“Measuring brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context”

By

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Declaration

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This Thesis entitled: **"Measuring brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context"** is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Unitec degree of Master of Business.

Candidate's declaration

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Abstract

Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs) are often perceived in an abstract manner because the organisations provide intangible products and social ideals. As a result of this abstract perception, a sense of trust, especially with regard to organisational transparency, is very important for organisations in this sector. In response, some NPOs have implemented branding strategies similar to those of larger, for-profit companies. Branding strategy is employed to reduce donors' perception of risk associated with their respective organisations. As individual donors generally do not investigate whether the organisation uses donated money effectively, developing a brand that exhibits commitment to deliver high quality goods and services, thus instilling trust in the target donors, is essential for NPOs to increase the perception of organisational transparency. In addition, brand personality strategy techniques are adapted from the commercial to the non-profit sector in order to identify the unique characteristics of their brands or brand personality that match with their target market. Ensuring this cohesion between brand personality and the characteristics desired by their target market(s) is integral for NPOs to garner increased revenue from potential donors.

Brand personality strategy for NPOs remains in the developmental stages. To date, only Venable et al. (2005) conducted empirical research on brand personality models in the non-profit sector. In that research, it was found that there are some key similarities and differences between brand personality in the nonprofit and for profit sectors. The models of brand personality that have been studied in German, Spanish, French and Japanese contexts show that cultural differences affect the construct of brand personality models. Thus, the purpose of this study is to collect empirical data, in order to identify and develop NPO brand personality scales in the context of Laos.

A mixed method was applied in this study. The primary purpose of this mixed methodology was to develop and identify potential measurement variables to be used in a quantitative questionnaire and to test hypotheses in relation to reliability and validity in the context of Laos. Therefore, this approach does not limit this research in the scope of nonprofit brand personality measurement scales that were developed in a

different cultural and socioeconomic context. This began with semi-structured interviews that were conducted with eight participants from the Association for Autism in Laos, which is a NPO operating in Laos. Then, after adapting the results from the semi-structured interviews to questionnaires, the questionnaires were distributed and conducted with 116 donors in Vientiane Capital. The sample size for the initial questionnaire data collection stage was adequate to proceed to the next stage of the research and analyse the data using quantitative methods.

The data analysis for this study was divided into three main stages. First, coding and filtering was employed to analyse data that was collected from the interviews. Second, frequencies data analysis techniques helped to study donor behavior. Finally, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were the significant techniques to develop nonprofit brand personality scales in the Laos context and test the research hypotheses. The results of the data analysis revealed three dimensions and eight facets of nonprofit brand personality unique to Laos. The researcher believes that this study will contribute theoretical information and subsequently allow for the development of practical implementation of this research for non-profit brands in Laos, as well as serve as a guide for similar research conducted in other country contexts.

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Abbreviations

BP: Brand Personality

HP: Human Personality

NPOs: Non Profit Organisations

NGOs: Non-Governmental Organisations

INGOs: International Non-Governmental Organisations

LDCs: Least Developed Countries

MoU: Memorandum of Understanding

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

WTO: World Trade Organisation

UREC: Unitec Research Ethics Committee

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

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Chapter One
Introduction

1.1 Background

A brand is a name, term, design, style, words, symbols or any other feature on a product or service that makes it unique and readily identifiable (Trehan & Trehan, 2007). Branding has been widely implemented in the commercial sector since the 18th century, especially in England and France (Moor, 2007). In the old days, the word 'brand' referred to 'burn' when the producers burned their trademark or brand name onto their products. During the industrial revolution in the 19th century, many household items were mass-produced and distributed to wider markets. Before shipping, companies placed their logos on their products as trademarks. Thus, branding was a vital method of the company to convey to their consumers that their products were trustworthy (Boundless, 2013).

Branding has now become a universal practice and underwent a revolutionary adaptation in the mid-20th century because of the fast growing use of commercials in the mass media (Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011). In addition, in the increasingly competitive environment, the question of how much average consumers care about brands and how brands influence purchasing process, has become extremely significant issues for marketers. These challenges have been investigated through research. Marquardt et al. (1965) as cited in Hamf and Lindberg-Repo (2011) reveal that most customers' purchasing decisions are based on how well they know the brands. Only 25 per cent of the respondents focused on the price factor rather than the brand. As a result of that study, the importance of branding was further enhanced in the commercial industry. The above research came out at the time when many new theories emerged, such as brand loyalty by Cunningham (1956) and brand personality by Martineau (1958).

Although branding bloomed during the 1950s to 1960s, branding theories developed and became firmly established only in the mid 1970s to 1990s. Many new branding concepts were introduced, namely, brand positioning by Ries and Trout in 1981, social marketing by Kotler and Zalman in 1971, relationship marketing by Gronroos in 1989, and brand equity by Farquhar in 1995 (Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011). The

branding theories shifted the focus to the role of marketing in society. Researchers and marketers have tried to take into account the relationship between society and marketing and the means by which marketing could influence society, as well as the role of the society being a principle factor in influencing marketing.

Furthermore, Kotler and Zaltman (1971) first introduced social marketing which refers to how branding could be applied by nonprofit organisations. This concept was a starting point for brand revolution and was even applied to new presidential candidate campaigns in the USA. Needham (2005) compared politics as marketplaces and voters as consumers. She mentioned that good branding reduces requirement of product information and simplifies choice, which is the same way as party labels make voters to familiar themselves with parties' policies. For example, Bill Clinton successfully branded himself as part of a new generation of Democrats in the United States. He developed simple, reassuring and credible messages, which made him stand out from opponents and resonated with the aspirations and values of voters. Currently, branding is more than just the trademark, but it serves as a guideline for purchasing behaviour. Moreover, when brands are managed properly, the owners can leverage brand value (Clifton, 2010). For example, Coca-Cola and Pepsi, two big soft drink companies that provide similar product lines, but their brand values are far different. Cola-Cola's brand value accounted for US$ 77.8 billion, while Pepsi's brand value was only US$16.5 billion. This is an outcome of superior brand management by Cola-Cola (Budac & Baltador, 2013).

In order to achieve emotional attachment with the brand concept, organisations have to build a brand personality (BP). Brand Personality (BP) has emerged to strongly differentiate each brand from other competitors (Seimiene, 2012). Aaker (1997) cites the work of Sirgy (1997), Biel (1993) and Fournier (1994) in claiming that brand personality increases consumer preference and usage, evokes consumers' emotions and raises levels of trust and loyalty. Seimiene (2012) states that the majority of publications in the psychology field argue that consumers prefer brands similar to their own personalities. This is similar to the concept of congruence between consumers and brand personalities that were also studied in the marketing and consumer behaviour fields. Improving brand personality has been a successful strategy in the commercial sector for a long time. Recently, the concept of brand

personality is being applied and extended from the profit to the nonprofit sector. Some researchers believe that brand personality helps nonprofit organisations create identities that are based on an organisation's core values and mission statements (Hankinson, 2001). Sargeant et al. (2008) also suggested that the donors are attracted by charitable brands that are perceived as having characteristics congruent with their own. For instance, philanthropic opportunities enable donors/consumers to exhibit their values, historical or moral biographies, anxieties and aspirations for a better outcome through identification with charitable organisations (Stride, 2006).

Nonprofit organisations (NPOs) can be defined as organisations that are not operated for the profit or private gain of any member and whose rules prevent money, property or any other benefits being distributed to any of their members but instead the benefits are accrued for the public (New Zealand Charities Commission, 2012). According to Johns Hopkins University research on the State of Global Civil Society and Volunteering in sixteen countries around the world, NPOs provide products and services in two main categories, namely services activities (housing, social services, education and health care) and 'expressive' activities (sports, recreation, arts and culture, interest representation and advocacy) (Salamon, Sokowski, Haddock, & Tice, 2013).

Non-profit organisations (NPOs) and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are often used interchangeably because NGOs have in common as a non-governmental entity and are legally registered as non-profits. According to a review by the World Bank (1989), NPOs and NGOs share common values such as market-oriented public service contractors, values-driven voluntary organisations and member-accountable people's organisations (Brown & Korten, 1989). Nonprofit organisations (NPOs) or Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have long been recognised as playing a key role in providing social and economic development. This sector has assisted governments to achieve their development objectives, due to the fact that achieving goals and solving socioeconomic issues require more than government action alone. Anheier (2005) mentions that NPOs provide expertise in different fields to support governments to reach, engage grassroots and build cross-sector partnerships. The above author emphasised that another significant role of NPOs is to help policymakers design more effective policies by involving NPOs to address social,

economic and environmental issues in order to maximise favourable policies and promote democratic practice. As a result, The World Bank and other development agencies have increased their cooperation with this sector over the last few decades (The World Bank, 2013).

A growing phenomenon of this sector can be seen at several levels. At the local level, in many countries, NPOs have become a part of community-building and empowerment strategies (Anheier, 2005). For instance, in the late 1980s, the United States' president George H.W. Bush supported volunteerism, community service and local NPOs as the key factors in addressing social problems and community needs. In addition, the growing interest in this sector soared in the last 30 years when the US government contracted NPOs to provide public services (Smith, 2012). At the national level, in a rapidly changing and turbulent environment, a trend in public management was to move from large bureaucratic organisations to less hierarchical smaller organisations. NPOs have been increasing their involvement in social welfare, healthcare, education and other public services (Anheier, 2005). They have become the key organisations that contribute to public value and social reform (Smith, 2012). At international level, the number of international NPOs rose from 13,000 in 1981 to 47,000 by 2001 (Anheier, 2005). Many international NPOs such as United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the World Health Organisation (WHO) and UNICEF expanded their networks around the world. For example, UNICEF focuses on research and experience to find out what works to help children have the best start in life and survive. This means growing up and going to school. Currently, UNICEF is a leading advocate for children's rights and operates in more than 190 countries. It is one of the United Nations programs which work closely with local governments, especially in least developed countries to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that were set by the United Nations in 2000 (UNICEF, 2013).

Least Developed Countries (LDCs) were classified as the poorest and weakest segment of the international community by the United Nations General Assembly in 1971 (UN-OHRLLS, 2013). The main objective of the classification was to seek special international support for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged of the United Nations family members. LDCs are home to more than 880 million people

(approximately 12 per cent of the world population) in 49 countries (34 in Africa, 14 in Asia and the Pacific and 1 in Latin America) (UN-OHRLLS, 2013).

Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), or Laos in short, is still on the list of least developed countries (LDCs) in Asia and the Pacific. Laos is a landlocked country and located in South East Asia. It shares borders with Myanmar, Cambodia, China, Thailand, and Vietnam. Laos comprises 17 provinces and one special zone. The population is 6.4 million, but 67 percent are still living in the rural areas with the urbanisation rate approximately 4.9 percent each year (United Nations Development Programme, 2013). Laos was heavily involved in the Indochina war in eastern and north-eastern provinces but got its independence in 1975 seceding as the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) from the Kingdom of Laos. The Lao government implemented significant economic reform to shift from a command economy towards a market economy in 1982. The government took a step forward to officially introduce the New Economic Mechanism (NEM) in 1986 which involved reducing government's trade monopoly and opening itself to foreign and interprovincial trade (The National Assembly, 2013).

Recently, Laos has become an active partner for both regional and global organisations. Regionally, Laos has accelerated its economic growth by becoming a member of the Greater Mekong Sub-Region (GMS) Economic Cooperation Program. By being a partner of the GMS program, Laos has increased opportunities to develop potential exports to neighbouring countries and to develop transport corridors and foreign investment relations with partnership countries (United Nations Development Programme, 2013). For example, currently, Laos is a key hydropower exporter to Thailand and Vietnam. In 1993, the first Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) was signed between the Lao and Thai government in which Laos agreed to supply 1500MW of electricity to Thailand by 2000. This MoU has been extended several times until recent years. Laos agreed to export 7000MW of electricity to Thailand by 2020. In addition, Laos also has an agreement to export 3,000MW of electricity to Vietnam by 2015 (Suryadi, 2012). Furthermore, Laos also participates in the Mekong River Commission (MRC), Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) to seek opportunities for regional cooperation (United Nations Development Programme, 2013). Globally, after 15 years of

preparation and negotiation, Laos finally became a member of World Trade Organisation (WTO) in February 2013 (World Trade Organization, 2013).

For the purpose of this thesis, the titles international Nonprofit Organisations (INPOs) and International Non-Governmental Organisations (INGOs) will be used interchangeably. However, in Laos, the title INGO is more commonly used. INGOs have played a key role in social and economic development assistance in this country. INGOs have particular expertise to assist Laos in various fields such as education, healthcare and agriculture (The World Bank, 2013). Laos depends heavily on foreign aid and INGOs to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (UNICEF, 2013). The establishment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) involved a large gathering of world leaders who agreed to act in accordance with the United Nations Millennium Declaration in committing to a new global partnership to eradicate extreme poverty and set out a series of time-bound targets, with a deadline of 2015 (United Nations, 2006).

The key development challenges of the Lao government are the widening gaps between rich and poor, gender inequality, incorporating ethnic groups and residents of remote regions into the development process. In particular, the reason why involving ethnic groups remains a challenge for human development is because Laos comprises 49 diverse ethnic groups and 67 per cent of their population are still living in the rural areas which lack access to basic infrastructure and services (United Nations Development Programme, 2013).

Laos is the only country among the 49 least developed countries that has an additional MDG Goal which is reducing the impact of Unexploded Ordinance (UXO) (United Nations Development Programme, 2013). Laos is the most heavily bombed country per capita in the world. Over 2 million tons of bombs were dropped on Laos during the Indochina War between 1964 and 1973. Approximately 30 percent of the bombs were unexploded and can be found underground throughout many provinces (Lao National Unexploded Ordinance Programme, 2012). Unexploded Ordinance (UXO) is defined as explosive ordnance that has been primed, fused, armed, or otherwise prepared for use and used in an armed conflict. It may have been fired, dropped, launched or projected and should have exploded, but failed to do so (Boddington &

Chanthavongsa, 2010). 14 out of 17 provinces in Laos are suffering from UXO contamination. Civilians are killed and injured while conducting their daily activities. For instance, in 2011 alone, there were 99 new casualties, 40 percent of these casualties were children because the UXO can be found within villages, schools, hospital, uplands, rice paddies, gardens and mountains. As a result, Lao people suffer severely from the inability to increase agricultural production and expand farmlands, which are considered to be key developing strategies for least developed countries. This directly affects food security and sustainable livelihoods. The UXO contamination issue is an obstacle for socioeconomic development as well as threatening the health and safety of Lao people (United Nations Development Programme, 2013).

