating that employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment, the results shown in Table 4-24 revealed that the value of path coefficient was 0.512. For the critical value, it was also found to be positive at 11.740. Considering the *p*-value of the relation of social identification toward organizational commitment, the finding was also favorable as the *p*-value was lower than 0.001. It could be mentioned that the hypothesis 5 was supported since employees' social identification significantly had an influence on organizational commitment.

4.4.7 H6: Employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.

To find out whether employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior, the study has conducted the hypothesis 6 to investigate its relation. Due to the result of hypothesis testing, the hypothesis 6 was not supported. To support this analysis, the *p*-value of its relation (0.394) shown in Table 4-24 could be an evidence. Sinjaru (2012) mentioned that if *p*-value is higher than 0.05, that result does not support the hypothesis. In addition, both estimate regression weight and critical value (C.R.) were negative (0.038 and 0.872, respectively). Consequently, employees' personal identification did not significantly have an influence on prosocial behavior.

4.4.8 H7: Employees' social identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.

As a result, Table 4-24 showed the relationship of social identification toward prosocial behavior at a significance level of 0.001. Social identification also had the path of coefficient (0.373) and critical value (7.867) which were favorable. With this satisfied result, it could be interpreted that employees' social identification had an influence on prosocial behavior. Thus, the hypothesis 7 was supported.

4.4.9 H8: Organizational commitment has an influence on prosocial behavior.

Organizational commitment is hypothesized to investigate whether it has an influence on prosocial behavior. After data analysis was done, the result indicated that the hypothesis 8 was supported since the hypothesis had a significance level of 0.001

with a standard estimate of 0.503 and high critical value of 13.626. According to the results, it could be concluded that organizational commitment significantly had an influence on prosocial behavior.

4.4.10 Summary of Hypothesis Testing

After empirically testing and analyzing the proposed model, the study to investigate the effect of corporate brand personality that has an influence on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification could be concluded that most of the hypotheses were supported by the findings. Nevertheless, there was only the hypothesis 6 being rejected by the findings.

Table 4-25 Summary of hypothesis testing

Hypothesis and Its Description	Results
H1: Corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of an employee.	Supported
H2: Corporate brand personality has an influence on social identification of an employee.	Supported
H3: Employees' personal identification has an influence on social identification.	Supported
H4: Employees' personal identification has an influence on organizational commitment.	Supported
H5: Employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment.	Supported
H6: Employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.	Not supported
H7: Employees' social identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.	Supported
H8: Organizational commitment has an influence on prosocial behavior.	Supported

4.4.11 Study Results of the Effect of the Hypotheses

Regarding the data analysis, the direct effect, indirect effect, and total effect were employed to interpret the relation of latent variables. In the study, corporate brand personality consisted of five dimensions, and each dimension had different results regarding its *p*-value significance level. Furthermore, the other measurements such as personal-social identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior were also viewed with their *p*-value. Hereby, the case of the hypothesis was supported or did not depend on the acceptability of *p*-value which must be less than 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 with the asterisk signs (*, ** and ***) hanging behind the number. It is normally used to represent its value with aforementioned *p*-value significance level. The researcher has shown the value of its direction on how independent variables significantly influence the dependent ones (see Table 4-26).

Table 4-26 Total effect of model

Dimensions	Personal Identification			Social Identification			Organizational Commitment			Prosocial Behavior		
	DE	**IE**	**TE**	**DE**	**IE**	**TE**	**DE**	**IE**	**TE**	**DE**	**IE**	**TE**
Corporate Brand Personality	0.670	-	0.670 (***)	0.380	0.365	0.745 (***)	-	0.536	0.536	-	0.522	0.522
Personal Identification	-	-	-	0.544	-	0.544 (***)	0.230	0.279	0.509 (***)	-0.038	0.459	0.421
Social Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.512	-	0.512 (***)	0.373	0.258	0.630 (***)
Organizational Commitment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.503	-	0.503 (***)

Note: 1) DE = Standardized direct effect, IE = Standardized indirect effect, and TE = Standardized total effect.
2) ****p*-value < 0.001

From Table 4-26, the result showed that social identification had a significant effect on both prosocial behavior (0.630) and organizational commitment (0.512). Second, the result showed that corporate brand personality had a significant effect on prosocial behavior (0.522) and organizational commitment (0.536) while having a significant effect on social identification (0.745) and personal identification (0.670). Third, the result showed that organizational commitment also had a significant effect on prosocial behavior (0.503). Finally, personal identification had a significant effect on prosocial behavior (0.421). Moreover, the result indicated that personal identification had a significant effect on both organizational commitment (0.509) and social identification (0.544). In conclusion, based on the study of the effect of each variable on prosocial behavior, it revealed that social identification had the highest effect comparing to the others, followed by corporate brand personality, organizational commitment, and personal identification, respectively.

Nevertheless, the study showed an unpleasant direct effect (-0.038) on prosocial behavior after testing the relationship between personal identification and prosocial behavior. Then, the researcher had designed the new model to investigate the effect of corporate brand personality on employees' prosocial behavior through the mediating effect of social identification. This model excluded personal identification since it insignificantly had an influence on prosocial behavior.

After testing the new model without having personal identification, the result showed that the values of direct effect, indirect effect, and total effect were slightly different (see Table 4-27).

Table 4-27 Total effect of model (tested without personal identification)

Dimensions	Personal Identification			Social Identification			Organizational Commitment			Prosocial Behavior		
	DE	**IE**	**TE**	**DE**	**IE**	**TE**	**DE**	**IE**	**TE**	**DE**	**IE**	**TE**
Corporate Brand Personality	0.671	-	0.671 (***)	0.380	0.365	0.745 (***)	-	0.535	0.535	-	0.524	0.524
Personal Identification	-	-	-	0.544	-	0.544 (***)	0.229	0.279	0.508 (***)	-	-	-
Social Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.512	-	0.512 (***)	0.373	0.255	0.630 (***)
Organizational Commitment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.503	-	0.503 (***)

Note: 1) DE = Standardized direct effect, IE = Standardized indirect effect, and TE = Standardized total effect.
2) ****p*-value < 0.001

From table 4-27, after the model being adjusted by removing personal identification which previously had negative value of direct effect, the new result showed that there were some scores were slightly better and some were remained the same. Hereby, standardized effects namely total effect, direct effect and indirect effect, were considered.

As a result, social identification had a significant total effect (0.630), direct effect (0.373) and indirect effect (0.255) on prosocial behavior. Also, social identification had a significant total effect (0.512) and direct effect (0.512) on organizational commitment. Second, the result indicated that corporate brand personality had a total effect (0.524) and indirect effect (0.524) on prosocial behavior and total effect (0.535) and indirect effect (0.535) on organizational commitment while having a significant total effect (0.745), direct effect (0.365) and indirect effect (0.380) on social identification and significant total effect (0.671) and direct effect (0.671) on personal identification. Third, the result showed that organizational commitment also had a significant total effect (0.503) and direct effect (0.503) on prosocial behavior. Finally, personal identification had a significant total effect (0.508), direct effect (0.229) and indirect effect (0.279) on organizational commitment. Also, personal identification had a significant total effect (0.544) and direct effect (0.544) on social identification.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 5 presented the results of discussion related to the research findings gained from the previous chapter. In addition, the chapter linked the results to the studying area of three Japanese automotive brands of service car centers. The structure of this chapter was organized into five sections: (a) review of study results; (b) discussion of all eight hypotheses; (c) contribution and implication of the study; (d) limitation of the study; and (e) recommendations and further study.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The study of the effects of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification was conducted as a result of curiosity indicating that successful companies create corporate culture that matches employee's personality (Ellwood, 2001). Furthermore, corporate brand plays crucial roles in determining employees' personality in the organization (Shen, et al., 2006). This study adopted the study model from the study of Yi and La (2006) who used five dimensions of brand personality from Aaker (1997). Also, the study employed the model of brand identification, organizational commitments, and prosocial behavior (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Moreover, the study focused on the service sector area and selected three Japanese automotive brands including Toyota, Honda, and Nissan.

The eight hypotheses were conducted, and their results were shown in Table 5-1 below.

Table 5-1 Summarization of hypotheses testing

Hypothesis	Result	Std. Coefficients	t-value	f-value
H1: Corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of an employee.	Yes	0.670	21.766	0.001
H2: Corporate brand personality has an influence on social identification of an employee.	Yes	0.380	13.298	0.001
H3: Employees' personal identification has an influence on social identification.	Yes	0.544	19.634	0.001
H4: Employees' personal identification has an influence on organizational commitment.	Yes	0.230	5.359	0.001
H5: Employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment.	Yes	0.512	11.740	0.001
H6: Employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.	No	-0.038	-0.872	0.394
H7: Employees' social identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.	Yes	0.373	7.867	0.001
H8: Organizational commitment has an influence on prosocial behavior.	Yes	0.503	13.626	0.001

From Table 5-1, the hypotheses including H1 to H5 and H7 to H8 were supported except H6 because the *p*-value was higher than 0.05.

After the model was completely tested, the new model with the findings was drawn. The straight black line represented the supported hypothesis while the dotted line represented the unsupported hypothesis (Figure 5-1).

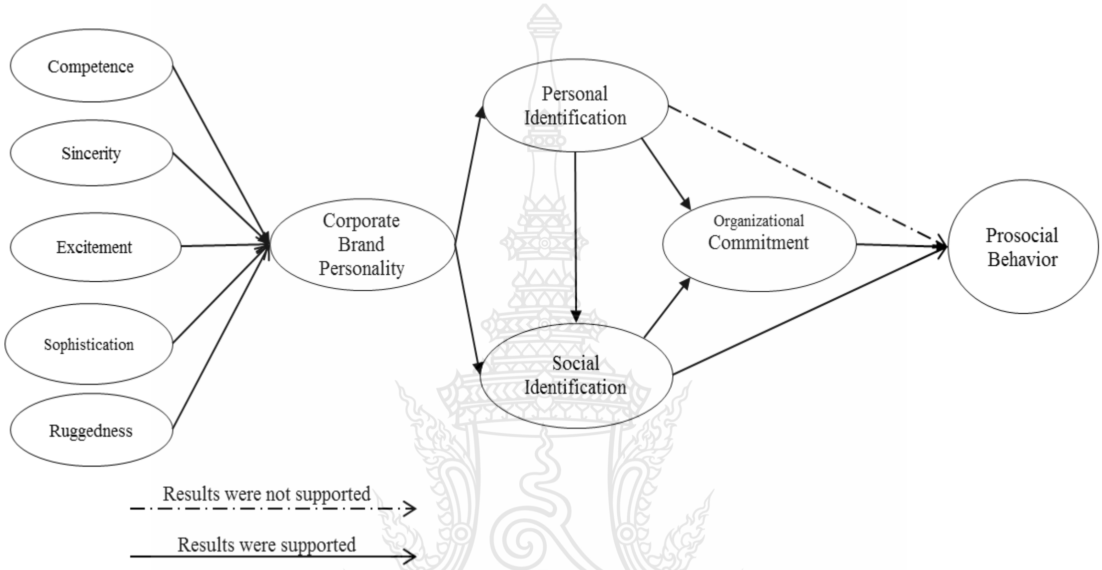

Figure 5-1 Finalized conceptual model

5.2 Discussions of the Findings

There were eight hypotheses drawn to investigate the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification with the focus of the studying area in Japanese automotive service sector. The hypotheses assumed that brand personality plays an important role in the competitive markets and would relatively affect personal identification and social identification on organizational commitment and prosocial behavior so that employees would be more reflective of the company's brand ambassador and work harder to attain customer satisfaction (Shen, et al., 2006).

5.2.1 H1: Corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification of an employee.

From the hypothesis 1 (H1), the result revealed that the proposed hypothesis was supported indicating that corporate brand personality had an influence on personal identification of employees. The result of the study also matched with the previous study by Yi and La (2006) who claimed that corporate brand personality has an influence on personal identification. However, there were a few differences between these two studies. The previous study found that competence and excitement had influences on personal identification while this study found that sincerity and sophistication had influences on personal identification. The reason of this difference could perhaps be from the nature of the business whereas services in the banking sector may need more sincerity. In other words, their work has mainly related to money and finance where customers need more sincere and accurate information throughout the reliable services from employees. In addition, demographic features such as age, gender, social class, and culture may require to be taken into account (Levy, 1959).

Another cause that influenced sincerity and sophistication of corporate brand personality is the business goal and strategies of the Thailand automotive service center. The samples in this study were from Toyota, Honda, and Nissan, and these companies have set the directions to guide and communicate their employees to have sincerity and sophistication personality in order to serve and satisfy their customers.

For example, Toyota has strategies to enhance their brands covering in the aspects of products, price, place, and promotion. In terms of product aspect, the company has selected the high quality materials to manufacture their modern, deluxe, comfortable, and environmental friendly cars. As for price aspect, the company has set its products with affordable prices for customers. Due to the aspect of place to sell and to provide after-sale service, the company has established more than 30 showrooms with well-equipped coffee shops and maintained the centers all over the country to comfortably offer and deliver products and services after sale to customers. Finally, considering the aspect of promotion, the company used various communication channels such as television, publication, and magazines to promote their products and the company. With these aspects, the company then needs to set trainings and workshops for their employees to make mutual understandings about how to serve and behave in front of their customers in order to meet customer satisfaction and expectation as well as keep customers come back for the services repeatedly.

Another example from Honda is that it conducts personnel trainings for employees to be able to understand their roles and organizational brand personality in sincerely servicing such as sharing happiness, giving warm service, and delivering accurate and sincere information to customers as their goal and direction. These can be seen from various services such as the centers built with luxurious decoration, drinks and coffee provided to customers, and after-sale services given by employees and easily accessed from everywhere.

Nissan also emphasizes on offering the innovative products and greatest services. The company starts with the products which are mostly manufactured by concerning with environmental friendly such as eco-automobile. For the services, it has expanded the service centers from 160 to 210 centers in 2013 to respond to customers' needs. With various offerings, the company then needs to encourage employees to be able to represent sincerity and charming for products and brands established.

5.2.2 H2: Corporate brand personality has an influence on social identification of an employee.

Regarding the hypothesis 2 (H2), it revealed that corporate brand personality had an influence on social identification of an employee. The reason is that when companies have set the direction to guide and communicate to employees, they would get together and perform as teamwork in order to accomplish and create the lively organization regarding the organizational goal and objectives. In Thailand, Japanese automotive service sector has focused on servicing customers by having them become happier, more satisfied, and warmer. Moreover, they also feel themselves in the organization. When considering about which of corporate brand personality dimensions that employees have, it is found that Japanese automotive service sector has sincerity, sophistication, and ruggedness in accordance with the statistic testing. Besides, this result of the study is also in corresponding to the previous study from Yi and La (2006) who found that brand personality has an influence on social identification.

However, there were also few differences in certain dimensions between this study and the previous study. The previous study from Yi and La (2006) found that only sincerity is significantly affecting social identification while sincerity, sophistication, and ruggedness were discovered in this study. This is because services in the banking sector may need more sincerity since their work has mainly related to money, finance where customers need more sincere and accurate information throughout the reliable services from employees. Meanwhile, the automotive service sector does not only need sincerity to be used in the organizations in order to serve customers, but it also needs to have sophistication and ruggedness personalities. Sophistication would help employees to dress nicely, good looking, charmingly to attract customers who come to get the service. Besides, ruggedness would help employees to be tough and masculine for the work such as car fixing and repairing. Therefore, when individuals with different personalities and unit staff especially from maintenance service unit in the automotive service centers are gathered in group, sincerity, sophistication, and ruggedness personalities would be strongly presented.

In Toyota, the customer-contact employees would also present sincerity, sophistication, and ruggedness personalities. For sincerity, Toyota service centers take care of customers as their relatives. For sophistication, they provide beautiful and luxury centers with sophisticating and charming employees. For ruggedness, the company responds to customers' needs on time with fast and high quality maintenance service standard together with highly skilled staff trained by Department of Labor Development, Ministry of Labor. Furthermore, the company has installed the online computer systems in order to collect and share customers' information which could help comfort customers wherever they access services.

In Honda, the car service centers also emphasize on offering various services. For sincerity, the center is happy to share happiness, give warm services, and deliver accurate and sincere information to customers as the company's goal and direction. For sophistication, it provides drinks and coffee to customers in the luxury decorated centers. Its employees wear smart clothes with sophisticating personality. For ruggedness, it provides after-sale services which could be easily accessed from everywhere.

Nissan is also emphasizing on promoting brand personality for its employees. For sincerity, it reflects employees' personality through various activities. For example, before services are provided, employees would greet customers with friendly feeling. During the service, the staff would complete all procedures on time to make customers feel satisfied with the service. For sophistication, the company provides such as good service centers with well-equipped for customers. For ruggedness, the company has trained and provided team of high skill maintenance to support the expansion of service centers from 160 to 210 centers in 2013 in order to respond customers' needs. In conclusion, brand personality (sincerity, sophistication, and ruggedness) had an influence on social identification of an employee.

5.2.3 H3: Employees' personal identification has an influence on social identification.

The hypothesis 3 (H3) indicated that personal identification had an influence on social identification in Japanese automotive service. This relationship exists because each employee must be formed to the group or teamwork which is defined as social identification comprising individuals with the similarity of brand personality. The finding supported the study of Ashforth and Mael (1989) who found that social identification had comprised personal identification. For example, when the group of employees with each individual's sincerity and sophistication personality in the automotive service is grouped together, the group would reflect sincerity and sophistication in order to achieve the organizational goal together. The reviews of Haslam et al. (2003) and Morgan (1997) also supported that social identification takes place when an individual identified with a certain group. Furthermore, the study of Yi and La (2006) also confirmed the influence of personal identification on social identification. In addition, it also matched the study of Hogg (1992) who mentioned that the feeling of social group exists when an individual recognized a similarity of oneself to another member in the group. According to the theories, the samples (Toyota, Honda, and Nissan) of the study revealed that these companies mostly focused on developing personal skills such as customer relationship skills for front-desk employees and maintenance skills in order that when employees are in a group, they could help each other with their given role and tasks. In addition, each of them also holds the competitions within the company itself in order to motivate employees and build teamwork with various backgrounds from new challenging creative ideas. Therefore, it could be concluded that personal identification had an effect on social identification.