INGOs are actively engaging with the donor agencies to promote social development and empowerment of people needs. There are 14 United Nations resident agencies that implement projects in Laos (United Nations in Lao PDR, 2013). For example, the United Nations Development Programme in Lao PDR (UNDP in Lao PDR) has provided assistance in economic development and poverty eradication in Laos for two decades. According to the annual report of UNDP Laos in 2012, this project alone delivered assistance programs to achieve the MDG of approximately 15 million US dollars. This funding is from international donors (United Nations Development Programme, 2013).

In total, there are approximately 240 INGOs and 570 projects operating in Laos. NPOs are divided into 10 main sectors: (1) agriculture, forestry & fisheries, (2) community development, (3) data collection & analysis, (4) education, (5) emergency and humanitarian relief, (6) health care, (7) human resource development, (8) income generation & economic development, (9) natural resources & ecology, and (10) social development (Directory of Non-Government Organizations, 2013).

On a local level, the Lao government took a step forward in creating a legal mandate with the first draft of a decree on nonprofit associations in 2006. Finally, this decree was approved and became effective in 2009 (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2009). Prior to the approval of the decree, there were no clear regulations and guidelines for local nonprofit organisations. Therefore, civil society organisations were limited in their

attempts to access funds and to contribute to the development process. With the support of the Concern Worldwide Organisation, the International Center for Not-For-Profit Law worked closely with the civil service authority in order to provide support for development and to implement this decree (The International Center for Not-for-Profit Law, 2009). Although the INGOs contribute much to socioeconomic development in Laos on a macro level, local nonprofit organisations normally understand the local culture and therefore can address the needs of their community on a micro level.

There is no concrete data and information about how much these INGOs contribute to social and economic development in Laos, but the importance of this sector is indicated by looking at the poverty decline rate from 46 percent in 1992 to 27.6 percent today (United Nations Development Programme, 2013).

1.2 Problem discussion

Laos relies heavily on foreign aid and donor-funded programs which account for 8.5 percent of GDP (Global Edge, 2012). At the international level, the charitable sector has been facing many challenges. First, NPOs need to seek private donations because governments have reduced funding to this sector. Second, the number of NPOs is increasing rapidly which results in high competition for funding and volunteers. Third, donors tend to be fickle due to increasing competition for donations (A Sargeant, Hudson, & West, 2008; Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005).

Venable et al. (2005) mention that NPOs are often perceived in an abstract manner due to the fact that the organisations provide intangible products and social ideals. Therefore, a sense of trust, especially organisations' transparency, is very important for this sector. Recently, public trust in NPOs has gradually declined because of financial scandals in NPOs such as inflated salaries paid to trustees, lack of transparency and involvement in tax havens. This directly affects the fundraising and publicity of NPOs (Behn, DeVries, & Lin, 2010). Sargeant et al. (2008) also raises the interesting point that NPOs have long recognised the importance of maintaining consistent policies and actions to make sure that a coherent personality is perceived by the stakeholders. These practices are seen as the essence of the branding concept. For example, UNICEF has participated in many activities related to branding in order

to maintain a well-defined image. Many NPOs have been implementing marketing strategies as aggressively as big businesses.

However, the difficulty in building a brand today is that many brands have similar functional characteristics. Therefore, functional attribution alone is not enough to distinguish many existing brands in a highly competitive market (Seimiene, 2012). Venable et al. (2005) state that NPOs have a difficulty in making their brands distinctive due to their heavy reliance on brand equity. They define brand equity as the inherent value of a name, symbol and products/services design. Voeth and Herbst (2008) emphasised that NPOs that depend on brand equity, fail to identify the unique characteristics of their brands or brand personality, which is a key determinant for stakeholders to select which NPO is worthy of support.

Bolland and Fletcher (2012) define a problem in general as a difference between an actual and an expected state or a desired state. For a research problem Mukul and Deepa (2011) define this term as some theoretical or practical difficulties that researchers experience and for which they would like to offer solutions. Charity brand personality is still in the developing stage. To date, only Venable et al. (2005) have conducted empirical research on brand personality models in the nonprofit sector. Venable et al. have found some similarities and differences between brand personality in the charity and profit sector (A Sargeant, Ford, & Hudson, 2008). Furthermore, in the models of nonprofit brand personality that have been studied in German, Spanish, French and Japanese contexts, the dimensions and corresponding items vary from country to country. Many researchers argue that nonprofit brand personality that was developed by Venable et al. in the US, cannot be generalised in an intercultural context (Voeth & Herbst, 2008). Thus, the model of Venable et al. may not be applicable to Laos. Furthermore, studying brand personality in different cultures is proposed by Aaker (1997).

1.3 Aims and objectives

Aims

Consequent to the above discussion, the purpose of this research is to study the concept of charity brand personality in Laos by collecting and analysing relevant

primary and secondary data. Therefore, the aim of this research is to identify charity brand personality as perceived by donors in Laos. This research will also develop a conceptual model of charity brand personality in the context of Laos.

Objectives

In addition to the achievement of the above aims of this research, this research endeavours to achieve the following objectives. They are:

- To determine the perceptions of donors of charity brand personality
- To determine the charity brand personality dimensions in the Laos context
- To evaluate the goodness-of-fit of the hypothesised model to the data from the Laos sample in order to provide support for the brand personality in charitable organisations in Laos.
- To analyse and test research hypotheses
- To develop a charity brand personality model in Laos
- To discuss charity brand personality in a cross-cultural context

1.4 Research statement

The charity brand personality is a key strategy to differentiate NPOs in the same category. Branding is about emotional attachment rather than just products or service attributes. For example, when any NPO has unique characteristics that are congruent with the potential stakeholders' values, they seem to pay more attention and maintain a long-term relationship with that organisation. However, many researchers suggest that charity brand personality models that were developed in other countries cannot be applied across cultures. Thus, the research question to be explored in this thesis is:

"What are the dimensions of brand personality in charitable organisations in Laos"

To answer this research question and also to support a comprehensive conclusion to this question, there are several sub-questions that have been identified. These sub-questions are the guidelines for the researcher to collect primary data logically.

- To what extent do charitable organisations have personalities?
- What kind of personality is perceived by donors in Laos?
- What is the charity brand personality in Laos?

1.5 Data collection

The primary objective of this research is to focus on identifying and measuring empirically the dimensions of brand personality in charitable giving in the Laos context. Mixed methods were selected as an appropriate approach for this research because qualitative and quantitative data combined give greater support to the strength of the data-collection and data-analysis techniques, and minimise the limitations of a single approach.

In the first stage, semi-structured interviews with eight staff from the Association for Autism in Laos were conducted. The data from the semi-structured interviews also made it possible to develop and identify potential variables that need to be measured in the questionnaire applied in the second stage data collection in a Laos context. Thus, this research is not limited to the same scope of the charity brand personality of Venable et al. (2005) that was studied in the United States, but instead develops one that is tailored more specifically to the Laos context.

In the second stage, the questionnaires were conducted with 116 donors. The participants were those who have donated money or products and/or who volunteer for any charitable organisations, except donating and/or volunteering for religious purposes. There were three main sections in the questionnaire, including: donor behaviors, rating the brand personality items and demographic details. Section one aims to study donors' behaviours in donating to NPOs. Rating personality trait items in Section Two is the significant part. The data from this section were analysed to study the perception of Lao donors and develop charity brand personality model. Finally, demographic details covered gender, education, ethnicity and income.

Besides primary data collection, this research is also based on secondary data composed of brand personality theoretical literature that is one of the critical parts of this study. The literature review of this study focuses on brand personality research both in profit and nonprofit sectors and other research related to the constructs, antecedents and consequences of brand personality from various reliable sources. In addition, several brand personality models from various studies are also analysed.

1.6 Outline of thesis

This thesis comprises five chapters:

Chapter One: This chapter is an introduction to this study that provides an overall picture of this thesis. This chapter includes background, the aims and objectives of this research, problem discussion, a research statement and the data collection process.

Chapter Two: The literature review part is a critical and logical analysis of the literature related to brand personality and the transition of applying brand personality from the for-profit sector to nonprofit areas. In addition, brand personality models are also analysed.

Chapter Three: Methodology and research design approaches for this study are explained and outlined in detail in this chapter.

Chapter Four: Results of the findings from the data collection are presented in this chapter.

Chapter Five: This chapter provides an in-depth interpretation and critical analysis of the results of this research study. This chapter also includes a conclusion that provides a synthesis of this research, limitations, suggestions for further research and closing statements.

Chapter summary

Chapter One presents an overview of this study. This part also allows readers to know the structure of this thesis and what they expect to read in the next chapters. This chapter covers several topics, namely background, problem discussion, aims and objectives, research statement, data collection and outline of the thesis. The next Chapter provides an in-depth literature review of brand personality research. The literature review is a critical and logical analysis that covers various aspects related to brand personality theory and research.

Chapter Two

Literature review

2.1 History of branding and concept of Brand personality

Brand personality refers to "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997, p. 347). It is the act of applying human characteristics to a brand, which is based on the assumption that people tend to anthropomorphise objects around them. For example, people describe and animate their boat by saying "she is my beautiful boat" (Parker, 2009). Furthermore, the personification of brands has become a successful marketing strategy since celebrities started to endorse brands. The celebrities' personalities influence consumers to identify themselves with the superstars. Furthermore, a lot of research mentions that consumers have no difficulty describing personalities of a brand as if it was a person in both qualitative and quantitative research (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003).

The concept of personifying lifeless objects is not new. Voeth and Herbst (2008) mention that Gilmore discussed the theory of animism at the beginning of the last century. Brands presented as having human personalities have been being developed since then. In 1957, Martineau first introduced the term 'brand personality' as the non-material characteristics of a store that makes it special (Seimiene, 2012). At the beginning of the research on brand personality, most research has applied a qualitative approach rather than a quantitative approach. The participants are frequently asked metaphorical questions; for example, if a brand was a person, what kind of personalities would he or she have? Therefore, most of the research did not provide any generic measurement of brand personality (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003). Until the 1990s, some researchers identified the way to measure brand personality in various contexts. For example, Voeth and Herbst mention that Batra et al. (1993) used Anderson's (1968) human personality traits to create seven factors and 35 items to measure the image of retail brands. Later, Aaker (1997) developed the five dimensions of brand personality scale that will be explained in the next section.

2.2 Brand personality constructs

Brand personality has become prominent with Aaker's (1997) seminal article (Avis, 2012; Seimiene, 2012). This researcher developed a conceptual framework of brand personality construct and scales by following the steps of Norman (1963), who examined the "Big Five" or Five-Factor model. She used the personality trait approach to study the perceived human characteristics of brands. The first stage was trait generation. This was a set of 309 traits that came from three sources: personality scales from psychology, in particular the "Big Five" traits, personality scales used by marketers, and qualitative research. Next, this set of traits was reduced to a more manageable number of 114 (Aaker, 1997). To guarantee a universal solution, Aaker conducted her research within 37 various brands in different industries, and the final scale was re-tested on a large sample of American consumers. The end result of this study was the five dimensions of brand personality model that comprises 42 trait items and five dimensions, namely sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. Each dimension consists of different personality facets (Aaker, 1997; Freling & Forbes, 2005; Venable et al., 2005).

Table 1: The five dimensions of brand personality scale by Aaker (1997)

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

Note. From "Dimensions of Brand Personality" by Aaker (1997), Journal of Marketing Research, 14(1), p. 352.

2.3 Brand personality versus human personality

Today's human personality theories are grounded in the research of Allport (1927) and Cattell (1949). Allport used a lexical approach to study human personality traits. He found nearly 18,000 terms from the English dictionary to describe human behaviour. It was a massive number of personality traits that could keep psychologists at work for a lifetime (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Allport focused on the uniqueness of each personality trait which makes it difficult to structure personality in general. However, his research became a foundation for modern research on personality traits (Bernstein & Nash, 2008). Cattell introduced factor analysis that studies what traits are correlated with one another. He found sixteen categories of traits that he believed make up the basis of personality dimensions (Bernstein & Nash, 2008; John et al., 2008). In 1963, Norman identified a five factor structure that is called the Big Five (John et al., 2008).

The "Big Five" or The Five-Factor Model (FFM) of these two terms can be distinguished from the research approaches (Srivastava, 2014). The "Big Five" used a lexical approach that is associated with studies of personality traits that used natural language to study human personality traits, while the term "Five-Factor Model" has been more commonly associated with studies of traits using personality questionnaires (John et al., 2008). The Big Five or the Five-Factor Model has been given slightly different labels by different researchers, but the most common use is the Big Five factors that consist of five dimensions, namely 'Extraversion', 'Agreeableness', 'Conscientiousness', 'Neuroticism', and 'Openness to Experience' (McCrae & John, 1992). The Big Five factors were applied to many countries and different cultures, including Korea, Japan, China, India, the Philippines, Poland, Canada, Germany, Greece, Finland and the Czech Republic. Therefore, these factors represent the most significant elements of human personality (Bernstein & Nash, 2008).