5.2.4 H4: Employees' personal identification has an influence on organizational commitment.

Personal identification had a significant effect on organizational commitment since the degree of each employee's emotion and personality could finally affect organizational commitment. As organizational commitment is defined as a strong feeling of responsibility that staff of the organization desire to achieve the organization's missions and goals (Ugboro, 2006), the hypothesis 4 (H4) has therefore been supported by the study. When employees' personality matches with the organization, they would feel they are the brand ambassador. Throughout that time, they would think more of the organization image and commit (decided to devote) to themselves and the organization to keep the organizational image and to reach the organizational goal. Furthermore, the study of Mowday et al. (1982) also supported that a degree of an employee's emotion which is called personal identification could finally affect organizational commitment. The result could be reflective of Japanese automotive service sector whereas companies have intentionally built employees to have organizational commitment in order that they would decide to longer stay with companies. For example, due to Toyota, the managers try to create and communicate with their staff to be responsible for the society and stakeholders by keeping the word 'governance' in mind. In addition, the company also has their employees to speak out loud that "I will conform to the ethics and policy of the company.", and "I will also observe and report any person who seems to go out of track of the rule and policy of company." These words are examples of commitment to the organization used within Toyota. As for Honda, the company also has the policy which all employees need to understand. This policy is "Three Joys" which includes "joy of buying", "joy of selling", and "joy of creating." In addition, the company has organizational commitment that customers of Honda must be happy when they use the high quality of Honda's car. Regarding this commitment, the company also encourages its employees to feel in that way and perform their best. A lot of activities could be seen including Honda 24 Hours Roadside Assistance, more than 580 service centers to serve customers in Thailand, and so on. Finally, the example from Nissan could also be seen vividly. Nissan would serve customers as they are servicing themselves. Thus, they would satisfy their customers the same way as they satisfy themselves. In conclusion, the results can confirm that personal identification significantly influenced organizational commitment in Japanese automotive service sector.

5.2.5 H5: Employees' social identification has an influence on organizational commitment.

The study revealed that employees' social identification significantly had an influence on organizational commitment, and the hypothesis 5 (H5) was then supported. The reason is that after employees gathered together in the society, they would have more motivation to work, and it will finally create organizational commitment. In the automotive service sector, employees would be called to have a daily or weekly meeting in order to discuss about the problems and solutions which each person may encounter. The discussion also includes the company's goal and strategies in order to emphasize the direction of the company to be achieved by employees. After the meeting, employees from each personality would be classified into the groups and continue to willingly work more as a group. The study was also supported by Meyer and Allen (1991) who addressed a confirmation of a relation between social identification and personal identification, and employees' decision to continue in the organization (commitment). In conclusion, social identification influenced organizational commitment in Japanese automotive service sector.

5.2.6 H6: Employees' personal identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.

In this study, the result indicated that there was no influence between personal identification and prosocial behavior, implying that employees' personal identification had no influence on prosocial behavior in Japanese automotive service. In other words, the hypothesis 6 (H6) was rejected due to its crucial variable measures of personal identification and prosocial behavior. In terms of the definition, George and Brief (1992) defined that prosocial behavior is a behavior of employees that voluntarily contributed to increase an efficiency of the organization. However, Organ (1994) mentioned that prosocial behavior is involved in not only an individual identification but also social identification. The different personal identification (including emotion) will differentiate the act of prosocial behavior. This also matched with the study of European Commission (2008) indicating that employees' prosocial values contribute to organizational effectiveness by enhancing co-worker and encouraging the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental change (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). However, this analysis has been considered only in the side of its direct effect. The indirect effect of personal identification was still found positive to influence prosocial behavior. Mowday et al. (1982) demonstrated to affirm that individual employee's emotion could affect prosocial behavior at the end through organizational commitment. Nevertheless, based on direct effect, the research summarized that employees' personal identification did not have an influence on prosocial behavior.

5.2.7 H7: Employees' social identification has an influence on prosocial behavior.

The results revealed that the hypothesis 7 (H7) was accepted, and the study has supported that employees' social identification significantly had an influence on prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior is involved with social identification (Organ, 1994). This also matched with the study of European Commission (2008) indicating that an effectiveness of employees' prosocial contribution to organizational could be done by enhancing co-worker, fostering intergroup coordination, and empowering the ability of the organization. In addition, prosocial behavior could be influenced by employees' social identification in case that the appropriate adaptation to environmental change is well prepared and encourage the organization to adapt more effectively to environmental change (Podsakoff et al., 2000). For example, the samples in this study have created activities such as team competitions within the company itself in order to build and encourage employees from various fields of works to be together to create new things. Toyota has Toyota Eco DIY contest while Honda has 2012 Ultimate Potential Competition, and Nissan has Nissan Motor Thailand Power Up 2016. In Japanese automotive service, it can therefore be implied by the findings that social identification is a crucial variable toward prosocial behavior of employees. The results that personal identification did not significantly have an influence on prosocial behavior while social identification did have can be explained as follows. Individuals sometimes do not have enough motivation to create themselves to feel in the activities and the organizational goal which is different from social identification. The society creates more synergy to build up employees to feel of the need to well perform the task and achieve the set goal.

5.2.8 H8: Organizational commitment has influence on prosocial behavior.

The hypothesis 8 (H8) showed that organizational commitment had an influence on prosocial behavior since employees are already committed to the organization that they will do to achieve the organizational goal and beyond assigned tasks. Furthermore, the finding also supported the study of Mowday et al. (1982) who stated that the employee who feels committed would demand to stay at the organization and intend to work additionally for the organization. The study of Susan (1997) emphasized on the importance of commitment that has significantly influenced prosocial behavior because the positive manner toward their commitments could provide such a good work and high service quality to customers. With correlated to customer service which is the nature of the service sector, such companies in Japanese automotive service sector as the main studying area need to develop organizational commitment. The instance could be visibly seen from the samples in this study. For example, Toyota has announced the policy and willingness to employees that must be committed to serve customers to be satisfied and in time. That is the reason why the company has established one-stop service center and 24-hour service and also included after-sales service training, personnel develop training, and other skills required from employees. Also, Honda has held the competition and a lot of skill and personnel training programs to motivate and enhance employees' mind and capability to treat their customers with satisfaction and serve with high skills and professional. The program competition was Ultimate Potential held in 2012 as for an instance. Besides, Nissan has the way to set the commitments to meet the company's goal by having clear directions and mission. By 2016, the company must reach 15% market shares by providing new products led by eco-car concepts and expanding 210 showrooms and service centers. With this goal, the company then holds the competition in order to motivate and make employees feel that they are committed to reach the highest customer satisfaction.

5.3 Theoretical Implications

The study of the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee's prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification was conducted in the three major Japanese automotive service sectors which were selected based on their significant car sales in 2011. The results indicated that the study could be used to confirm the literature review on brand personality that they were associated with each other. In terms of the organization itself, the study could help design proper employee management to increase the ability of better brand management and performance in the field of relational marketing. Due to customers' perception toward the organization, it would allow consumers to recognize products and services with the uniqueness of brand personality.

The study also supported the literature review on the relationship of personal and social identification that they have acted as the mediating effect of brand personality, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior. The results showed the contributions which have both direct and indirect effects on the organization and involvers. These identifications helped reflect how an individual or personal identification (the image of lifestyle, value, and personality) and a group of people or social identification (the image of social recognition, social respect, and social status) behave and perform to benefit the organization.

Another finding from the literature reviews also displayed a confirmation about the relationship between organizational commitment and prosocial behavior. The study pursuits that when an employee at a particular organization pinpoint himself/herself as an employee, he/she would desire (have commitment to the organization) to remain at the organization and is willing to work extra for the organization (prosocial behavior).

5.4 Managerial Implications

This study also provides useful implications to the managers in the organization. The results of the study could be used to create and strengthen brand personality by conducting the meetings and training workshops in order to make a mutual understanding among employees in order to know about the organizational goal and vision. Once employees know about these, they are more likely to perform their task to respond the organizational goal.

The managers could also use the findings to set the human resource development strategies including recruitment processes and criteria in order to select new appropriate employees who match with the brand personality of the organization. When the right employee selection is made, the right path way to develop his/her career will be easier because he/she will be committed to longer stay in the company. Apart from that, the findings can be adopted into the job orientation process where the new employees will be explained and told about the organization history, the organizational goal, and the direction of the company. This will lead the new employees to perceive the personality of the organization and to conform to the organizational culture and act as the organizational brand ambassador.

Furthermore, the managers could use the results of the study to encourage employees to work with team/group because the findings indicated that when employees were gathered in the group, they would have more organizational commitment and prosocial behavior. In contrast, if the organization ignores to promote the working group, by supporting an individual work instead, employees would not feel that they are one of the organizations even though he/she has a personality that matches with the organization. This is because individuals cannot have motivation from the others.

Finally, the managers can use the results of the study to appropriately build the environment of working including organizational culture. When employees are satisfied with the environment, it will encourage them to work more beyond their task assigned. However, the working atmosphere and culture must be able to reflect the perception of sincerity and sophistication because they will feel comfortable with the surrounding, and the surrounding will also remind them about their jobs. For example, the service center must be decorated with nice rooms and furniture while employees must wear smart dress or beautiful uniform and having some make-up on their face to reflect sophistication.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

There were some limitations of the study which should be recognized. The first was that the study concentrated on the effect of corporate brand personality on customer-contact employee’s prosocial behavior and the mediating effect of brand identification in Japanese automotive service sector only. Other variables which may affect the variables of this study were not included. As a result, generalizability of the research results was necessarily conducted with care.

The second was that there were only three Japanese automotive service centers being studied and focused in this study. In addition, it focused on Bangkok and Metropolitan Area (BMA) only. With the limitations to the studying area, it might create the different result in terms of brand personality characteristics because brand personality could contain different demographic features such as age, gender, social class, and culture (Levy, 1959). As a result, it finally perhaps limits to view and compare corporate brand personality among other brands of service centers such as Western brands and Eastern Asian brands. The study did not focus on and/or compare other automotive brands such as Western and even in the same regional countries.

The study also had a limitation on the period of data collection which was specifically conducted from August 2012 to October 2012.

5.6 Recommendations for Future Research

The study recommends that the future research could study or investigate the relationship of personal and social identification that they have acted as the mediating effect of corporate brand personality, organizational commitment, and prosocial behavior by applying the model to other automotive brands from other nationalities such as European or American or even other Asian countries instead of Japanese automotive service sectors. This might help understand whether or not the culture is one of the factors affecting the relationship.

Regarding the concentration of the study on the relationship among brand personality, brand identification, organizational commitment, and prosocial, the future research could extend to study the effects by using other variables such as customer satisfaction, job performance, and firm performance. For example, it could perhaps focus on studying how brand personality can increase job performance and firm performance.

Moreover, the future research can also consider about customers - based perspective whether it can have an effect on employees' organizational commitment and prosocial behavior. Besides, the study about the internal and external factors of the organization influencing brand personality of the organization could also be considered. For instance, it could study on whether or not the economic recession can affect brand personality establishment, and demographic variables can also have the effects on employees' organizational commitment and prosocial behavior.

List of Bibliography

Aaker, D. A. (1991). Managing brand equity: capitalizing on the value of a brand name: New York. The Free Press.

Aaker, D. A. (1996). Measuring brand equity across products and markets. *California management review*, *38*(3), 103.

Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing research*, 347-356.

Abrams, D. (1992). Processes of social identification. *Social psychology of identity and the self-concept*, *57,* 100.

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (1988). Comments on the motivational status of self-esteem in social identity and intergroup discrimination. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 18*(4), 317-334.

Akerlof, G. A., & Kranton, R. E. (2000). Economics and identity. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *115*(3), 715-753.

Akhtar, S., & Tan, D. (1994). Reassessing and reconceptualizing the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment. *Psychological Reports*, *75*(3), 1379-1390.

Alvesson, M., Ashcraft, K. L., & Thomas, R. (2008). Identity matters: Reflections on the construction of identity scholarship in organization studies. *Organization, 15*(1), 5-28.

Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. *Administrative science quarterly,* 1-14.

Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1983). Organizational Commitment Individual and Organizational Influences. *Work and Occupations, 10*(2), 123-146.

Arbuckle, J. L. (2011). IBM SPSS Amos 20 user's guide. *Armonk, NY: IBM*.

Arnett, D. B., German, S. D., & Hunt, S. D. (2003). The identity salience model of relationship marketing success: the case of nonprofit marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 89-105.

Ashforth, B. E., & Kreiner, G. E. (1999). "How can you do it?": Dirty work and the challenge of constructing a positive identity. *Academy of management review, 24*(3), 413-434.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 20-39.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. A. (1996). Organizational identity and strategy as a context for the individual. *Advances in strategic management, 13*, 19-64.

Assael, M., Gialou, K., Kakosimos, K., & Metaxa, I. (2004). Thermal conductivity of reference solid materials. *International journal of thermophysics, 25*(2), 397-408.

Azoulay, A., & Kapferer, J.-N. (2003). Do brand personality scales really measure brand personality? *The Journal of Brand Management, 11*(2), 143-155.

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel psychology, 44*(1), 1-26.

Batra, R., Lehmann, D. R., & Singh, D. (1993). The brand personality component of brand goodwill: some antecedents and consequences. *Brand equity and advertising*, 83-96.

Batson, C. D., & Shaw, L. L. (1991). Evidence for altruism: Toward a pluralism of prosocial motives. *Psychological Inquiry, 2*(2), 107-122.

Bauer, T. N., & Green, S. G. (1998). Testing the combined effects of newcomer information seeking and manager behavior on socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(1), 72-83.

Bee, C. C., & Kahle, L. R. (2006). Relationship marketing in sports: a functional approach. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 15*(2), 102-110.

Bettencourt, L. A., & Brown, S. W. (1997). Contact employees: Relationships among workplace fairness, job satisfaction and prosocial service behaviors. *Journal of retailing, 73*(1), 39-61.

Bhattacharya, C. B., Rao, H., & Glynn, M. A. (1995). Understanding the bond of identification: An investigation of its correlates among art museum members. *The Journal of Marketing*, 46-57.

Biel, A. L. (1993). Converting image into equity. *Brand equity and advertising*, 67-82.

Blankson, C., & Kalafatis, S. P. (1999). Issues and challenges in the positioning of service brands: a review. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 8*(2), 106-118.

Blau, P. M., & Scott, W. R. (1962). *Formal organizations: A comparative approach*: Stanford University Press.

Blumler, J. G. (1979). The role of theory in uses and gratifications studies. *Communication research, 6*(1), 9-36.

Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of management review, 11*(4), 710-725.

Briggs, S. R., & Cheek, J. M. (1986). The role of factor analysis in the development and evaluation of personality scales. *Journal of personality, 54*(1), 106-148.

Bruner, G. C., Hensel, P. J., & James, K. E. (2001). *Marketing scales handbook: a compilation of multi-item measures.*

Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative science quarterly*, 533-546.

Bunnakiatkul, C. (2001). *Measuring Brand Equity in Service Business* Master of Arts in Advertising, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok. (974-17-0332-5)

Burke, B. (1994). Position, personality, not price, should frame consumer messages. *Brandweek, 35*(36), 20.

Cali, M., Ellis, K., & te Velde, D. W. (2008). *The contribution of services to development and the role of trade liberalisation and regulation*: Overseas Dev't Institute.

Carroll, B. A., & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing Letters, 17*(2), 79-89.

Chaimongkol, N., Khamrin, P., Suantai, B., Saikhreang, W., Thongprachum, A., Malasao, R., . . . Maneekarn, N. (2012). A wide variety of diarrhea viruses circulating in pediatric patients in Thailand. *Clinical laboratory, 58*(1-2), 117.

Chase, R. B., & Tansik, D. A. (1983). The customer contact model for organization design. *Management Science, 29*(9), 1037-1050.

Chen, Z. X., Tsui, A. S., & Farh, J.-L. (2002). Loyalty to supervisor vs. organizational commitment: Relationships to employee performance in China. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 75*(3), 339-356.

Chow, I. H.-s. (1994). Organizational commitment and career development of Chinese managers in Hong Kong and Taiwan. *International Journal of career management, 6*(4), 3-9.

Cohen, A., & Lowenberg, G. (1990). A re-examination of the side-bet theory as applied to organizational commitment: A meta-analysis. *Human Relations, 43*(10), 1015-1050.

Coleman, V. E. (1990). *Violence in lesbian couples: a between groups comparison*: California School of Professional Psychology.

Collier, M. J., & Thomas, M. (1988). Cultural identity: An interpretive perspective. *Theories in intercultural communication, 99*, 122.

Cooper, J., & Cronin, J. J. (2000). Internal marketing: A competitive strategy for the long-term care industry. *Journal of Business Research, 48*(3), 177-181.

Cornwell, T. B., & Coote, L. V. (2005). Corporate sponsorship of a cause: the role of identification in purchase intent. *Journal of Business Research, 58*(3), 268-276.

Côté, J. E., & Levine, C. G. (2002). *Identity, formation, agency, and culture: A social psychological synthesis*: Psychology Press.

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A.-M. (2002). A psychological contract perspective on organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(8), 927-946.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 874-900.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1241.

Darby, M. R., & Karni, E. (1973). Free competition and the optimal amount of fraud. *Journal of law and economics, 16*(1), 67-88.

David, O. (1983). Ogilvy on advertising: Pan Books Ltd., UK.

De Dreu, C. K., Evers, A., Beersma, B., Kluwer, E. S., & Nauta, A. (2001). A theory based measure of conflict management strategies in the workplace. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*(6), 645-668.

De Dreu, C. K., & Nauta, A. (2009). Self-interest and other-orientation in organizational behavior: implications for job performance, prosocial behavior, and personal initiative. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 913.

De Wulf, K., Odekerken-Schröder, G., & Iacobucci, D. (2001). Investments in consumer relationships: a cross-country and cross-industry exploration. *the Journal of Marketing*, 33-50.

Del Rio, A. B., Vazquez, R., & Iglesias, V. (2001). The effects of brand associations on consumer response. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 18*(5), 410-425.

DeNeve, K. M., & Cooper, H. (1998). The happy personality: a meta-analysis of 137 personality traits and subjective well-being. *Psychological bulletin, 124*(2), 197.

Dibb, S., & Simkin, L. (1993). The strength of branding and positioning in services. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 4*(1), 25-35.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual review of psychology, 41*(1), 417-440.

Dobel, J. P. (1990). Integrity in the Public Service. *Public Administration Review, 50*(3), 354-366.

Dotchin, J. A., & Oakland, J. S. (1994). Total quality management in services: Part 3: Distinguishing perceptions of service quality. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management 11*(4), 6-28.

Doyle, P. (1992). Building successful brands: the strategic options. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 1*(4), 5-20.

Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative science quarterly*, 239-263.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Ellwood, I., & Taylor, W. (2001). Gauge invariance and tachyon condensation in open string field theory.

Farh, J.-L., Earley, P. C., & Lin, S.-C. (1997). Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. *Administrative science quarterly*, 421-444.

Fearon, J. D. (1999). What is identity (as we now use the word). *Unpublished manuscript, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif*.

Ferrandi, J.-M., & Valette-Florence, P. (2002). Premiers test et validation de la transposition d'une échelle de personnalité humaine aux marques. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing, 17*(3), 21-40.

Freling, T. H., & Forbes, L. P. (2005). An empirical analysis of the brand personality effect. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 14*(7), 404-413.

George, J. M. (1991). State or trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(2), 299.

George, J. M. (1998). Salesperson mood at work: Implications for helping customers. *The Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 23-30.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: a conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological bulletin, 112*(2), 310.