Table 2: The Big Five Human Personality Dimensions

Dimension	Defining Descriptors
Extraversion	Active, assertive, energetic, outgoing, talkative, gesturally expressive, gregarious
Agreeableness	Appreciative, forgiving, generous, kind, trusting, noncritical, warm, compassionate, considerate, straightforward
Conscientiousness	Efficient, organised, planful, reliable, thorough, dependable, ethical, productive
Neuroticism	Anxious, self-pitying, tense, emotionally unstable, impulsive, vulnerable, touchy, worrying
Openness to Experience	Artistic, curious, imaginative, insightful, original, wide interests, unusual thought processes, intellectual interests

Note. From "Psychology: Concepts and Applications" by Nevid, 2008, Cengage Learning,

Aaker (1997) explains about her brand personality model that in the five dimensions brand personality scale, there are three dimensions that relate to three of the "Big Five". First, 'Agreeableness' from human personality and 'Sincerity' from brand personality share a common idea of warmth and acceptance. Second, 'Extroversion' and 'Excitement' are both related to sociability, energy and activity. Third, 'Conscientiousness' and 'Competence' refer to responsibility, dependability and security. Aaker explains that two brand personality dimensions, 'Sophistication' and 'Ruggedness', are different from any of the "Big Five" dimensions, due to the fact that the function of brand personality is to influence consumers' preference for commercial reasons. She emphasises that 'Sophistication' and 'Ruggedness' are the dimensions that individuals wish to have but it is not necessary. For example, 'Sophistication' can be created by advertising to stimulate the customers' desire for upper class status and glamour. Similarly, as Ruggedness brands, are designed to

encourage consumers to fantasise about American ideals of Western toughness and masculinity.

Although Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale shares the same conceptual framework as the "Big Five", brand personality (BP) and Human Personality (HP) are different in terms of how they are formed. This researcher argues that human personality traits are formed on the basis of an individual's physical characteristics, behaviour, beliefs and demographic characteristics, while brand personality is formed by direct and indirect contact that the consumers have with the brand. For example, the consumers are influenced directly via brand's user imagery or brand product endorsers. In addition, personality is also associated with a brand in an indirect way through advertising style, brand name and product attributes.

2.4 Critiques of Aaker (1997) brand personality model

Aaker's (1997) five dimensions of brand personality have been criticised from several perspectives. Malik, Naeem and Munawar (2012) outline several concerns about the limitation of Aaker's brand personality model. First, the trait items for each dimension are entirely based on transposition of human personality theory, in other words, applying a crude measurement tool from the "Big Five" theory. These researchers cited the work of Caprara, Barbaranelli and Guido (2001) to explain that from the study of brand personality in the Italian context, human personality scale cannot be transposed directly to brands. Some brand personality studies apply qualitative studies that are based on the brands themselves instead of transposing human personality traits. Second, because of the limitation of the meanings of words, especially the 'Competence' dimension should be omitted because this word is associated with cognitive abilities and intelligence (Malik, Naeem, & Munawar, 2012). Similarly, Avis (2012) also raises the issue that a different set of adjectives may have a very different meaning when measuring between self-image and measuring product-image. In addition, the research on the five dimensions model was conducted solely in the US. Therefore, this model may not be able to be scaled generally and applied at a macro level. Different culture and different factors have been found. Culture-specific brand personality traits are more or less constant across cultures. For example, the study of brand personality dimension in Japan found the 'Passion' dimension replaced the 'Ruggedness' dimension. In Spain the brand

personality dimension, ‘Passion’ replaces ‘Competence’ and ‘Ruggedness’ dimensions (Thomas & Sekar, 2008).

Despite these issues raises in previous studies, Aaker’s brand personality five dimensions scale has been widely accepted as a reliable and valid construct to perceive human characteristics of the brands. Furthermore, the research on brand personality five dimensions scale has been replicated and adapted in several research contexts (Voeth & Herbst, 2008). Aaker (1997) mentions that the framework and scale developed in this research can be applied to gain theoretical and practical implications that could extend the study of the antecedents and consequences of brand personality.

2.5 Antecedents and consequences of brand personality

2.5.1 Antecedents

Aaker (1997) explains that the antecedents of brand personality comprise various marketing variables; for example, demographic characteristics, user imagery and advertising. She explains that gender, age and class are undeniably associated with brand personality because most people usually use brands for symbolic meaning such as using a brand to express themselves as men or women as well as people of a certain age and class. The research of Eisend and Stokburger-Sauer (2013) on brand personality antecedents and consequences reveals that education and age have a positive relationship to ‘Sophistication’ and ‘Ruggedness’ dimensions. Similarly, user imagery refers to the set of characteristics associated with the stereotypical user of the brand, which could be a fundamental concept of a brand personality (Balaji & Raghavan, 2009; Eisend & Stokburger-Sauer, 2013). For example, using recent Apple products is considered to be young and hip, while using IBM products is considered as older (Aaker, 1997). Balaji and Raghavan (2009) mention that advertising is a significant tool and heavily used to communicate a product’s meaning to the target consumers and create brand personality because the advertisement forms imagery and symbols of particular advertised products and its brand personality. At the same time, the consumers are more likely to be susceptible and receptive to advertising messages that are congruent with their personalities.

2.5.2 Consequences

In terms of consequences, Aaker (1997) believes that brand personality contributes three main roles. First, brand personality enables consumers to express their actual selves and ideal selves. Second, it helps to differentiate the brands in a product category. Third, brand personality increases a consumer's preference and usage.

Brand personality enables consumers to express their actual self and ideal self

Malar, Krohmer, Hoyer and Nyffenegger (2007) state that emotional brand attachment is one of the key branding strategies in today's business. The idea of matching the brand's personality with the consumer's actual self and ideal self (self-congruence) has emerged to urge the consumers to feel emotionally engaged. The actual selves refer to how people see themselves (Belk, 1988) and ideal selves mean how people would like to see themselves (N. K Malhotra, 1981). Brand personality and consumers are the main foundation of the self-congruity relationship (Aguirre-Rodriguez, Bosnjak, & Sirgy, 2012). For instance, Unilever's Dove products have used the concept of matching consumers' actual self and brand personality to hit a nerve with many consumers by using models who are more average in appearance, presumably corresponding more closely to the majority of consumers. Therefore, the consumers who are looking for reality and authenticity have a strong emotional connection with the brand. On the other hand, many companies focus on creating an idealised beauty "ideal self" to inspire their target consumers. It can be concluded that both strategies could be effective depending on the situation (Malar, Krohmer, Hoyer, & Nyffenegger, 2011).

Sargeant, Hudson and West (2008) explain that the product attributes serve a predominantly utilitarian function, while brand personality serves a predominantly self-expressive or symbolic function. Therefore, brand personality allows the consumers to reflect and express individuality through their consumption choices. Similarly, Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) state that symbolic function or research on symbolic brand benefits has often been studied via two constructs. Self-congruity and brand personality are used in the literature. They cited the work of: (1) self-congruity research by Dolich in 1969 and Sirgy in 1982 and (2) brand personality by Plummer in 1985 and Aaker in 1997. Self-congruity refers to the degree of match between self-concept and the personality of a typical user of a brand (Helgeson &

Supphellen, 2004). Research by Aguirre-Rodriguez, Bosnjak and Siry (2012) affirms that there is a strong relationship between the concept of brand as a person and consumers, which form the fundamental concept of self-congruity. Parker (2009) is of the opinion that the consumers choose a brand with a particular image when they want to be perceived as the type of person they are but want to enhance their own self-image. As a result, brand personality helps to differentiate brands in the same category and also helps the consumers to express their actual selves or ideal selves which is related to the increase in brand preference and usage (Parker, 2009).

However, Seimiene (2012) argues that the majority of published articles in the marketing and consumer behaviour fields ground the idea that consumers choose the brand personality similar to their own personality, while scientific literature reviews argued that not all types of consumers choose the brand similar to their personalities. The author uses theoretical models of emotional connection between brand and consumer personalities to test the hypothesis. Personality could be described as main traits and important values, while other traits are complementary and present only in some situations. The model reveals that the consumer will choose the brand if main traits of both brand and consumer personalities are similar, and will reject the brand if main traits are different.

Brand personality helps to differentiate the brands in a product category and increase consumer preference and usage.

According to the research of Freling and Forbes (2005) on the empirical analysis of the brand personality effect on different performance outcomes, an interesting point is that brand personality is an integral strategy to differentiate brands in the same category. These researchers explain that products have intrinsic and extrinsic cues that affect perceptual processing. Intrinsic cues include physical components of products, while extrinsic cues are product-related but not part of the physical product itself. For example, intrinsic cues of soft drinks would provide product attribution such as flavour, colour, texture and degree of sweetness, while extrinsic cues are about a brand name that can be referred to the quality of the soft drink. Therefore, when intrinsic cues are very similar for competing brands, brand personality may provide a basis of differentiation.

Brands that reflect a certain lifestyle of the consumers have become a successful

branding strategy for many companies such as Levi's, Nike and Abercrombie & Fitch. In contrast, not all companies could satisfy whatever brand lifestyle they want. Therefore, branding depends on the personality of the company as well. If the company has a mature and conservative personality, it is hard to target a young and sporty lifestyle (Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011). Wang and Yang (2008) explain that brand personality serves symbolic values rather than utilitarian functions. When consumers think about a particular brand, human characteristics would come to mind and provide the basis for brand differentiation and personal preference. For example, Coca-Cola is cool and Pepsi is young. Brand personality is associated with consumers' memory that may stimulate the need or preference for a particular brand (Freling & Forbes, 2005).

2.6 Causal relationship between brand personality and other brand theories

Hampf & Lindberg-Repo (2011) state that brand personality has two main causal relationships to brand equity and brand identity:

2.6.1 Causal relationship between brand personality and brand equity

Brand equity refers to the inherent worth that is achieved by well-recognised brands through the consumer's perception of the brand's superiority (Okonkwo, 2007). Brand equity is a new concept of branding in the twenty-first century. This concept was developed by American PR businesses in order to keep companies continuously investing in branding. As a result, the idea of measuring the value of a brand occurred in order to pursue the long-term benefits of branding investment (Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011). In the 1980s, thousands of companies around the world had their brands evaluated by specialised consultants to assess their brands' value. Brand evaluation is largely based on three aspects: (1) the financial perspective, (2) the consumer-based perspective, and (3) the combined perspective (Budac & Baltador, 2013; Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011).

From a financial perspective, brand equity can generate substantial amounts of free cash flow. It allows firms to extract the financial brand value from the total value of

the company (Dunn, 2004; Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011). New accounting standards include all identifiable intangible assets of businesses to be recorded at their fair value (Salinas, 2011). For example, in 2004, Comcast paid Disney $24 billion for tangible assets and $30 billion for Mickey Mouse (Brand value). It shows that Disney's brand equity accounted for more than 55% of its assets (Dunn, 2004). Hampf and Lindberg-Repo (2011) cite the work of Simon and Sullivan (1993) because they were among the first authors who introduced a mathematical calculation of brand equity. The financial market value of a company was used as a basis for evaluating brand equity and by calculating the 'Tobin's Q'. If the results show a Q-value above 1, the company had non-material assets. This approach can be used to distinguish between the company's intangible assets (brand value) and tangible assets (value of the hard assets).

However, the consumer-based perspective is another approach to brand equity evaluation. This approach measures the responses of every single consumer to evaluate if a consumer considers a brand as well-known by means of positive, strong and unique brand associations (Hampf & Lindberg-Repo, 2011). The consumer-based brand equity is a set of assets related to a brand name and symbol, which adds to the value provided by a product or service to the consumers. There are four core primary facets to predict consumers' brand purchasing intent and behaviour: (1) perceived quality (PQ), (2) perceived value for the cost (PVC), (3) uniqueness and (4) willingness to pay a price premium for a given brand (Netemeyer et al., 2004).

Measuring brand equity is quite a complex process and includes numerous variables. Hampf and Lindberg-Repo (2011) mention that brand equity consists of several influencing variables and one of these variables is brand personality, which is related to the concept of brand uniqueness. Uniqueness is the degree of differentiation from competing brands. If the brand is not unique, it is hard to differentiate the brands in the same category and the companies may not be able to set a premium price. Freling and Frobes (2005) argue that a strong and positive brand personality results in enhancing brand equity in terms of having a unique, congruent, strong and favourable brand in the market. Therefore, it can be concluded that brand personality is one of the significant casual relationship variables with brand equity.

2.6.2 Causal relationship between brand personality and brand identity

Brand identity is defined as managers' decisions to reflect the concept of what the brand is all about (Kazmi, 2007). Hampf and Lindberg-Repo (2011) claim that De Chernatory first creates an identity model that is based on vision and culture conceptual framework. This researcher believes that the vision and cultures of the employees affect the process of a brand building of a company. Companies need to develop their brands from the inside such as developing attitudes and behaviour of the employees to achieve the desired image and personality of the companies.

Okonkwo (2007) explains that brand identity comprises two main elements, namely brand image and brand personality. Brand image and brand identity are often used interchangeably. Brand image is a perception from an external observer while brand identity is the internal perception of the brand (Naresh, 2012). Hampf and Lindberg-Repo (2011) mention that brand identity and brand personality have a strong relationship because the perception of personality directly affects brand identity. The particular brand personality traits and characteristics are selected to become a unique brand and how the brand views itself and how the brand wants to be viewed by others (Okonkwo, 2007).

2.7 Brand personality in charitable giving context

2.7.1 Branding in charity

After pressure from governments to cut some funding and an increase in the number of nonprofit organisations, NPOs now need to finance their operations with help from private donations and service fees (Voeth & Herbst, 2008). According to the research of The United Nations Handbook on Nonprofit Institutions in the System of National Accounts in 2003 that was conducted in 16 countries around the world, NPOs have three major sources of income, namely 23 percent from donations, 33 percent from government and 44 percent from service fees (Salamon et al., 2013). Although branding has long been successfully implemented in the commercial sector, branding strategies for charitable organisations have been discussed just since the mid 1990s. In addition, some nonprofit managers perceive that branding is for commercial activities only (A Sargeant, Ford, et al., 2008). Other researchers and practitioners have raised

concerns that the adoption of marketing strategies for the non profit sector, has contributed to over-commercialised. Stride (2006) however argues that branding is an appropriate and effective tool to deliver clear messages about how charitable organisations' values are conceptualised. In fact strong brands are also equally important.