Gioia, D. A., Schultz, M., & Corley, K. G. (2000). Organizational identity, image, and adaptive instability. *Academy of management review*, *25*(1), 63-81.

Goethals, G. R., & Darley, J. M. (1977). Social comparison theory: An attributional approach. *Social comparison processes: Theoretical and empirical perspectives*, 259-278.

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative" description of personality": the big-five factor structure. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *59*(6), 1216.

Govers, P. C., & Schoormans, J. P. (2005). Product personality and its influence on consumer preference. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *22*(4), 189-197.

Graeff, T. R. (1996). Using promotional messages to manage the effects of brand and self-image on brand evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *13*(3), 4-18.

Gremler, D. D., Bitner, M. J., & Evans, K. R. (1994). The internal service encounter. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *5*(2), 34-56.

Gremler, D. D., Gwinner, K. P., & Brown, S. W. (2001). Generating positive word-of-mouth communication through customer-employee relationships. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *12*(1), 44-59.

Griffeth, R. W., & Hom, P. W. (2001). *Retaining valued employees*: Sage.

Gronroos, C. (2000). Creating a relationship dialogue: communication, interaction and value. *The marketing review*, *1*(1), 5-14.

Grönroos, C. (2008). Service logic revisited: who creates value? And who co-creates? *European Business Review*, *20*(4), 298-314.

Grubb, E. L., & Grathwohl, H. L. (1967). Consumer self-concept, symbolism and market behavior: a theoretical approach. *The Journal of Marketing*, 22-27.

Gummesson, E. (1991). Marketing-orientation revisited: the crucial role of the part-time marketer. *European Journal of Marketing*, *25*(2), 60-75.

Haslam, S. A., Postmes, T., & Ellemers, N. (2003). More than a metaphor: Organizational identity makes organizational life possible. *British journal of management, 14*(4), 357-369.

Hill, D. J., & Gandhi, N. (1992). Service Advertising: a Framework to its Effectiveness. *Journal of Services Marketing, 6*(4), 63-76.

Hoffman, K. D., & Bateson, J. E. (1997). *Essentials of services marketing*: Dryden Press Orlando, FL.

Hogg, M. A. (1992). The social psychology of group cohesiveness: from attraction to social identity

Hogg, M. A. (1996). Intragroup processes, group structure and social identity. *Social groups and identities: Developing the legacy of Henri Tajfel, 65*, 93.

Hollensen, S. (2003). Marketing Management, A Behavioral-Approach, FT: Prentice Hall, Harlow, England.

Homans, G. C. (1961). Social behavior: Its elementary forms.

Hrebiniak, L. G. (1974). Effects of job level and participation on employee attitudes and perceptions of influence. *Academy of Management Journal, 17*(4), 649-662.

Hsu, M.-H., & Chiu, C.-M. (2004). Predicting electronic service continuance with a decomposed theory of planned behaviour. *Behaviour & Information Technology, 23*(5), 359-373.

Jamal, A. (2004). Retail banking and customer behaviour: a study of self concept, satisfaction and technology usage. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research, 14*(3), 357-379.

eong, S. S. (2011). *Feel good or feel right: The role of moral emotions and other orientation in prosocial behavior in the workplace.* Ph.D - Business Administration The Darla Moore School of Business, University of South Carolina, South Carolina, United States.   (UMI 3469140)

Jimeno, J., Faircloth, G., Cameron, L., Meely, K., Vega, E., Gomez, A., . . . Rinehart, K. (1996). Progress in the acquisition of new marine-derived anticancer compounds: development of ecteinascidin-743 (ET-743). *Drugs of the Future, 21*(11), 1155-1165.

Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical decision making by individuals in organizations: An issue-contingent model. *Academy of management review, 16*(2), 366-395.

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: a qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of applied psychology, 87*(4), 765.

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral science, 9*(2), 131-146.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). The social psychology of organizations.

Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *The Journal of Marketing*, 1-22.

Keller, K. L. (2001). Building cutomer-based brand equity. *Marketing Management, 10*(2), 14-19.

Keller, S. B., Lynch, D. F., Ellinger, A. E., Ozment, J., & Calantone, R. (2006). The impact of internal marketing efforts in distribution service operations. *Journal of Business Logistics, 27*(1), 109-137.

Ketchand, A. A., & Strawser, J. R. (2001). Multiple dimensions of organizational commitment: Implications for future accounting research. *Behavioral Research in Accounting, 13*(1), 221-251.

King, E. B., George, J. M., & Hebl, M. R. (2005). Linking personality to helping behaviors at work: An interactional perspective. *Journal of Personality, 73*(3), 585-608.

Kinnear, T. C., Bernhardt, K. L., & Kathleen, A. (1995). Krentler: Principles of. Marketing: New York, Harper Collins Publishers.

Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., & Lester, S. W. (2004). The effect of other orientation on self–supervisor rating agreement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25*(7), 873-891.

Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., Lester, S. W., & Jeong, S. S. (2010). Paying you back or paying me forward: Understanding rewarded and unrewarded organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(2), 277.

Kotler, P. (2000). *Marketing management: The millennium edition*: Prentice-Hall Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Krishnan, B. C., & Hartline, M. D. (2001). Brand equity: is it more important in services? *Journal of Services Marketing, 15*(5), 328-342.

Kuenzel, S., & Halliday, S. V. (2008). Investigating antecedents and consequences of brand identification. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 17*(5), 293-304.

Laschinger, H. K. S., Finegan, J., Shamian, J., & Casier, S. (2000). Organizational trust and empowerment in restructured healthcare settings: effects on staff nurse commitment. *Journal of Nursing administration, 30*(9), 413-425.

Lassar, W., Mittal, B., & Sharma, A. (1995). Measuring customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *12*(4), 11-19.

Lauver, K. J., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2001). Distinguishing between employees' perceptions of person–job and person–organization fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *59*(3), 454-470.

Laverie, D. A., & Arnett, D. B. (2000). Factors affecting fan attendance: The influence of identity salience and satisfaction. *Journal of leisure Research*.

Lee, C., & Chen, W. (2005). The effects of internal marketing and organizational culture on knowledge management in the information technology industry. *International Journal of Management*, *22*(4), 661.

LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: a critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(1), 52.

Lester, S. W., Meglino, B. M., & Korsgaard, M. A. (2008). The role of other orientation in organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*(6), 829-841.

Levy, B. (1959). Adrenergic blockade produced by the dichloro analogs of epinephrine, arterenol and isoproterenol. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics, 127*(2), 150-156.

Lewis, B. R., & Entwistle, T. W. (1990). Managing the service encounter: a focus on the employee. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *1*(3), 41-52.

Li, J., Wang, G. A., & Chen, H. (2011). Identity matching using personal and social identity features. *Information Systems Frontiers, 13*(1), 101-113.

Lin, L.-Y. (2010). The relationship of consumer personality trait, brand personality and brand loyalty: an empirical study of toys and video games buyers. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 19*(1), 4-17.

Lincoln, J. R., & Boothe, J. N. (1993). Unions and work attitudes in the United States and Japan. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society, 32*(2), 159-187.

Loewenstein, G., & Small, D. A. (2007). The Scarecrow and the Tin Man: The vicissitudes of human sympathy and caring. *Review of General Psychology, 11*(2), 112.

Long, M. M., & Schiffman, L. G. (2000). Consumption values and relationships: segmenting the market for frequency programs. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 17*(3), 214-232.

Lovelock, C., & Wright, L. (1999). Principle of service marketing and management: Prentice-Hall Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological bulletin, 108*(2), 171.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa Jr, P. T. (1999). A five-factor theory of personality. *Handbook of personality: Theory and research, 2*, 139-153.

McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of personality, 60*(2), 175-215.

Mead, G. H. (1934). Mind, Self. *Society. Chicago*, 142.

Meglino, B. M., & Korsgaard, A. (2004). Considering rational self-interest as a disposition: organizational implications of other orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(6), 946.

Meglino, B. M., & Korsgaard, M. A. (2006). Considering situational and dispositional approaches to rational self-interest: An extension and response to De Dreu (2006).

Meglino, B. M., & Korsgaard, M. A. (2007). The role of other orientation in reactions to job characteristics. *Journal of Management, 33*(1), 57-83.

Mehta, A. (1999). Using Self-Concept to Assess Advertising Effectiveness: How people think and feel about themselves can significantly influence how they react to advertising content and execution, as well as the advertised product. *Journal of Advertising Research, 39*, 81-89.

Meng, M. (2005). IT design for sustaining virtual communities and identity based approach. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Maryland, College Park.*

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human resource management review, 1*(1), 61-89.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., Paunonen, S. V., Gellatly, I. R., Goffin, R. D., & Jackson, D. N. (1989). Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of the commitment that counts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(1), 152.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 61*(1), 20-52.

Miles, R. E., & Creed, W. D. (1995). Organizational Froms and Managerial Philosophies - A Descriptive and Analytical Review. *Research in Organizational Behavior: An Annual Series oF Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews, Vol 17, 1995, 17*, 333-372.

Milewicz, J., & Herbig, P. (1994). Evaluating the brand extension decision using a model of reputation building. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 3*(1), 39-47.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of applied psychology, 76*(6), 845.

Morgan, G. (1997). Images of organization.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(4), 475.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover* (Vol. 153): Academic Press New York.

Nauta, A., De Dreu, C. K., & Van Der Vaart, T. (2002). Social value orientation, organizational goal concerns and interdepartmental problem-solving behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(2), 199-213.

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., McKee, D. O., & McMurrian, R. (1997). An investigation into the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors in a personal selling context. *The Journal of Marketing*, 85-98.

Olsen, J. V., Blagoev, B., Gnad, F., Macek, B., Kumar, C., Mortensen, P., & Mann, M. (2006). Global, in vivo, and site-specific phosphorylation dynamics in signaling networks. *Cell, 127*(3), 635-648.

Onkvisit, S., & Shaw, J. (1987). Self-concept and image congruence: some research and managerial implications. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 4*(1), 13-23.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*: Lexington Books/DC Heath and Com.

Organ, D. W. (1994). Personality and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Management, 20*(2), 465-478.

Organ, D. W., & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 135*(3), 339-350.

Payne, A. (1993). *The essence of services marketing*: Prentice Hall New York.

Penner, L. A., & Finkelstein, M. A. (1998). Dispositional and structural determinants of volunteerism. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 74*(2), 525.

Perry, J. L., & Wise, L. R. (1990). The motivational bases of public service. *Public administration review, 50*(3), 367-373.

Phau, I., & Lau, K. C. (2000). Conceptualising brand personality: a review and research propositions. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing, 9*(1), 52-69.

Philip, K., & Lane, K. K. (2005). Marketing Mangement 12/e: PHI.

Plummer, J. T. (2000). How personality makes a difference. *Journal of Advertising Research, 40*(06), 79-84.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26*(3), 513-563.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59*(5), 603.

Price, J. L. (1997). Handbook of organizational measurement. *International Journal of Manpower, 18*(4/5/6), 305-558.

Rangsungnoen, G. (2011). *Factor Analysis by SPSS and AMOS for Research*. Bangkok: SE-EDucation.

Reichers, A. E. (1985). A review and reconceptualization of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Review, 10*(3), 465-476.

Reynolds, T. J., & Gutman, J. (1984). Advertising is image management. *Journal of advertising research*.

Romzek, B. S. (1990). Employee investment and commitment: the ties that bind. *Public administration review*, 374-382.

Rust, R. T., Stewart, G. L., Miller, H., & Pielack, D. (1996). The satisfaction and retention of frontline employees: a customer satisfaction measurement approach. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 7*(5), 62-80.

Segal-Horn, S., & Davison, H. (1992). Global markets, the global consumer and international retailing. *Journal of Global Marketing*, *5*(3), 31-62.

Sen, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Korschun, D. (2006). The role of corporate social responsibility in strengthening multiple stakeholder relationships: a field experiment. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing science, 34*(2), 158-166.

Shavitt, S. (1990). The role of attitude objects in attitude functions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *26*(2), 124-148.

Shen, Y.-C., Bei, L.-T., Wu, C.-Y., Kahle, L., & Kim, C. (2006). Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Brand Personality in Print Media: The Case of Mainland China and Taiwan. *Creating images and the psychology of marketing communication*, 351.

Siguaw, J. A., Mattila, A., & Austin, J. R. (1999). The brand-personality scale. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 40*(3), 48-45.

Simon, H. A. (1990). A mechanism for social selection and successful altruism. *Science(Washington), 250*(4988), 1665-1668.

Sinjaru, T. (2012). *Research and Statistical Data Analysis by SPSS and AMOS*. Bangkok: Business R&D.

Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-concept in consumer behavior: A critical review. *Journal of consumer research*, 287-300.

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of applied psychology, 68*(4), 653.

Solomon, M. R. (1983). The role of products as social stimuli: A symbolic interactionism perspective. *Journal of consumer research*, 319-329.

Sonenshein, S. (2007). The role of construction, intuition, and justification in responding to ethical issues at work: The sensemaking-intuition model. *Academy of management review, 32*(4), 1022-1040.

Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A., & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: do we know what we think we know? *Journal of applied psychology, 95*(4), 781.

Tafjel, H. (1981). *Human groups and social categories: Studies in social psychology*: CUP Archive.

Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations*: Academic Press.

Tajfel, H. (1979). Individuals and groups in social psychology*. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 18*(2), 183-190.

Tajfel, H. (2010). *Social identity and intergroup relations* (Vol. 7): Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. *The social psychology of intergroup relations, 33*, 47.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (2004). The Social Identity Theory of Intergroup Behavior.

Tapp, A., & Clowes, J. (2002). From “carefree casuals” to “professional wanderers”: Segmentation possibilities for football supporters. *European Journal of Marketing, 36*(11/12), 1248-1269.

Taylor, S. L., & Cosenza, R. M. (2002). Profiling later aged female teens: mall shopping behavior and clothing choice. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 19*(5), 393-408.

Tenbrunsel, A. E., Diekmann, K. A., Wade-Benzoni, K. A., & Bazerman, M. H. (2010). The ethical mirage: A temporal explanation as to why we are not as ethical as we think we are. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 30*, 153-173.

Ting-Toomey, S. (2005). Identity negotiation theory: Crossing cultural boundaries. *Theorizing about intercultural communication*, 211-233.

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral ethics in organizations: A review. *Journal of Management, 32*(6), 951-990.

Turner, J. C. (1975). Social comparison and social identity: Some prospects for intergroup behaviour. *European journal of social psychology, 5*(1), 1-34.

Turner, J. C. (1985). Social categorization and the self-concept: A social cognitive theory of group behavior. *Advances in group processes: Theory and research, 2*, 77-122.

Turner, J. C. (1999). Some current issues in research on social identity and self-categorization theories. *Social identity: Context, commitment, content*, 6-34.

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). *Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory*: Basil Blackwell.

Ugboro, I. O. (2006). Organizational commitment, job redesign, employee empowerment and intent to quit among survivors of restructuring and downsizing. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management, 7*(3), 232-257.

Van Vianen, A. E., De Pater, I. E., Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Johnson, E. C. (2004). Fitting in: Surface-and deep-level cultural differences and expatriates' adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(5), 697-709.

Venable, B. T., Rose, G. M., Bush, V. D., & Gilbert, F. W. (2005). The role of brand personality in charitable giving: an assessment and validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 33*(3), 295-312.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and motivation.

Wanichbancha, K. (2008). *Data Analysis: Statistics for Management and Research* (11 ed.). Bangkok: The Publisher of Chulalongkorn University.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1997). Extraversion and its positive emotional core.

Wegner, D. M., Schneider, D. J., Carter, S. R., & White, T. L. (1987). Paradoxical effects of thought suppression. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 53*(1), 5.

Wylie, R. C. (1989). *Measures of self-concept*: U of Nebraska Press.

Yi, Y., & La, S. (2006). Well-Matched Employees Make Customers Happy: Effects of Brand–Employee Congruence. *Creating images and the psychology of marketing communication*, 223.

Zafirovski, M. (2005). Social exchange theory under scrutiny: A positive critique of its economic-behaviorist formulations. *Electronic Journal of Sociology, 2*, 1-40.

Zangaro, G. A. (2001). *Organizational commitment: A concept analysis.* Paper presented at the Nursing forum.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Factor Loadings and Reliability

Factor Loadings and Reliability of Brand Personality

Items	Factor matrix	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected item-total correlation	Eigenvalues value	% of Variance extracted	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Number of case
Competence1	0.89	0.91	0.85	3.331	77.75	0.86	3537.41	1,061
Competence2	0.85	0.92	0.82					
Competence3	0.90	0.91	0.86					
Competence4	0.89	0.91	0.84					
Sincerity1	0.68	.930	0.66	3.170	73.25	0.84	3248.19	
Sincerity2	0.88	.870	0.82					
Sincerity3	0.92	.860	0.86					
Sincerity4	0.92	.860	0.86					
Excitement1	0.86	0.88	0.80	3.168	72.39	0.84	2956.17	
Excitement2	0.88	0.88	0.83					
Excitement3	0.87	0.88	0.82					
Excitement4	0.79	0.9	0.75					
Sophistication1	0.86	0.92	0.83	3.337	77.92	0.79	3965.23	
Sophistication2	0.90	0.9	0.87					
Sophistication3	0.89	0.91	0.85					
Sophistication4	0.88	0.91	0.83					
Ruggedness1	0.87	0.92	0.83	3.359	78.72	0.84	3744.25	
Ruggedness2	0.93	0.91	0.88					
Ruggedness3	0.85	0.93	0.82					
Ruggedness4	0.90	0.91	0.86					

Factor Loadings and Reliability Value of Personal-Social Identification

Items	Factor loadings		Cronbach's alpha	Corrected item-total correlation	Eigenvalues value	% of Variance extracted	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Number of case
	1	2							
Personal1	0.81		0.96	0.81	9.55	71.87	0.96	16883.99	1,061
Personal2	0.86		0.96	0.86					
Personal3	0.92		0.96	0.86					
Personal4	0.99		0.95	0.90					
Personal5	0.91		0.95	0.90					
Personal6	0.82		0.96	0.88					
Personal7	0.79		0.96	0.87					
Social1		0.86	0.95	0.86	1.19	7.61			
Social2		0.90	0.96	0.86					
Social3		0.93	0.95	0.90					
Social4		0.87	0.95	0.87					
Social5		0.93	0.95	0.88					
Social6		0.85	0.95	0.87					

Factor Loadings and Reliability Value of Organizational Commitment

	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected item-total correlation	Eigenvalues value	% of Variance extracted	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Number of case
Commitment1	0.78	0.94	0.76	4.66	73.20	0.90	5763.14	1,061
Commitment2	0.87	0.93	0.84					
Commitment3	0.90	0.93	0.86					
Commitment4	0.90	0.93	0.87					
Commitment5	0.86	0.93	0.83					
Commitment6	0.82	0.93	0.80					