Sargeant and Ford (2007) outline four reasons why branding for NPOs is important:

- Brands enhance learning: Fundraising is much easier when NPOs consistently use brands to raise awareness of their organisations because potential donors already understand the purpose of the organisations.
- Brands reduce risk: As most individual donors are incapable to investigate whether their money was actually used effectively, developing a brand identity that is associated with a commitment to deliver high quality goods and services is an essential for NPOs because donations rely heavily on donors' perceptions and trust.
- Brands provide insurance: Strong brands provide reputation insurance to NPOs when unexpected circumstances occur.
- Brands build loyalty: Donors bond themselves to NPOs' values, whether they actually hold or aspire to adopt these values. Having personality congruence to NPOs' values enables donors to express their identity. So nonprofit brands can be a powerful aid to building donor loyalty.

Brand personality research in the nonprofit sector is at an early stage of development. Despite the fact that NPOs primarily provide relatively intangible services for social benefit (unlike profit organisations), many researchers have found that consumers also perceive NPOs with personality or human characteristics similar to profit organisations. In the research of Sargeant et al. (2008) most participants believed that the NPOs were imbued with a distinctive set of characteristics such as caring and compassion. According to the research of Venable et al. (2005) on brand personality in charitable giving contexts, they also found that the potential donors could easily describe and identify human personality traits of NPOs in both qualitative and quantitative research. Sargeant & Ford (2007) outline a framework for building nonprofit brands which consist of various elements. First, identifying the organisation's vision, mission and unique

selling proposition is a fundamental framework for nonprofit brands because it is rooted much deeper than logos, theme colors and advertising campaigns. Second, the organisation's values, performances and principles are the significant elements that make an organisation different from others. Third, if the organisation wants to bring their brand to life, it requires creating a unique brand personality that reflects the vision, mission, unique selling proposition, values, actions and principles of the organisations. Fourth, the organisation needs to consistently communicate the design brand to all stakeholders over an extended period of time to let them absorb information, messages and the particular image of the organisation.

2.7.2 Brand personality and giving intention

Most NPOs exist and operate from similar traits such as being caring, supportive and sympathetic personalities. In general, such types of trait are seen to be the core characteristics of NPOs' identities. Thus, it is difficult to distinguish one NPO from other organisations in the same category. According to the research of Sargeant & Ford (2007), if NPOs lack a unique brand personality, it is not enough to get donors' attention. Organisations that create distinctive brand personalities are able to get more awareness among the public, raise more money, and be more effective. For example, the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) launched the "Full Stop" campaign in 1999. The organisation decided to rebrand itself, but the central mission of ending child cruelty is still its core value. This campaign represents its distinctive brand personality with the traits of authority, warmth, passion and confidence. The 'Full Stop' campaign has become a leading project in the United Kingdom. In 2006, NSPCC achieved more than $400 million worth of programs aimed at protecting children from abuse.

Hou, Du and Tian (2009) argue that there is a strong relationship between individual donors' self-concept and their giving intention because self-concept is strongly based on consumer mentality and behaviour. Donors always increase their giving intentions towards charitable organisations with a brand personality that is more congruent with their own self-concept (Hou, Du, & Tian, 2009).

2.7.3 Transferring brand personality to nonprofit sector Charity brand personality by Venable et al. (2005)

It is questionable whether an Aaker's framework is appropriate to measure brand personality in the charitable sector because her original methodology focused on profit organisations only (A Sargeant, Ford, et al., 2008). Besides, Aaker's brand personality scale is questioned when applied to other cultures (Seimiene, 2012). The first study of brand personality dimensions for the nonprofit sector was conducted by Venable, Rose, Bush and Gilbert (2005) in the United States. They are based on Aaker's brand personality dimensions to develop a brand personality in the charitable giving context. They have applied Aaker's original five dimensions brand personality that includes 42 items of traits combined with 12 newly developed traits from qualitative research that were based on the nature of NPOs such as social exchange and trust as a conceptual foundation.

According to Blau (1964) social exchange means "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others." (p. 91). Social exchange theory is mostly applied to NPOs because NPOs do not operate for private gain. They depend on donations from a variety of sources such as government, private donations and service fees. The act of donating is about social exchange rather than being economic in nature (Blau, 1964). Venable et al. (2005) explain that the perception of donating is in the range of personal satisfaction and self worth to humanitarianism. These researchers point out an interesting concept that social exchange and relationship-marketing theory has the same theoretical foundation for developing trust. In terms of marketing, trust is an integral factor to influence the donor's decision making because of the intangibility of NPO services.

Venable et al. (2005) conducted six studies with a multi-method design. The first three studies used a discovery approach and consisted of three qualitative methods: nominal groups, focus groups and in-depth interviews of current donors and nonprofit professionals. The fourth and the fifth studies were quantitative surveys among current donors to measure brand personality and determine its dimensions among nonprofit organisations. Finally, the sixth study was focused on potential donors to assess the predictive validity of the measure by examining the effect of nonprofit

brand personality on intent to donate. The results of this exploratory research reveal that some of Aaker's brand personality dimensions exist, namely sophistication and ruggedness, but two new dimensions emerged: integrity and nurturance. In conclusion, the brand personality scale that was developed by Venable et al. in nonprofit organisations comprises four dimensions and 15 trait items.

Compared with Aaker's (1997) brand personality model, 'Sophistication' and 'Ruggedness' dimensions are maintained in the research of Venable et al. (2005). These two dimensions present the same meaning in both models. They represent the brand image of wealth and status rather than the aspect of human characteristics (Aaker, Benet-Martinez, & Garolera, 2001). In addition, these two dimensions have slightly the same personality facets in both models. The facets of 'Sophistication' are 'good looking', 'glamorous' and 'upper class'. Similarly, the facets of 'tough', 'masculine', 'outdoor' and 'western' describe 'Ruggedness'.

'Sincerity', 'Excitement' and 'Competence' are replaced by 'Integrity' and 'Nurturance'. 'Sincerity', 'Excitement' and 'Competence' tend to be the prominent features for the commercial sector rather than nonprofit sector. 'Integrity' exhibits the sense of reliability and reputation of NPOs among stakeholders. In particular, the facets of 'Integrity' include 'honest', 'positive influence', 'committed to the public good', 'reputable' and 'reliable'. These facets are considered to be the essential factors to measure brand personality in NPOs. Although 'Sincerity' in Aaker's (1997) model focuses on 'down-to-earth', 'wholesome' and 'cheerful', 'Integrity' and 'Sincerity' dimensions share the same value of 'honesty'. For the 'Nurturance' dimension from the model of Venable et al. (2005), this is a more specific characteristic of the nonprofit sector because the facets of this dimension describe 'compassionate', 'caring' and 'loving' which is different from commercial brand personality. These two dimensions stimulate the sense of trust and emotional attachment from the NPOs' stakeholders (Venable et al., 2005).

Table 3: Brand personality dimensions in nonprofit organisations by Venable et al. (2005)

Integrity	Ruggedness	Sophistication	Nurturance
-Honest -Positive influence -Committed to the public good -Reputable -Reliable	-Tough -Masculine -Outdoor -Western	-Good-looking -Glamorous -Upper class	-Compassionate -Caring -Loving

Note. From "The Role of Brand Personality in Charitable Giving: An Assessment and Validation", by Venable, B. T., Rose, G. M., Bush, V. D., & Gilbert, F. W., 2005, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, p. 306.

Charity brand personality by Voeth and Herbst (2008)

Another important study was carried out by Voeth and Herbst (2008), who developed the brand personality for NPOs in Germany. They conducted mixed methods research to explore brand personality across cultures. Using qualitative methods, in-depth interviews with marketing experts from eight of the largest German NPOs were first conducted. The interviewees were asked to indicate the degree of competition that their organisations were facing. Then, the participants were asked to describe the characteristics that they regarded as most suitable to describe their type of organisations. The results of the interviews revealed 50 new items that are suitable for NPOs.

Using a quantitative approach, Voeth and Herbst (2008) conducted two stages in the survey. First, there was a pilot study among faculty, staff and student donors in order to reduce the qualitatively generated item pool to the relevant items. 50 survey participants were personally asked to evaluate four nonprofit brands each according to the remaining 50 items. Second, to increase the reliability of the results, these researchers conducted a comparison between nonprofit personality profiles with international profit brands, Coke and BMW. Each respondent was asked to rate how

descriptive the brand personality characteristics were for two NPOs and one commercial brand. There were 42 items from Aaker's scale and the additional 25 items found to be relevant during the preliminary study. The questionnaires were conducted online in three German universities. The sampling frame of 249 included students, faculty staff and anonymous self-selected Internet users.

Voeth and Herbst (2008) identified three dimensions: 'Social competence and Trust', 'Emotion and Assertiveness' and 'Sophistication'. The brand personality models of Venable et al. (2005) and Voeth and Herbst (2008) share similar dimensions of trust and sophistication. There is a resemblance between 'Integrity' (the model of Venable et al.) and 'Social competence and Trust' (the model of Voeth & Herbst). Both dimensions measure honesty and reliability of NPOs. In terms of 'Sophistication' in this model, it covers all of the items that appear in the model of Aaker and Venable et al. such as: 'good looking', 'glamorous', and 'upper class'. On the other hand, 'tough' and 'outdoorsy' of 'Ruggedness' belong to the dimensions of 'Emotion and Assertiveness'.

Table 4: Brand personality dimensions for nonprofit organisations in Germany by Voeth and Herbst (2008)

"Social Competence and Trust"	"Emotion and Assertiveness"	"Sophistication"
- **Humane** - Non-commercial - Just - Social - Sympathetic - Solidary - Fair - Fostering - Trustworthy - Honest - Sincere - Responsible - Authentic - Real non-party/ neutral - Peaceful - **Secure** - Careful - Reliable - Effective - Experienced - Professional - Friendly	- **Spirited** - Excited - Imaginative - Outdoorsy - Adventurous - Daring - Young - Unique - **Persevering** - Tough - Courageous - Critical - International	- Charming - Cheerful - Good looking - Glamorous - Trendy - Upper class

Note. From "The Concept of Brand Personality as an Instrument for Advanced Non-Profit Branding-An Empirical Analysis", by Voeth and Herbst, 2008, Journal of Nonprofil & Public Sector Marketing, p. 91.

2.7.4 Brand personality models comparison

Three brand personality models are presented in this literature review. The first model was developed by Aaker (1997). Her work is considered to be the fundamental foundation of brand personality for many researchers and practitioners. Her brand personality model has been of interest for many researchers in different fields of studies for both profit and nonprofit organisations. This model consists of five

dimensions (‘Sincerity’, ‘Excitement’, ‘Sophistication’, ‘Competence’ and ‘Ruggedness’) and 42 trait items. When applying brand personality to the charitable sector, some researchers suggest that it is necessary to adapt the concept of brand personality from consumer goods to consumer charities. This is due to the fact that the structure of brand personality in charity is different from the structure of consumer brands; for example, the key attributes of charity are for its social value (Venable et al., 2005; Sargeant et al., 2008; Voeth & Herbst, 2008). In addition, this model was conducted with commercial brands only. Because this model was developed in 1997, the dimensions and trait items might be out of date. Furthermore, the fast growth in technology and highly competitive environment in today’s marketing can be another factor of changing consumer behaviour (Parsons & Maclaran, 2009).

The brand personality model that was developed by Voeth and Herbst (2008) in Germany has three dimensions (‘Social competence and Trust’, ‘Emotion and Assertiveness’ and ‘Sophistication’) and 41 trait items. This model was developed specifically in the context of NPOs. However, the authors did not clarify the presence of the three dimensions as well as the trait items specifically. Furthermore, they combined two factors in the same dimension, which is difficult to measure for which factor and in what specific aspects.

The brand personality model from Venable et al. (2005) includes four dimensions (‘Integrity’, ‘Sophistication’, ‘Ruggedness’ and ‘Nurturance’) and 15 trait items. This model was developed in the United States nonprofit context. Overall, this model has clear dimensions that will describe the personality of the nonprofit sector. For example, ‘Integrity’ represents the sense of trust among stakeholders, while ‘Nurturance’ represents the sense of compassion, loving and caring for society. These two dimensions demonstrate the differences between commercial and charity brand personality. Furthermore, ‘Sophistication’ and ‘Ruggedness’ are the same dimensions in Aaker’s model which focused on NPOs’ image. Image is salient for the charity sector because when people spend money at a supermarket, they have the goods that measure how well they spend their money. In contrast, when people donate money to charity, what measures how well the donors spend is the reputation and image of the charities because of the absence of tangible products received by donors. Therefore, the intangibles of image, personality and reputation have a much greater importance

(Saxton, 2012). Besides, each dimension has different facets or trait items for measuring brand personality in detail.

Based on these evaluations, this research will apply Venable et al.'s (2005) model to the brand personality dimensions in the nonprofit organisations to study charity brand personality in a Laos context. The brand personality model from Venable et al. was developed specifically for the nonprofit sector. Saxton (2012) raises the interesting issue of why the nonprofit sector should apply a more coherent and individual model because the core values of NPOs are the desire to change the world such as to cure cancers, eliminate poverty and protect animals. The personality of NPOs is far deeper than profit brands. Commercial strategies to achieve powerful brands are expensive and unnecessary. Therefore, the charity brand personality model from Venable et al. (2008) is considered to be more appropriate than the other two models.