Factor Loadings and Reliability Value of Prosocial Behavior

Items	Factor		Cronbach's alpha	corrected item-total correlation	Eigenvalues value	% of Variance extracted	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Number of case
Role1	0.91		0.92	0.82					
Role2	0.96		0.92	0.85					
Role3	0.78		0.92	0.84	8.50	68.81			
Role4	0.68		0.94	0.69					
Role5	0.86		0.92	0.85			0.948	13566.47	1,061
Role6	0.78		0.92	0.84					
Extrarole1		-0.67	0.95	0.82					
Extrarole2		-0.52	0.95	0.81					
Extrarole3		-0.93	0.94	0.85	1.01	6.49			
Extrarole4		-0.88	0.94	0.90					
Extrarole5		-0.83	0.94	0.86					
Extrarole6		-0.98	0.94	0.87					

APPENDIX B
Letter Sent for Approval of Data Collection

ที่ ศธ 0578.06/8371

คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี
ต. คลองหก อ. ธัญบุรี
จ. ปทุมธานี 12110

25 กันยายน 2555

เรื่อง ขอความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถาม เรื่อง "ผลกระทบของบุคลิกภาพองค์กรที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมของพนักงานในส่วนการบริการลูกค้าที่เอื้อต่อองค์กรและผลกระทบของอัตลักษณ์ต่อองค์กรในอุตสาหกรรมการบริการยานยนต์"

เรียน กรรมการผู้จัดการ

ด้วย นายศรากุล สุโคตรพรหมมี ซึ่งเป็นอาจารย์ประจำสาขาการบริหารธุรกิจระหว่างประเทศ สังกัดคณะบริหารธุรกิจ มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี กำลังศึกษาต่อในระดับปริญญาเอก และอยู่ระหว่างการจัดทำวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง "ผลกระทบของบุคลิกภาพองค์กรที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมของพนักงานในส่วนการบริการลูกค้าที่เอื้อต่อองค์กรและผลกระทบของอัตลักษณ์ต่อองค์กรในอุตสาหกรรมการบริการยานยนต์"

ในการศึกษาวิจัยครั้งนี้ จำเป็นต้องขอความร่วมมือจากท่านในการตอบแบบสอบถาม จำนวน 6 หน้า และจะเก็บข้อมูลของท่านเป็นความลับ เมื่อท่านกรอกแบบสอบถามเรียบร้อยแล้ว ขอความกรุณาส่งเอกสารกลับคืนมาภายใน 15 วัน หลังจากได้รับแบบสอบถามดังกล่าวนี้ ความร่วมมือของท่านจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อวงการวิชาการและการศึกษาระดับสูงของประเทศไทย ซึ่งท่านสามารถสอบถามข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมได้ที่คณะบริหารธุรกิจ หรือนักวิจัยโดยตรงที่เบอร์ 085-9587979

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณาให้ความอนุเคราะห์ในการตอบแบบสอบถามด้วย จักขอบคุณยิ่ง

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ชนงกรณ์ กุณฑลบุตร)
คณบดีคณะบริหารธุรกิจ
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี

คณะบริหารธุรกิจ
โทร. 0-2549-4809 โทรสาร. 0-2577-4399

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire (English and Thai Version)

Questionnaire (English Version)

The Effect of Corporate Brand Personality on Customer-Contact Employee's Prosocial Behavior and Mediating Effect of Brand Identification in Japanese Automotive Service Sector

Part 1: Personal Information of Respondent

Please insert a cross sign (X) on the choice that most relevant to you.

1. Gender

❒ Male ❒ Female

2. Age (years)

1. ❒ 21-25 2. ❒ 26-30 3. ❒ 31-35

4. ❒ 36-40 5. ❒ 41-45 6. ❒ 46-50

7. ❒ More than 51

3. Marital status

1. ❒ Single 2. ❒ Married 3. ❒ Divorced

4. Educational level

1. ❒ Undergraduates 2. ❒ Graduate

3. ❒ Postgraduate

5. Working experiences

1. ❒ 1-5 years 2. ❒ 6-10years 3. ❒ 11-15years

4. ❒ 16-20 years 5. ❒ 21-25 years 6. ❒ 26-30years

7. ❒ More than 31years

6. Position

1. ❒ Manager 2. ❒ Head of Department

3. ❒ Sale representative 4. ❒ Receptionist

5. ❒ Other……………

7. Income (Baht/month)

1. ❒ Less than 15,000
2. ❒ 15,001-25,000
3. ❒ 25,001-35,000
4. ❒ 35,001-45,000
5. ❒ 45,001-55,000
6. ❒ More than 55,001

Part 2: Characteristics of Organization

Please insert a cross sign (X) on the choice that most relevant to you.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Moderately disagree 3 = Slightly disagree

4 = Neutral 5 = Slightly agree 6 = Moderately agree

7 = Strongly agree

If your organization is like a person and what does the personality of your organization look.

No.	Items	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Competence of organization							
1.1	Reliable							
1.2	Intelligent							
1.3	Successful							
1.4	Confident							
2	Sincerity of organization							
2.1	Down-to-earth							
2.2	Honest							
2.3	Wholesome							
2.4	Sincere							
3	Excitement of organization							
3.1	Exciting							

No.	Items (continued)	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2	Spirited							
3.3	Imaginative							
3.4	Up-to-date							
4	Sophistication of organization							
4.1	Upper class							
4.2	Glamorous							
4.3	Good looking							
4.4	Charming							
5	Ruggedness of organization							
5.1	Tough							
5.2	Rugged							
5.3	Outdoorsy							
5.4	Masculine							

Part 3: Brand Identification

Please insert a cross sign (X) on the choice that most relevant to you.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Moderately disagree 3 = Slightly disagree

4 = Neutral 5 = Slightly agree 6 = Moderately agree

7 = Strongly agree

No.	Items	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Personal Identification							
1.1	The image of my organization fits my personality.							
1.2	The image of my organization matches my lifestyle.							
1.3	The image of my organization represents my values well.							
1.4	The image of my organization symbolized the kind of person I really am inside.							
1.5	The image of my organization reflects my personality.							
1.6	The image of my organization is an extension of my inner self.							
1.7	The image of my organization mirrors the real of me.							

No.	Items (continued)	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Social Identification							
2.1	The image of my organization gives me social recognition and respects.							
2.2	The image of my organization enhances social status.							
2.3	This image of my organization contributes to my image.							
2.4	This image of my organization adds to a social “role” I play.							
2.5	This image of my organization has positive impact on what others think of me.							
2.6	This image of my organization improves the way society views me.							

Part 4: Organizational Commitment

Please insert a cross sign (X) on the choice that most relevant to you.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Moderately disagree 3 = Slightly disagree

4 = Neutral 5 = Slightly agree 6 = Moderately agree

7 = Strongly agree

No.	Item	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.1	I really care for the fate of this organization.							
1.2	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort.							
1.3	This organization really inspires me to put forth my best effort.							
1.4	I would accept almost my type of job assignment.							
1.5	I am extremely glad that I choose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.							
1.6	Overall I am committed to this organization.							

Part 5: Prosocial Behavior

Please insert a cross sign (X) on the choice that most relevant to you.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.

1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Moderately disagree 3 = Slightly disagree

4 = Neutral 5 = Slightly agree 6 = Moderately agree

7 = Strongly agree

No.	Item	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Role-prescribed behavior							
1.1	I perform all those tasks for guests that are required of me.							
1.2	I meet formal performance requirements when serving guests.							
1.3	I fulfill responsibilities to guests as expected by management.							
1.4	I help guests with those things that are necessary and expected.							
1.5	I adequately complete all expected guest service behaviors.							
1.6	I fulfill responsibilities to guests as specified in my job description.							

No.	Items (continued)	Level						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Extra-role behaviors							
2.1	I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements.							
2.2	I willingly go out of my way to make a gust satisfied.							
2.3	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.							
2.4	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me.							
2.5	I fluently go out of the way to help hotel guests.							
2.6	I often serve customers in manner that exceeds my formal job requirements.							

Questionnaire (Thai Version)

แบบสอบถาม

เรื่อง ผลกระทบของบุคลิกภาพองค์กรที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมของพนักงานในส่วนการบริการลูกค้าที่เอื้อต่อองค์กรและผลกระทบของอัตลักษณ์ตราองค์กรในอุตสาหกรรมการบริการยานยนต์

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคลทั่วไป

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1. เพศ

❐ ชาย ❐ หญิง

2. อายุ

1. ❐ 21-25 ปี 2. ❐ 26-30 ปี 3. ❐ 31-35 ปี

4. ❐ 36-40 ปี 5. ❐ 41-45 ปี 6. ❐ 46-50 ปี

7. ❐ 51 ปีขึ้นไป

3. สถานภาพสมรส

1. ❐ โสด 2. ❐ สมรส 3. ❐ หม้าย / หย่า / แยกกันอยู่

4. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด

1. ❐ ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี 2. ❐ ปริญญาตรี

3. ❐ สูงกว่าปริญญาตรี

5. ระยะเวลาในการทำงาน

1. ❐ 1-5 ปี 2. ❐ 6-10 ปี 3. ❐ 11-15 ปี

4. ❐ 16-20 ปี 5. ❐ 21-25 ปี 6. ❐ 26-30 ปี

7. ❐ 31 ปีขึ้นไป

6. ตำแหน่ง

1. ❒ ผู้จัดการ 2. ❒ หัวหน้าแผนก

3. ❒ พนักงานฝ่ายขาย 4. ❒ พนักงานต้อนรับลูกค้า

5. ❒ อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ.....................

7. รายได้ต่อเดือน

1. ❒ ต่ำกว่าหรือเท่ากับ 15,000 บาท 2. ❒ 15,001-25,000 บาท

3. ❒ 25,001-35,000 บาท 4. ❒ 35,001-45,000 บาท

5. ❒ 45,001-55,000 บาท 6. ❒ 55,001 บาท ขึ้นไป

ส่วนที่ 2 บุคลิกภาพขององค์กร

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ลงในคำตอบที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย 3 = ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย

4 = ปานกลาง 5 = ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย 6 = เห็นด้วย

7 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

หากองค์กรของท่านเปรียบเสมือนบุคคล ท่านคิดว่าองค์กรของท่านมีบุคลิกภาพอย่างไร

ลำดับ	**รายการ**	**ระดับความคิดเห็น**						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	**บุคลิกภาพด้านความสามารถขององค์กร**							
1.1	บุคลิกน่าเชื่อถือ							
1.2	บุคลิกเฉลียวฉลาด							
1.3	บุคลิกดูประสบความสำเร็จ							
1.4	บุคลิกมีความมั่นใจ							
2	**บุคลิกภาพด้านความจริงใจขององค์กร**							
2.1	บุคลิกดูเรียบง่าย							
2.2	บุคลิกดูมีความซื่อสัตย์							
2.3	บุคลิกดูมีคุณความดี							
2.4	บุคลิกดูมีความจริงใจ							

ลำดับ	รายการ (ต่อ)	ระดับความคิดเห็น						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	**บุคลิกภาพด้านความกระตือรือร้นขององค์กร**							
3.1	บุคลิกดูมีความกล้าหาญ							
3.2	บุคลิกดูมีความมุ่งมั่น							
3.3	บุคลิกดูมีจินตนาการ							
3.4	บุคลิกดูทันสมัย							
4	**บุคลิกภาพด้านความพิถีพิถันขององค์กร**							
4.1	บุคลิกดูเป็นชนชั้นสูง							
4.2	บุคลิกดูหรูหรา							
4.3	บุคลิกดูดี							
4.4	บุคลิกมีเสน่ห์							
5	**บุคลิกภาพด้านความเข้มแข็งขององค์กร**							
5.1	บุคลิกมีความทนทาน แข็งแกร่ง							
5.2	บุคลิกมีความห้าวหาญ							
5.3	บุคลิกชอบเดินทาง/ผจญภัย/กิจกรรมกลางแจ้ง							
5.4	บุคลิกมีความเข้มแข็ง							

ส่วนที่ 3 อัตลักษณ์ของตราสินค้า

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในคำตอบที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย 3 = ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย

4 = ปานกลาง 5 = ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย 6 = เห็นด้วย

7 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ลำดับ	**รายการ**	**ระดับความคิดเห็น**						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	**อัตลักษณ์ส่วนบุคคล**							
1.1	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรมีบุคลิกภาพสอดคล้องกับตัวข้าพเจ้า							
1.2	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรมีแนวทางการดำเนินชีวิตสอดคล้องกับตัวข้าพเจ้า							
1.3	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรสอดคล้องกับค่านิยมของข้าพเจ้า							
1.4	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรบ่งบอกถึงลักษณะที่ฉันเป็นจริง							
1.5	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรสะท้อนให้เห็นถึงบุคลิกภาพของฉัน							
1.6	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรนี้เป็นส่วนขยายตัวตนของฉัน							
1.7	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรนี้สะท้อนความเป็นจริงของตัวฉัน							

ลำดับ	รายการ (ต่อ)	ระดับความคิดเห็น						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	**อัตลักษณ์ทางสังคม**							
2.1	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรทำให้ข้าพเจ้าได้รับการยอมรับและการเคารพจากสังคม							
2.2	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรส่งผลต่อสถานะทางสังคมของข้าพเจ้า							
2.3	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรนี้ส่งเสริมภาพลักษณ์ของฉัน							
2.4	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรนี้ได้เพิ่ม "บทบาท" ทางสังคมให้ฉัน							
2.5	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรนี้มีผลกระทบเชิงบวกถึงสิ่งที่คนอื่นนึกถึงเกี่ยวกับตัวฉัน							
2.6	ภาพลักษณ์ขององค์กรนี้ช่วยให้สังคมมองฉันในทางที่ดีขึ้น							

ส่วนที่ 4 พันธะสัญญาขององค์กร

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในคำตอบที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง　2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย　3 = ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย

4 = ปานกลาง　5 = ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย　6 = เห็นด้วย

7 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ลำดับ	รายการ	ระดับความคิดเห็น						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.1	ท่านห่วงใยในอนาคตขององค์กรแห่งนี้อย่างแท้จริง							
1.2	ท่านเต็มใจที่จะทำงานหนักมากกว่าหน้าที่เพื่อช่วยให้องค์กรแห่งนี้ประสบความสำเร็จ							
1.3	องค์กรแห่งนี้เป็นแรงบันดาลใจที่ทำให้ท่านทุ่มเทสุดกำลังความสามารถ							
1.4	ท่านยินดีที่จะปฏิบัติงานทุกอย่างที่เกี่ยวกับการบริการเพื่อจะได้ทำงานที่องค์กรแห่งนี้							
1.5	ท่านรู้สึกดีใจเป็นอย่างยิ่งที่ตัดสินใจทำงานที่องค์กรแห่งนี้เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับที่อื่นๆ							
1.6	เมื่อพิจารณาโดยรวมทั้งหมด ท่านอุทิศตัวทุ่มเทให้กับองค์กรแห่งนี้							

ส่วนที่ 5 พฤติกรรมการเป็นบุคลากรที่ดีต่อองค์การ

กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในคำตอบที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของตัวท่านมากที่สุด

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.

1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย 3 = ค่อนข้างไม่เห็นด้วย

4 = ปานกลาง 5 = ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย 6 = เห็นด้วย

7 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

ลำดับ	**รายการ**	**ระดับความคิดเห็น**						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	**พฤติกรรมตามบทบาทที่กำหนด**							
1.1	ข้าพเจ้าดำเนินงานทั้งหมดตามที่กำหนด							
1.2	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถบริการลูกค้าตามภาระงานที่กำหนด							
1.3	ข้าพเจ้าใส่ใจรับผิดชอบต่อการบริการลูกค้าตามที่ฝ่ายการจัดการคาดหวัง							
1.4	ข้าพเจ้าช่วยเหลือลูกค้าตามแต่ความจำเป็นและความคาดหวัง							
1.5	ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติหน้าที่ครบตามที่พึงกระทำต่อลูกค้า							
1.6	ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติหน้าที่ตามที่ระบุไว้ในคำอธิบายของงาน							

ลำดับ	รายการ (ต่อ)	ระดับความคิดเห็น						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	**พฤติกรรมนอกเหนือบทบาท**							
2.1	ข้าพเจ้าสมัครใจให้ความช่วยเหลือลูกค้าแม้งานนั้นจะเกินขอบเขตที่รับผิดชอบ							
2.2	ข้าพเจ้ายินดีทำงานเพื่อให้ลูกค้ามีความพึงพอใจ							
2.3	ข้าพเจ้ามักจะให้บริการลูกค้าเกินกว่าหน้าที่ ที่กำหนด							
2.4	ข้าพเจ้าช่วยเหลือลูกค้าเวลาที่มีปัญหาและให้บริการมากกว่าที่กำหนด							
2.5	ข้าพเจ้ามักจะหาทางช่วยเหลือลูกค้าอยู่บ่อยครั้ง							
2.6	ข้าพเจ้ามักจะให้บริการลูกค้ามากกว่าหน้าที่ที่กำหนด							

ขอบพระคุณทุกท่านที่ได้สละเวลาอันมีค่าของท่านเพื่อสนับสนุนการศึกษาโดยการตอบแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้

Biography

Name-Surname	Mr. Sarakul Sukortprommee
Date of Birth	August 21, 1968
Address	50/86 Soi 43, aqSathaporn Village, Rangsit-Nakornnayok Rd., Bueng Yitho, Pathum Thani, 12130 Thailand
Education	Bachelor of Business Administration (Marketing) Faculty of Business Administration, Ramkhamhaeng University, Thailand Master of Business Administration (International Business) Faculty of Business Administration, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, Thailand
Experiences Work	2013 – Present: TV Program Moderator of Innovative Variety on Smart SME True Vision Channel 25 and 28. 2010: Pocket Books Writer (GO เรียน กิน เที่ยว @ New Zealand and คน AEC), published by Keaw Kan Da Press, Bangkok, Thailand 2005 – Present: Rajamangala University of Technology Thanyaburi, Thailand Lecturer and Head of Department of International Business Administration, Faculty of Business Administration

2003 – Present: Krirk University, Thailand
Guest Lecturer (Executive Management Program), Faculty of Liberal Art

Guest Lecturer (MBA Program), Faculty of Business Administration

2003 – 2008: Ramkhamhaeng University, Thailand

Guest Lecturer, Faculty of Science

2001 – 2005: Faculty of Business Administration, Eastern Asia University, Thailand

Lecturer, Head of Department of International Business Management, and Deputy Dean of Academics Affairs

1993 – 2001: RS Concrete (1992) Co., Ltd.

Head of Marketing Department 1991 – 1993: BP Oil (Thailand) Co., Ltd.

Sales Representative

Telephone Number 085-958-7979

Email Address sarakul2511@gmail.com

Declaration

This work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and beliefs, contains on material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text.

I give consent to this copy of my dissertation, when deposited in the university library, being available for loan and photocopying.

Sarakul Sukortprommee