There is a limitation in the literature about nonprofit brands in Laos. As a result, this study will contribute to theoretical and practical implications to develop nonprofit brands, especially in the Lao context. Although Laos depends heavily on foreign aid, both international and local NPOs still need to build their brands at a different level and target donors to finance their operations. According to the arguments of Aaker (1997) and Venable et al. (2005), brand personality could be different across cultures. Further research across cultures is encouraged. Therefore, this thesis studies and develops a brand personality scale in the Laos context by using Venable et al.'s brand personality dimensions to posit the following hypotheses:

H1: Integrity has relationships with a charity's brand personality in the Lao context

H2: Ruggedness has relationships with a charity's brand personality in the Lao context

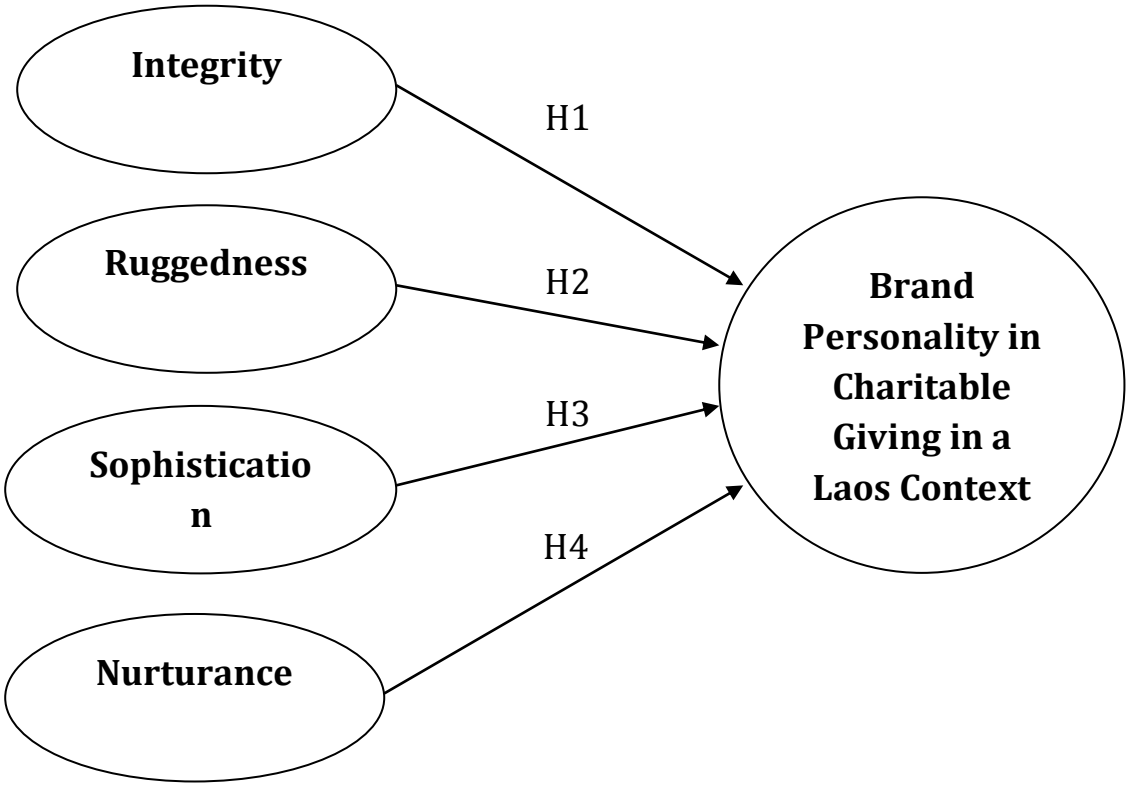
H3: Sophistication has relationships with a charity's brand personality in the Lao context

H4: Nurturance has relationships with a charity's brand personality in the Lao context

Table 5: Conceptual framework

Independent Variable (IV)		Dependent Variable (DV)
The four dimensions brand personality in a charitable context developed by Venable et al. (2005)	}	Brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context

Figure 1: The Conceptual Model for this research



Chapter Three
Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology, which refers to the systematic or scientific approach taken to describe, explain or predict phenomena. In the following sections, different research methods and approaches are discussed to determine the appropriate methods and approaches for this particular research and enable the researcher to answer research questions and sub-questions that were identified in Chapter One. This chapter covers various aspects such as social research, research paradigm, research design, sample selection, ethical issues and data analysis.

3.2 Social research

Bryan (2012) explains that social research refers to academic research in the social scientific fields such as sociology, human geography, social policy and criminology. It differs from the natural sciences such as physics, chemistry and biology because most of the social research relates to the conceptual and theoretical inspirations of human social development and change (Bryman, 2012; Henn, Weinstein, & Foard, 2009). Social research is usually conducted by academics and scholars when there are gaps in the literature on particular topics or are based on the social processes within modern social life and human relationships. Currently, social researchers are not only academics, but many of them work in various sectors such as governments, health services, nonprofit organisations and in the market fields (Williams, 2003). Williams emphasises that not all research is a key to solving problems, but rather understanding more about the social world. This in itself may help us to resolve practical problems or look for and eliminate errors. Researchers may have a different philosophy in conducting social research, which is called research paradigm. This issue will be discussed in the next section.

3.3 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm refers to a set of beliefs and practices that relate to research style. This involves the philosophy of research, which means that researchers working within each paradigm will share a specific philosophy and world-view (Denscombe, 2010). Research paradigm can be characterised through ontology (What is reality?) and epistemology (How do you know something?). Poli and Seibt (2010) briefly identified the differences between ontological and epistemological philosophical conceptualisations. Ontological concepts are object, process, event, whole, part, determination, dependency and composition; whereas epistemological concepts are belief, truth, probability, confirmation, knowledge and all its subsequent modulation.

Hammond and Wellington (2013) mention that ontology is a belief about the fundamental nature of a particular social reality. Ontology being an abstract ideology raises crucial questions relative to the reality of social processes, which is important to social science research. Therefore, questions of ontology cannot be separated from social research issues (Bryman, 2012). Epistemological ideologies in social science research are made to understand the way in which claims to knowledge are justified because such questions emphasise what to count as knowledge. McKenzie, Powell, Usher (2005) explain that epistemology can be associated with the natural science process to ground knowledge. Experiment and observation replaced tradition and the text. So that validation became a function of measurement and inter-subjective testability. Davidson and Tolich (2003) add that ontology and epistemology are significant issues in influencing methodologies for a particular piece of research when making assumptions or claims of social realities, the process of confirming these assumptions or claims and what constitute genuine knowledge.

Different authors use different terminologies to discuss research paradigms. It is difficult to underline how many paradigms because research paradigm is a broad issue. The predominant research paradigms are positivism (naive realism), interpretivism (constructivism), and post-modernism. Positivism argues that reality encompasses what is available in the sense; for example, something can be seen, smelled and touched. So that inquiry should be under scientific observation or empirical inquiry, which relates to logical and methodological principles to deal with facts rather than values (Gray, 2009). Positivists claim to be objective when

researchers and the objects are mutually independent and not influenced by the phenomena of the study (Hatch, 2002). In contrast, a major anti-positivist stance is interpretivism. The notion of interpretivism is that natural and social realities are different and mutually exclusive, which gives rise to the use of convergent research methods to effectively investigate natural and social processes. Interpretivism focuses on culturally driven and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world (Gray, 2009). Willis (2008) notes that the search for absolute truths brings more problems than benefits; arguing that research should lead to a better understanding of local contexts rather than finding laws of behavior. Another research paradigm is postmodernism which is used interchangeably with deconstructionism and post-structuralism. Postmodernism attacked positivism and the entire historical agenda of modernity because it is an opportunity for choice when it focuses on themes within advertising, lifestyles, fashion, sub-cultures and gender (Gray, 2009).

During the 1970's and 80s, the "paradigm wars" arose as a result of the mixed methods perspective. The mixed method approach in research is a combination of research methodological perspectives, which aims at reconciling both quantitative research (positivist paradigm) and qualitative research (interpretivism paradigm) perspectives (Bernard, 2011). Not all researchers agree with this combination. Hall (2012) mentions that the growth of mixed methods research during the 1970s, was accompanied by a debate on an appropriate paradigm. Some researchers argued that mixed methods are not possible due to the incompatibility of the paradigms underlying them (Hall, 2012). He proposed a realist approach as an alternative single paradigm. It supports the use of mixed methods because it does not suffer from the limitations of the pragmatism and transformative paradigms. In addition, Bryman (2012) argues for combining both qualitative and quantitative research approaches to strengthen data collections and data analyses, which could also lead to data triangulation (Bernard, 2011; Denzin, 2006; O'Donoghue & Punch, 2003). The ability of the researcher to triangulate findings from both quantitative and qualitative analyses gives mixed research methods greater strength over any single research methodology (Bernard, 2011). Based on the discussion above, this study used the mixed research approach to collect and analyse data.

3.4 Research design

Research design is a logical framework to conduct research. Each step in the research process is to assure that data collection is sufficient and appropriate to answer the research questions (Blaikie, 2009). Mooi and Sarstedt (2011) explain that there is a strong relationship between research problems and research designs. There are three major research designs, namely: exploratory, descriptive and causal. If a problem has never been researched before, exploratory research designs are formulated to investigate the problems. After detailed exploratory research is conducted to investigate a clearly stated problem or series of problems, descriptive research is conducted to describe those problems and solutions. Causal research design is formulated and conducted to determine the cause and effect of given relationships between two or more variables. Given the scope and objective of this research, the exploratory research design was adopted to answer the research question, which seeks to identify and measure brand personality in charitable giving in Lao PDR.

3.5 Research method

The methodological approach used in research is paramount to understand the differences to design specific research processes to aim at answering the research question. Neuman (2011) reminds us that each approach uses different techniques and provides different results. Therefore, it is worth identifying their differences in order to accomplish the research aims and objectives.

3.5.1 Approach differences

In this section, the differences associated with the quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches in research are presented and briefly discussed. There are four key differences. The first is the type of data collection. The quantitative method is often a questionnaire based approach because it helps the researchers to collect data in a systematic and scientific way. This type of information is called hard data (in the form of numbers); while qualitative data collective methods involve interviewing and observing which is called soft data (in the form of words, sentences, photos or symbols) (Antonius, 2004; Punch, 2005).

The second difference is the principles of the research process and assumptions about the social life of these two methods. A quantitative study depending on the positivism principle is the main concept of quantitative research (Neuman, 2011; Punch, 2005). Qualitative research relies on interpretive or critical social science principles. The focus of this approach is to conduct a detailed examination of particular cases to understand people's experiences in social and cultural contexts (Chilisa & Preece, 2005; Neuman, 2011).

The third difference between these two analytical approaches relates to what researchers are trying to achieve in the study because each approach provides a mechanism to achieve research objectives in a different way. Neuman (2011) clarifies that a quantitative approach is for testing the relationship or hypothesis that researchers have in mind for verification. In contrast, qualitative approaches allow researchers to explore the data in more detail. One of the main advantages of qualitative approaches to research is the potential to associate qualitative findings (words) with statistical findings from quantitative analysis, which provide narratives for numerical data (data triangulation) (Maykut & Morehouse, 2004).

Lastly, the fourth difference is that these two approaches have a distinct logic and path for conducting research. Neuman (2011) mentions that the logic of a quantitative study is systematic and pursues a linear research path. He explains that a linear research path can be described as a clear signpost or a staircase for the researchers to follow which is unlike the logic of a qualitative study that occurs from continuously practicing and pursuing a nonlinear research path. The nonlinear path can be metaphorically compared to a spiral way rather than a staircase (Bernard, 2011; Neuman, 2011). The researchers may move forward, backward and sideways before advancing again to achieve the tasks. The researchers who prefer to use a nonlinear path believe that this approach allows them to explore more and does not limit their creativity (Bernard, 2011; Neuman, 2011).

3.5.2 Mixed methods approach

Given the challenges associated with the use of one methodological approach, mixed methods emerged to lessen these challenges and to provide an alternative means of utilising both qualitative and quantitative approaches to conduct social science research (Bernard, 2011). The mixed methods approach is the integration of both

quantitative and qualitative research designs into a single methodological approach, which incorporates various aspects of both approaches in the research design and implementation. The principle of this approach is observing various perspectives to study the complexities and dynamics of social life (Neuman, 2011). However, not all researchers agree with this combination. The growth of mixed methods research during the 1970s, was accompanied by a debate on an appropriate paradigm. Some researchers argued that mixed methods are not possible due to the incompatibility of the paradigms underlying them (Hall, 2012). One of the strengths of the mixed methods approach is the ability for researchers to triangulate results based on both qualitative and quantitative data collections and analyses (Bernard, 2011; Bryman, 2012).

Given the potential of the mixed methods approach to triangulate research findings to provide holistic and integrative analyses of the research question, the mixed methods approach was adopted to use in this study. Additionally, the selection of the mixed methods approach as the appropriate methodological approach to provide in-depth analyses of the research question was also consolidated for several other reasons. Firstly, the primary purpose of combining both analytical approaches is to conduct in-depth analyses of social realities. Secondly, data from semi-structured interviews were used to enhance the design of the survey questionnaire, which provides data to conduct inferential statistical analysis of the sampled group of the population of the study. The qualitative findings also made it possible to develop and identify potential variables to measure in the questionnaire and to test the hypothesis of choosing brand personality measure scales from Venable et al. (2005) in relation to its reliability and validity in Laos. Thirdly, the mixed methods approach does not limit the researcher to the scope of Venable et al.'s (2005) brand personality measuring scales that were based on the study done in the United States. In addition, the majority of brand personality research apply a mixed method such as the research of Aaker (1997), Venable et al. (2005), Voeth and Herbst (2008) and Sargeant et al. (2008).

3.6 Sample selection approach

The technical terms of population and sample are used interchangeably. Population refers to a collection of persons, groups, events or thing about which researchers seek to generalise statistical findings based on sets of responses from a representative sample. Sample is defined as a smaller subset that is drawn from some large group which is the total population (Punch, 2005). In this study the population is in Vientiane. Vientiane is the capital and the biggest city of Laos with a population rated at approximately 800,000 (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2011). Vientiane is a dynamic city and serves as the hub of economic development and the location where most national and international non-governmental organisations and institutions have their headquarters. Vientiane is also the hub of various nationalities and ethnic groups (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2011). This study seeks to select a representative sample out of the population of Vientiane.

3.6.1 Sample for qualitative research

Purposive sampling is widely used in a qualitative approach which refers to the judgment of researchers as to who can provide the best information to achieve the objectives of the study (Kumar, 2008). Bryman (2012) states that purposive sampling is a non-probability form of sampling that means the sample is not selected randomly. This type of sample selection focuses on units that include people, organisations and departments. The sample or participants are related to research questions and are able to provide relevant information. Establishing sample size is quite difficult for qualitative research. For example, it is difficult to know how many people to interview to achieve theoretical saturation. Bryman cited a research study of Guest et al. (2006) on a qualitative sample size experiment by interviewing sixty women in West African countries. They found data analysis (coding) did not significantly require revision after twelve interviews. If the research question has narrow scope, saturation is achieved quickly.

Based on the discussion about the sampling selection above, this research used a purposive sampling technique to select the sample. Eight staff from the Association for Autism in Laos were chosen to participate in the initial exploratory phase. The participants from this organisation were selected based on several criteria. First, this

organisation was founded and operated by a group of parents who have children living with autism. Four participants have experience as donors as well as being the founders of the charity. Second, the other four are also donors and have worked in the non-profit sector for at least three years. By these criteria, it was expected that this group could provide in-depth information. In addition, this project has limited budget and time. Furthermore, the main purpose of this interview was to identify the human characteristics of NPOs in Laos only on an exploratory basis.

3.6.2 Sample for quantitative research

This research applied simple random sampling, which is a probabilistic sampling technique to recruit participants for the quantitative data collection. The simple random sampling technique gives each unit of the entire population an equal opportunity to be represented in the sample group (Bryman, 2012). The advantage of this approach is the inferences drawn from selected samples can be generalised because they are representative of the total sampling population (Kumar, 2008). A comprehensive sampling frame was obtained from the Red Cross Donors database. The Lao Red Cross has been recognised as a well-known charitable organisation since 1955 and receives public and private donations. The donor data is available for information and educational purposes. The sample was generated from the population by developing a random selection process with the use of integers of random numbers.

The sample size of the quantitative research was 100 public donors due to its suitability in terms of project scale, time and budget. In addition, this sample size is considered to be enough to run exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis techniques in data analysis process (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tahtam, 2006). The sampling frame for this study were people who were used to donating money, products and/or volunteering their time to any charitable organisations, apart from donating and/or volunteering for religious purposes. The respondents were over 18 years old.

3.7 Data sources

Gupta (2004) explains that there are two types of data sources, which include primary and secondary data. The differences between the two types of data sources can be distinguished from how the data are obtained. The primary data are generated for the specific purpose of the research, while secondary data are from already published sources. Based on the purpose of this study, primary data is a key solution to solve research problems because related existing data is not available. Generating data from a population made it possible to obtain empirical data that matched the research questions, hypotheses, aims and objectives of the study. Surveying and interviewing is considered to elicit creditable data from primary sources (O'Leary, 2009).

3.8 Data collection

3.8.1 Interviews

Interviewing is one type of primary data collection process that allows researchers and participants to engage directly (Gupta, 2004). Williams (2003) is of the opinion that interviewing is sophisticated, flexible and achieves better response rates than self-completion questionnaires because participants are contacted prior to the interview process, which allows the interviewees to prepare and fully engage. Additionally, the interviewers are able to ask relevant follow-up questions. However, prior to the interview, there are several aspects that need to be considered thoroughly.

O’Leary (2010) outlines three main interviews types and issues. Firstly, interviews can be either formal or informal. For a formal setting, interviewers try to maintain an objective stance, while the informal setting has no rules and roles related to the interviewing process. These two styles of interviews come with positive and negative aspects. Formal interviews give an opportunity for the interviewers to maintain tight control, while creating tension for the interviewees and it limits the flow of information. Informal interviews are often unstructured, flexible and the atmosphere of trust, rapport and open up communication is developed through the process. It relies on the interviewers to talk only enough to facilitate the respondents’ ability to answer to avoid biases (O'Leary, 2009).

Secondly, researchers need to consider if they want the interviews to be highly structured or free flowing. A structured interview consists of pre-established

questions, in order and following standards of interaction to minimise errors (Bryman, 2012). In other words, formal interviews enable the process to stay on track. This type of interview is appropriate for standard data driven or inexperienced interviewers. A semi-structured interview is more flexible when the interviewers can prepare questions, but they can shuffle questions depending on the natural flow of conversation. This way allows researchers to obtain data as well as discover unexpected issues that they did not anticipate. An unstructured interview is used when researchers need data such as attitudes, opinions and beliefs in the scope of the research without predetermined questions. Most interviewees enjoy talking and expressing ideas. The challenge for interviewers is not to guide the conversation too prescriptively, but they need to make sure that the conversation is on the right track and collect enough data (O'Leary, 2009).

Thirdly, the number of interviewees is the last concern. Researchers can conduct one on one. It helps interviewers to conduct the whole process more easily. In addition, the interviewees perceive more freedom to express their ideas. Some researchers conduct one-on-one interviews via telephone to cover wide areas (O'Leary, 2010). No face-to-face interaction is challenging for the interviewers because it is difficult to build rapport over the phone (Gupta, 2004). Multiple group interviews involve more than one person at the time. Structured interviews are normally employed in a multiple group interview to discover the independent thoughts of each participant. An open process can also be applied to let each participant interact and influence each other's opinion. Multiple group interviews are quite difficult to track. Interviewers usually record conversations as raw data. A focus group is another type of group interview. The interviewers are facilitators to conduct a discussion rather than asking strict questions and answers. The numbers of participants are about 4-12 people. Group discussion enables researchers to draw in-depth opinions because direct questioning may not give an opportunity to participants to raise such information (O'Leary, 2010).

Interviewing for this study was more informal in style, due to the fact that many participants had never been interviewed or participated in academic research. Furthermore, the charity brand personality topic is quite a new concept in Laos. The informal style helps all participants to be relaxed and willing to express their thoughts. Thus, a semi-structured interview technique was used to accompany

informal interviewing. The semi-structured interviews could be planed and developed an interview protocol, including a list of questions or topics to be addressed with all participants (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). All the participants were from the same organisation. To avoid their ideas being influenced by their colleagues or their manager, a one-on-one interview is more suitable to discover independent and individual thoughts.

3.8.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is usually self-administered in that respondents answer and fill in the questionnaire by themselves (Singh, 2007). Normally, researchers distribute questionnaires via post, mail or online. Then the questionnaires are returned or collected by post or electronic soft copy form. In some case, researchers distribute questionnaires and let participants complete them under their supervision. In this case it is called "supervised self-completion questionnaire" (Bryman, 2012). Bryman (2012) explains that the advantages of a self-completion questionnaire over interviews are that they are cheaper to administer, do not depend on the availability of interviewers and also are convenient for respondents to complete in their own time. Asking the same set of questions with different people is key to most survey research. It is impossible for researchers to integrate and interpret data that derives from different questions and different respondents (Brace, 2013).

Questionnaire design plays an important role in a self-completion questionnaire approach. Poor design can create confusion and misunderstanding that may affect the validity and reliability of data analysis (Williams, 2003). Questionnaire design is not an easy process. It comprises various elements to be considered a good design. Many authors provide different techniques, but most of them share in common that the questionnaire has to be clear and easily understood by a vast group of people. Bryman (2012) suggests some points as a guideline for designing a good questionnaire. First, it is important not to cramp the presentation. This author cited a work of Dillman et al. (2009) stating that attractive layout is likely to create a higher response rate, rather than how short the questionnaire is. Similarly, Williams (2003) is also of the opinion that the self-completion questionnaire needs to be attractive and

simple to complete. He also suggests some generic guidelines such as not trying to get too many questions on the same page, or arrows and boxes and fancy font styles.

Another useful tactic is that of using closed questions to save time and ease it for the respondents because they can be pre-coded. A Likert Scale is widely used in the questionnaire design that allows the respondents to rate a degree of their opinions toward the questions; for example, a 5 Likert Scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree (Bryman, 2012). Providing clear instructions about how to respond is very important in the questionnaire design, since the respondents need to complete the questionnaire by themselves. For instance, it is important to clearly state if the respondents can choose more than one answer (Bryman, 2012; Williams, 2003).

The questionnaire for this research was designed in English and was translated into Lao by a translation company. In the questionnaire, English and Lao languages were presented on the same pages because some of the respondents were foreigners who work or live in Laos. The questionnaire for this research has three main parts, namely donor behaviours, charity brand personality and demographic details. Part one and part two use a seven-point Likert Scale that helps the respondents to answer questions easily and avoid boredom, due to the questionnaire containing many questions, especially the section on rating the trait items that consists of 38 characteristics. Part three was designed as multiple choice, which explores demographic information about Lao donors. This questionnaire survey was conducted with donors selected from the random process using the Lao Red Cross donors list.

In part one relating to donor behaviour, the purpose was to study how often the participants donate to charities and what types of charity. There are eight charity sectors for the participants to rate from 1 to 7 where 1 refers to very rarely and 7 refers to very often. In addition, the participants were asked to identify the charity that they often donate to. This linked to the question in part two in which the participants were asked to rate human characteristics of the charity that they mentioned. Questionnaire part two is the core part of this study, which was designed to explore brand personality in the Laos context. The respondents were asked to rate characteristics of the chosen charity that they often donate to. This part included new facets items that are found from the interviews and combined with the brand personality facets from the model of Venable et al. (2005). Part three is designed to

explore basic demographic information about the respondents. This part comprises gender, education level, marital status, ethnicity, employment status and income range.

3.9 Pre test

A pilot-test questionnaire helps researchers to spot flaw areas of the questionnaire design. Researchers determine whether the questionnaire gathering the data is clear enough for the respondents. Pre-testing will often suggest some problems that researchers may be unaware of (Bradburn, Sudman, & Wansink, 2004). The questionnaire was pretested with five students who donate to charities. Five of them have different ages ranging from 22 to 29. Two of them are from Western countries (Sweden and Norway) and three are from Asia (Cambodia and Laos).

They were asked to give constructive feedback regarding the amount of time to complete the questionnaire, the clarity and general ideas of instruction. All five students completed in approximately 13-15 minutes, which is considered to be an appropriate time. However, some adjustments were made. In the 'Ruggedness' dimension, Venable et al. (2005) identified five facets, namely 'tough', 'outdoor', 'masculine' and 'western'. Three Asian students found it difficult to understand the terms of 'western' facet while the two western students had no difficulty to understand this term. Due to the fact that this relates to western cultures, so it could be difficult for Asian people to understand its terms and meanings. The study of brand personality in Japan also removed this trait (Chan, Saunders, Taylor, & Souchon, 2003). As a result, this item was removed.

3.10 Ethical issues

Before conducting the interviews and survey, the research project details, supporting documents and completed ethical application (Form A) were submitted to the Unitec Research Ethics Committee (UREC). The application was approved for the period of 23 October 2013 to 23 October 2014. The file number of this application is 2013-1078. In addition, the organisational consent was approved by the Association for Autism on 17 October 2013.

Ethical application (Form A) comprises various fundamental issues that are concerned

with ethics in conducting research such as the researcher and supervisor's qualifications, data access and protection, research methodology, cultural issues and ethical principles guidelines to avoid emotional and physical harm by this research. Besides, many supporting documents were requested to be prepared and submitted along with the Form A. Research information sheets for the interviews and survey are details of the research's purposes and processes of conducting the research. A consent form is another significant application. There are two types of consent forms, namely an organisational consent form and a participant consent form. The organisational consent form refers to the organisation giving permission to the researcher to undertake the interviews, while the participant consent form is for the participants to sign if they are willing to participate in the interviews and provide information to the researcher. All participants in the interviews need to read the information sheets, fully understand and sign the consent form prior to starting interviews. For the survey, the respondents must receive an information sheet, so they can agree or reject it before or while participating in the survey or interviews. Furthermore, interview questions and questionnaires need to be submitted with Form A. No issue or comments arose from any participants.

3.11 Data analysis

Data analysis is defined as a process of organising, summarising and visualising raw data to draw conclusions and make decisions (Myatt, 2007). Data analysis for this study was divided into two stages including data analysis for the qualitative and quantitative approaches.

3.11.1 Qualitative

Data analysis in the qualitative approach involves many processes. Malhotra and Birks (2007) explain that qualitative data analysis includes several steps. First, gathering data; for instance, information from interviews can be gathered via note taking, recording or observation. Second, sorting or filtering data is a process of eliminating irrelevant data or duplicate data. Coding is one of the techniques that can be used in this process. Third, data needs to be logically displayed and presented. Fourth, data verification is the last process to link data with theoretical concepts.

In this study, each participant in the initial interview phase was given three pieces of paper in order to jot down trait items for describing the three nonprofit organisations separately. This gave the interviewees a comfort zone to imagine, evaluate, pause and write down their perspectives about the particular organisations. At the same time, all interviews were recorded after obtaining the agreement with the participants prior to interviewing. When the interviews finished, the researcher transcribed them into written form and translated from Lao to English as soon as possible. This helped to recall and capture the main points from the interviews. The raw data was sorted, duplicate trait items eliminated and trait items categorised by using the Excel application. The data is exhibited in a table and compared with the trait items from the model of Venable et al. (2005).

3.11.2 Quantitative

Quantitative data analysis is necessary to deal with a considerable proportion of the empirical research conducted by social scientists as well as social-science students (Bryman & Cramer, 2011). This research used the IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) to analyse the data. The SPSS program allows researchers to process the raw data and test the hypothesis for several elements. This study used frequencies, Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis techniques to manage and analyse raw data.

Descriptive statistics

Frequency tests refer to the number of objects or subjects collected in each category and variable(s) (Lawal, 2011; Mariano & Tse, 2008). The main idea of frequency testing is to summarise the numbers of cases that fall into different categories. In some situations researchers may need to examine the number of cases in different categories within one or more variables. The results of frequencies are visually presented in the form of tables or graphs (Landsman, 2005).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Data reduction is a significant process to help the research process reduce data in order to make analysis, reporting and interpreting easier. The data reduction approach provides metric variables that provide different ways of understanding the forms of

association. A large set of data is reduced into factors to simplify analysis (Blaikie, 2009). Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a technique for data reduction, which is different from other type of analyses. It is used to reduce and summarise a large set of data to a smaller set of factors or components (Pallant, 2005). EFA was used as the first step to gather information about the interrelationships among the set of variables. In EFA, there are three main steps involved: (1) assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, (2) factor extraction and (3) factor rotation and interpretation.

Step1: An assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis

A sample size and the strength of relationships among the variables are two aspects to consider in deciding whether the data set is suitable for factor analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is a measurement of sample adequacy. The value of KMO should be .6 or above. The correlation matrix provides details about the strength of the inter-correlations among the items. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that if only a few coefficients greater than .3 are found, factor analysis may not be appropriate.

Step2: Factor extraction

A factor extraction is a step to reduce the number of factors that are the best representation of the interrelations among the set of variables. The most common approach to extract the number of underlying factors is a component analysis. Furthermore, the number of factors also depends on the researcher's consideration because this involves balancing two conflicting needs of the study: the need to explore a simple solution with as few factors as possible; and the need to elaborate as much of the variance in the original data set as possible (Pallant, 2005). There are two techniques to assist in determining the number of factors, namely Catell's scree plot and Kaiser's criterion. These techniques are widely used and available in the SPSS program (Hair et al., 2006).

A scree plot is a process of plotting each of the eigenvalues of the factors. The scree plot technique inspects the plot to find a point at which the shape of the curve changes direction. The factors that are above the elbow and the break in the plot contribute the most to the explanation of the variance in the data set (Hair et al., 2006; Pallant, 2005). Kaiser's criterion is another technique that can be used as a second stage to determine which factors to retain. Kaiser's criterion, known as the eigenvalue rule, is

commonly used in statistics. It measures the amount of the total variance for which each factor accounts. Only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained (Hair et al., 2006; Pallant, 2005).

Step 3: Factor rotation and interpretation

After the numbers of factors are sorted, interpreting data is required. Rotating factors make interpreting data easier by presenting a loading pattern (Pallant, 2005). An orthogonal or an oblique rotation are the two techniques for rotations. Since the latter provides complex results, the orthogonal rotation is more popular. Varimax and Quartimax are commonly used in orthogonal rotations.

The relationship of any item to a factor is called factor loading. Sample size is an important factor in determining whether a loading is statistically significant. According to Blaike (2003), the minimum loading for 100 respondents is .51. Since this study includes many variables, it was necessary to explore a simple solution with as few factors as possible. Therefore, the variables that have a coefficient value less than .60 were removed.

Reliability

The purpose of reliability is to confirm the stability and replicability of the research. It means the degree to which all the items in the scale are measuring the same underlying attribute. The most commonly used statistic to measure internal consistency is Cronbach's coefficient alpha. According to Bryman (2012), Cronbach's coefficient alpha of a scale should be above .7.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is widely used in psychological, sociological or business measures in order to analyse and test a conceptual grounded theory that comprises different measured items; for example, using CFA to create service quality dimensions within the mobile phone industry (Everitt & Hothorn, 2011). Therefore, CFA is an appropriate analytical technique that makes it possible to validate scales for the measurement of charity brand personality in the Laos context. Sharma & Mukherjee (1996) conclude that CFA serves two objectives: to estimate the parameters of the hypothesised factor model and to examine the model fit of the hypothesised factor model.

Although EFA and CFA are similar in the construct, CFA is different from EFA. CFA measures the quality of each measured item or valid measurement, while EFA is used for exploring and organising the data in order to indicate how many factors are needed to best represent the data set. So factors are derived from statistical results, not from theory (Hair, et al., 2006). With CFA, it illustrates how well the model matches the empirical data and how well the indicators represent the latent variables that are not measured directly (Sharma & Mukherjee, 1996). Therefore, the researcher can accept or reject the preconceived theory.

A visual diagram for CFA

In the Structural Equation Model (SEM), a visual diagram is normally used in measurement theories in order to illustrate the paths by the arrow pointing from the latent constructs to the measured items. Each path shows loading that is a theoretical linking between the measured item and its latent construct, only which is different from EFA in that the loading is for each variable on every factor (Hair et al., 2006).

Validity

As mentioned earlier, CFA was applied to determine the construct validity. Validity examines if the instruments really measure the concept (Bryman, 2012). CFA/SEM are able to assess the construct validity if the set of measured items really reflects theoretical latent constructs because it focuses on the accuracy of measurement. The SEM program computes factor scores for each respondent. Hair et al. (2006) explain that "this process allows relationships between constructs to be automatically corrected for the amount of error variance that exists in the construct measures" (p.776).

Assessing measurement model validity

Measurement validity depends on goodness-of-fit (GOF) to be the evidence of construct validity. GOF refers to how well the model reproduces the covariance matrix among the indicator items (Everitt & Hothorn, 2011). When researchers specify models from the parameters estimated, the model fit will compare theory to empirical data. When the estimated covariance matrix and the actual observed covariance matrix are the same, the researchers' model and theory are perfect or the

closer the values of these two matrices are, the better the model fit is (Hair et al., 2006). Assessing measurement model fit requires considering various issues.

Chi-square and p-value are fundamental to measuring model fit. Chi-square is used for indicating and measuring goodness-of-fit. The chi-square test allows the researcher to reject the null hypotheses, if there is a significant difference between the "observed" and the "expected". The threshold of chi-square value should not be higher than 3 (Hair et al., 2006; Ho, 2013). Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is another absolute indication to measure model fit. It is a measurement of how much better the model fits compared with no model at all. The threshold of GFI is > .95. Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) is adjusted for the degrees of freedom between the proposed model and the number of variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2012). The threshold for AGFI is >.80. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) examines baseline comparisons. The average correlation between variables should be .90 or higher (Hair et al., 2006). Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is a measure of the discrepancy per degree of freedom. It is a relationship between the proposed model and estimated number in the population. RMSEA value is representative of the badness-of-fit where 0 indicates the best fit and a higher value indicates a bad fit. The threshold for RMSEA ranges from .03 to .08 indicating 98% confidence of good fit (Ho, 2013). The model fit criteria and thresholds to assess model fit are summarised below.

Table 6: CFA model assessment threshold

Measure	Threshold
Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	< 3 good
P-value for model	>.05
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	> .95
Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	> .80
Comparative fit index (CFI)	> .90
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	Below 1.0 acceptable model (.03-.08 with 98% confidence)

Chapter summary

Chapter three discussed and determined methodology that is suitable for this particular research project. After the analysis of several research strategies, it was decided to apply a mixed method approach. It is a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Semi-structured interviews with a small set of interview subjects helped the researcher to develop a survey questionnaire to be applied to a larger group of subjects and identify potential variables in order to test hypotheses in the quantitative approach.

In a qualitative approach, purposive sampling selection techniques helped the researcher to determine the eight participants from the Association for Autism in Laos. The simple random sampling technique, which is a probabilistic sampling approach, was used to recruit participants to take part in the survey questionnaire phase of the study. In a quantitative approach, a simple random sampling technique was used to allow each individual of the targeted population equal opportunity to be included in the sample. A comprehensive sampling frame was obtained from the Lao Red Cross donor database.

According to this study using a mixed method, data analysis was divided into two steps. Data analysis in the qualitative method comprised gathering data, analysing data and presenting data. In the quantitative phase, the SSPS program was used to conduct frequency analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The next chapter (Findings) presents details of the data analysis based on qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Chapter Four
Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a description and analysis of the primary data that was collected for this study. The primary data help specifically identify and measure charity brand personality in the Laos context. Since this research applies mixed methods, this chapter will be divided into two main sections. The first section is the results and findings from the semi-structured interviews with eight participants from the Association for Autism in Laos. The semi-structured interviews make it possible to explore if NPOs have human characteristics and identify what sort of human characteristics they are. In addition, the trait items found from the semi-structured interviews provide the new potential variables that were added in the questionnaire together with the trait items from the study of Venable et al. (2005) in order to test and measure charity brand personality in the context of Laos. Section two includes the findings from the questionnaire that will present the number of respondents, questionnaire structure and data analysis. The survey has been done with 116 respondents (donors). The questionnaire comprises three main parts, namely donors' behaviour, charity brand personality and demographic details.

4.2 Semi-structured interviews

The topics chosen for discussion in the semi-structured interviews enabled the exploration of the perceptions of the Lao people who are donors and also have knowledge about the nonprofit sectors in Laos, if NPOs have human characteristics and what kind of human characteristics are perceived by them. Therefore, this research is not limited to the same scope of the charity brand personality of Venable et al (2005) that was studied in the United States.

Question 1: What is your main motivation for choosing to work with the Association for Autism in Laos?

The eight participants' motivation to work with the Association for Autism in Laos can be summarised in three main points. First, three of the interviewees have autistic children. There has been no support from the Lao government or any nonprofit

organisation because autism is a newly acknowledged issue in Laos. Therefore, they decided to form the first nonprofit organisation to help autistic people in Laos. Second, three trainers have a similar motivation in that they have a passion to work with children with special needs and feel rewarded when the autistic children get better. Third, two of the participants always work with the nonprofit sector. They are interested in working with autistic people.

Table 7: Summary of the main motivations of the participants for choosing to work with the Association for Autism in Laos

Participant 1	Basically, I love children, especially autistic children because they are pure and innocent. Therefore, I decided to study about children with special needs such as Down syndrome, This organisation is small and has a good working environment like a family. All the staff respects me.
Participant 2	I have two main motivations to work with this organisation. First, I was a primary teacher in a private school, but I had an autistic kid attending my class. I had an opportunity to talk with the kid's mother about the special needs for autistic children. I would like to learn more about this field because it is quite new issue that was just raised in Laos. Second, this organisation provides me with special training and also offers higher pay than my previous work.
Participant 3	I have an autistic son. One of my customers suggested me to take my son to this training centre. After training for a few months, my son was able to call us 'mum and dad' for the first time. This is my main motivation to quit my job and form this organisation with other mothers who have autistic children. We are the first local nonprofit organisation that is officially established as an association for autism in Laos.
Participant 4	After I found out that my son was an autistic kid, I took my son to this training centre that was initially operated by a group of parents who also have autistic children. There were some parents that could not afford to have their children trained. Therefore, a group of parents decided to form a nonprofit organisation and open for donations to support parents and children to have equal opportunities. After that I decided to quit my job and devote my time to train my son and partially work with this organisation.

Participant 5	My wife and I have physical challenges. I have a problem with my legs. I was offered opportunities from the society to study accounting at the training centre for disabled people. My friends and I, who have physical challenges, have a vision and mission in that we want to promote equality for disabled people in the society. All of us work with NPOs that provide help and support to disabled people.
Participant 6	My son is autistic. At first, I opened my house to be a training centre for autistic people. Then my friends and I founded this nonprofit organisation for autism because I would like to help parents and children who are facing the same issue.
Participant 7	Although I have experience working with a nonprofit organisation that provides a home and support for orphaned children, working here is different from other organisations because I work with children with special needs. Autism is a new issue in Laos. Many parents lack knowledge about this issue. Some parents believe that their children have a bad spirit rather than taking their children to consult with the doctors. Therefore, working here is important for me.
Participant 8	I'm a specialist in training for disabled people. This organisation is the first training centre that provides help for autistic children. I feel rewarded when the autistic children get better. I'm also happy with their parents. I want them to be accepted in the society.

Question 2: Can you think of one charitable organisation that is involved in educational development? Why did you think of this organisation?

Question 3: Can you think of one charitable organisation that is involved in relief? Why did you think of this organisation?

Question 4: Can you think of one charitable organisation that is involved in health care? Why did you think of this organisation?

The answers for questions two, three and four are quite varied. In the educational sector, the eight participants mentioned eight different nonprofit organisations that provide educational development in Laos. Although all of them listed different nonprofit organisations, some of the participants had similar reasons why the

particular organisation popped up in their mind. For instance, participants 2 and 4 were impressed with the work of the Room to Read and the Big Brother Mouse that help students in the rural areas. Participants 5, 6 and 8 used to work or coordinate with the organisations that they chose. Participants 1, 3 and 7 knew about the organisations from their reputations and the media.

In the relief sector, the Lao Red Cross was the most listed organisation. Five participants chose the Lao Red Cross when they were asked to think of an organisation that is involved in relief. There are many reasons why the Lao Red Cross is on top of the participants' minds. For example, participants 1 and 8 saw the Lao Red Cross from the media because the organisation helps people affected by natural disasters. Participant two knew about this organisation because it helped her friend's family after a natural disaster in the rural area. Participants 6 and 7 thought of this organisation because they saw social work and activities that this organisation contributes to the society.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) and Population Services International (PSI) are the most mentioned organisations for the healthcare sector as three participants chose WHO, and two participants selected PSI. Participants 1, 6 and 8 who chose WHO, gave reasons that this organisation is a leading organisation that deals with public health issues. Furthermore, it is a big and well-known organisation. For PSI, two participants had the same reasons, that PSI has many activities and advertising strategies to attract people's attention.

Table 8: Summary of the NPOs that the participants chose

Participant 1	Education: SOS Children's Villages	I know well about this organisation because some friends were raised in a SOS Village. In addition, this organisation is big, well known and worldwide.
	Relief: Lao Red Cross	I see from the media. For example, natural disasters, they provide emergency relief packs

		to the victims. They have a clear logo on the relief packs.
	Healthcare: World Health Organisation (WHO)	Every time when I heard about epidemic diseases, WHO is always a leading organisation that deals with public health issues.
Participant 2	Education: Room to Read	I lived in a rural area. This organisation has a library van that came to my city.
	Relief: Lao Red Cross	This organisation helped my friend's family who had a natural disaster affected them.
	Healthcare: National Rehabilitation Centre	I had a chance to participate in their fund raising event every year.
Participant 3	Education: Save the Children	This organisation builds kindergartens in rural areas. In addition, their project plans correlate with the government development plan. Therefore, this organisation is well known.
	Relief: Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) Laos	They provide assistance and relief especially in the rural areas.
	Healthcare: Population Services International (PSI)	This is the first organisation that has many advertising tools and strategies to address HIV/AIDS issues and promote reproductive health in Laos.
Participant 4	Education: Big Brother Mouse	I first saw this organisation in the rural area. I was impressed with their work and their attempt to give opportunities to children in the countryside.

	Relief: Foundation for Assisting Poor People of Lao PDR	I saw this organisation distribute blankets for people in the northern part of Laos.
	Healthcare: Lao Disabled Women Development Centre (LDWDC)	I met the founder. She told me about her healthcare program for disabled women.
Participant 5	Education: Lao-EU Development Project (EU)	I used to work for this organistion in the rural area.
	Relief: CIS	I know that they build accommodation for people who were affected by natural disasters in the south of Laos.
	Healthcare: CARE International	I know they build toilets and pathways in the hospitals for disabled people.
Participant 6	Education: Handicap	This organisation provides training and seminars for our organisation.
	Relief: Lao Red Cross	This organisation has been operating in Laos for a long time. I see their rescue team and their car around the city.
	Healthcare: World Health Organisation (WHO)	My friend is working there. I see their big organisation in Vientiane.
Participant 7	Education: Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA)	I know this organisation from newspapers when they hand over new schools to the government.
	Relief: Lao Red Cross	They have many activities to help people.
	Healthcare: Population Services International (PSI)	They have booths, activities and concerts in many events. For example, I saw them organising activities in the restaurant.

Participant 8	Education: Vientiane Autism Centre (VAC)	This is the only NPO that helps autistic people.
	Relief: Lao Red Cross	I often see this organisation from the media helping victims from natural disaster. I used to donate blood to this organisation.
	Healthcare: World Health Organisation (WHO)	I see from the media

Question 5: If the charitable organisations that you have listed in the three sectors were a person, please describe human characteristics of those organisations?

All the eight participants were asked to imagine and describe human characteristics of the organisations that they listed by themselves from the questions 2, 3 and 4. Each participant was given three pieces of paper in order to jot down trait items for the three organisations separately. This gave the interviewees a comfort zone to imagine, evaluate, pause and write down their perspectives about the particular organisations. The participants described and also explained why the particular characteristics are suitable for those organisations. The participants first described and listed human characteristics in the Lao language. Then the trait items from the interviews were translated into English immediately.

Table 9: Human characteristics of NPOs in the three sectors (raw data)

NPO sectors	Participant 1	Participant 1	Participant 3	Participant 4	Participant 5	Participant 6	Participant 7	Participant 8
Education	• Like a mother (feminine) • Benevolent • Kind • Nice • Disciplined	• Feminine • Personable • Nice • Sincere • Fearless • Benevolent • Hardworking • Driven	• Helpful • Sincere • Supportive • Decisive • Upper-class • Caring	• Creative • Benevolent • Committed to the public good • Outdoorsy	• Nice • Generous • Altruism • Sincere • Outdoorsy	• Sincere • Persistent • Upper-class • Positive influence • People-focused	• Generous Supportive • Fair • Outdoor • Adaptable • Loving • Professional / Upper class	• Kind • Compassionate • Persistent • Tough • Collaborative • Committed to the public good
Relief	• Helpful • Proactive • Masculine • Generous • Friendly • Outdoor	• Helpful • Sincere • Driven	• Helpful • People-focused • Caring	• Sincere • Innovative • Benevolent • Altruism • Respectful • Positive influence • Virtuous	• Ambitious • Hardworking • Generous • Helpful • Kind	• Ambitious • Committed to the public good • Fearless	• Helpful • Compassionate • Development-minded • Proactive	• Compassionate • Persistent • Proactive • Compassionate • Committed to the public good
Healthcare	• Sage • Decisive • Honest • Nice • Caring • Kind • Disciplined • Professional (Upper-class) • Powerful • Respectful • Cooperative • Friendly	• Un-biased • Adaptable • Helpful	• Confident • Fearless • Unique • Open-minded • Outdoorsy	• Comprehensive • Hardworking • Development-minded • Creative • People-focused • Persistent	• Helpful • Good-looking • Kind • Benevolent • Sincere • Generous • Ambitious	• Generous • Caring • Reputable	• Confident • Helpful • Open-minded • Sage • Honest	

4.3 Traits items from the semi-structured interviews

In question number five, the eight participants were asked to imagine and describe human characteristics of NPOs in three sectors, namely educational development, relief and healthcare. After sorting and eliminating the duplicated characteristics from the eight interviews, 48 traits items were identified. Among these items, all the traits of the charity brand personality model of Venable et al. (2005) were mentioned, except 'reliable, 'glamorous' and 'western'.

Table 10: The list of trait items found from the semi-structured interviews

The highlighted items refer to traits that are similar to those from the model of Venable et al. (2005).

No	Trait items
1	Adaptable
2	Altruistic
3	Ambitious
4	Benevolent
5	Caring
6	Collaborative
7	Committed to the public good
8	Compassionate
9	Comprehensive
10	Confident
11	Cooperative
12	Creative
13	Decisive
14	Development-minded
15	Disciplined

16	Driven
17	Fair
18	Fearless
19	Feminine
20	Friendly
21	Generous
22	Good-looking
23	Hardworking
24	Helpful
25	Honest
26	Innovative
27	Kind
28	Loving
29	Masculine
30	Nice
31	Open-minded
32	Outdoor
33	People-focused
34	Persistent
35	Personable
36	Positive influence
37	Powerful
38	Proactive
39	Professional / Upper class
40	Reputable
41	Respectful

42	Sage
43	Sincere
44	Supportive
45	Tough
46	Un-biased
47	Unique
48	Virtuous

4.4 Categorising new characteristics

After removing the 12 characteristic items that are the same as the study of Venable et al. (2005), 36 new items remained. However, among these 36 new characteristics, many of them share similar meanings. Therefore, these traits are organised and categorised based on: (1) combining the characteristics that have similar or close meanings and (2) grouping the characteristics, which related to a similar quality. Finally, there are 6 new dimensions and 24 new trait items found from the semi-structured interview.

In addition, it was observed that some of the new characteristics could be included in the four dimensions charity brand personality of Venable et al. (2005). For example, 'virtuous' is suitable to be under the 'Integrity' dimension. The researcher has an assumption that the traits of this model may not best describe characteristics in the Laos context. The new 6 categories and the 4 dimensions of Venable et al. (2005) were then included in the survey questionnaire in order to measure by using a quantitative approach with a larger sample (survey phase of research study). Each trait was rated on a seven-point Likert Scale where 1 refers to less descriptive and 7 is the most descriptive. In total, there were 10 dimensions and 38 facets to be tested in the quantitative phase.

Table 11: Adding new trait items from the interviews to the model of Venable et al. (2005)

- The highlighted traits are the newly added items
- The traits in brackets are a group of trait items that have similar or close meanings

Integrity	Honest
	Positive influence
	Committed to the public good
	Reputable
	Reliable
	Virtuous
Ruggedness	Tough
	Masculine
	Outdoor
	Fearless
Sophistication	Good-looking
	Glamorous
	Upper class
	Respectful
Nurturance	Compassionate
	Caring
	Loving
	Benevolent (altruistic, generous, kind and nice)
	Feminine

Table 12: The new categories of traits from the interviews

- The traits in brackets are a group of trait items that have similar or close meanings

Collaboration	Adaptable
	Cooperative (friendly, helpful and personable)
	Supportive (give opportunities, helpful and sage)
	Development-minded
	People-focused
Ambition	Ambitious
	Driven
	Powerful
Self-confidence	Confident
	Decisive
	Unique
Creativity	Creative
	Innovative
Diligence	Disciplined
	Persistent
	Proactive
	Comprehensive
Equal opportunity	Fair
	Un-biased

4.5 Questionnaire

4.5.1 Questionnaire structure

The survey questionnaire has three main parts: donor behaviours, charity brand personality and demographic details. This survey questionnaire was conducted face to face with 116 out of 150 donors generated from the random process using the Lao Red Cross donor database. The response rate was 77.33%. Each participant spent approximately fifteen minutes completing the questionnaire.

4.5.2 Data Analysis: Survey Questionnaire

Frequency Data Analysis

Frequency data analysis was used to summarise the large set of data in the questionnaire in part one and part three. The main idea of frequency testing is to summarise the numbers of cases that fall into different categories. The frequency data analysis covers donor behaviour and demographic data. In the demographic data, the frequencies data analysis technique enables the research to examine the number of cases in different categories within one or more variables, namely gender percentage of the participants, education levels, ethnicity, professional and income range.

4.5.3 Donor behaviour

116 respondents were asked to rate how often they donate to charities in general, excluding donating for religious purposes such as church and temple. The rating was from 1 to 7 where 1 means very rarely and 7 refers to very often. The highest number of the respondents is in the ranking of number 3 (36 participants) that indicate occasionally donating behaviour. The type of charity that the respondents most donated to is social services such as handicap, emergency and relief that accounted for 39.7%.

Table 13: Donor behaviour

Frequency of donating to charities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	1 Very Rarely	7	6.0	6.0
	2	27	23.3	23.3
	3	36	31.0	31.0
	4	24	20.7	20.7
	5	12	10.3	10.3
	6	3	2.6	2.6
	7 Very Often	7	6.0	6.0
	Total	116	100.0	100.0

The type of charity that the respondents most donated to

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Development and housing	9	7.8	7.8
	Social services	46	39.7	39.7
	Education	19	16.4	16.4
	Health care	13	11.2	11.2
	Sports and recreation	2	1.7	1.7
	Culture and Arts	1	.9	.9
	Environment	9	7.8	7.8
	Advocacy	17	14.7	14.7
	Total	116	100.0	100.0

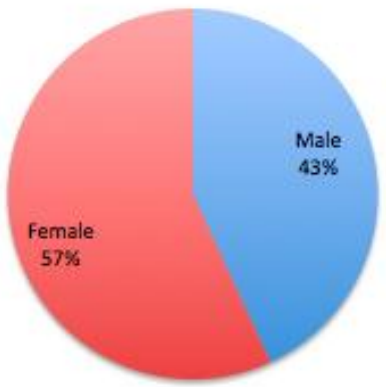
4.5.4 Demographic data

As a whole, the sample for this quantitative phase was 116 respondents. There were 56.9% female, 97.4% at tertiary education, 88.8% Lao Loum ethnic group (the main ethnic group in Lao PDR), 63.8% fulltime employees and 30.2% in the top range of income on a monthly basis (10 million kip or higher).

Gender

The number of female respondents (57%) is slightly higher than male respondents (43%).

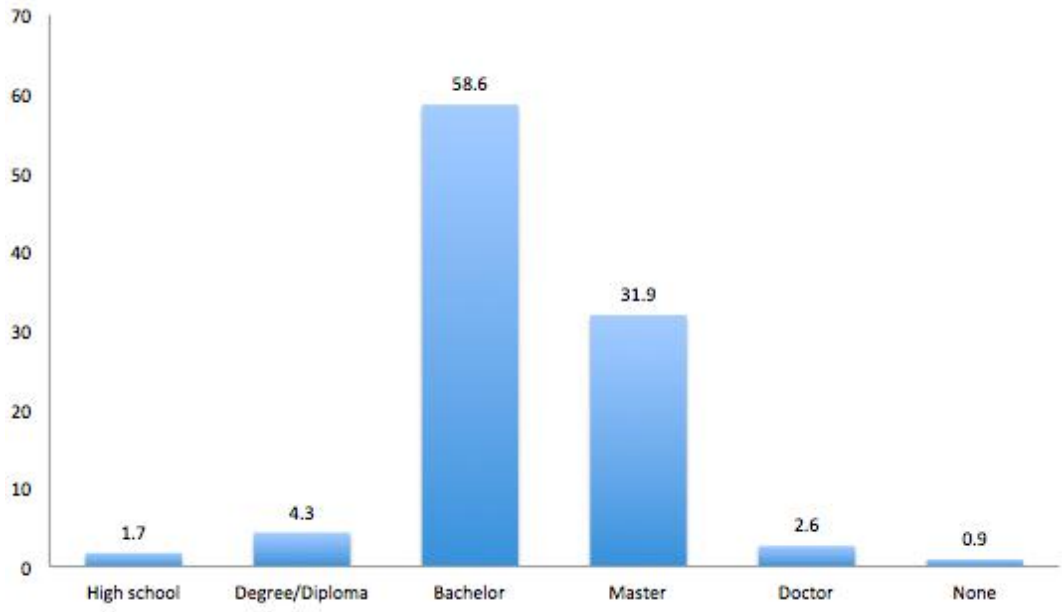
Figure 3: Genders of the respondents for quantitative research



Education levels

The majority (90.5%) of the respondents completed education at bachelor and master's levels. The proportion of respondents who completed a bachelor degree is far higher than the other levels, and is a bit more than half of the total participants at 58.6% and followed by a master's degree at 31.9%.

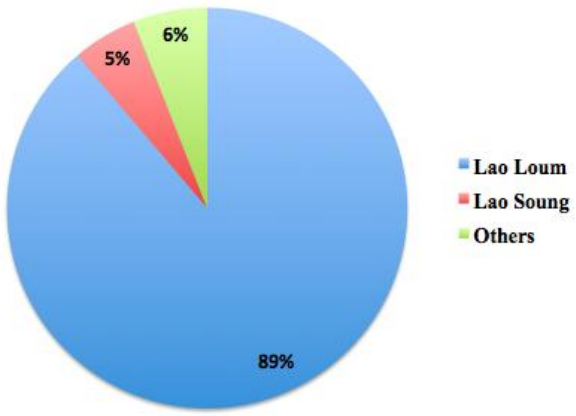
Figure 4: Education levels of the respondents



Ethnicity

Laos comprises 49 diverse ethnic groups and 67 percent are still living in the rural areas. Lao people are classified into three main groups, namely Lao Loum, Lao Soung and Lao Thueng (United Nations Development Programme, 2013). Lao Loum is the majority group in this research at 89%. Lao Soung represents only 5%, while none of Lao Thueng participated in this study. The 'Others' option included people who are not a part of the three Lao groups, such as foreigners who work or live in Laos and accounted for 6%.

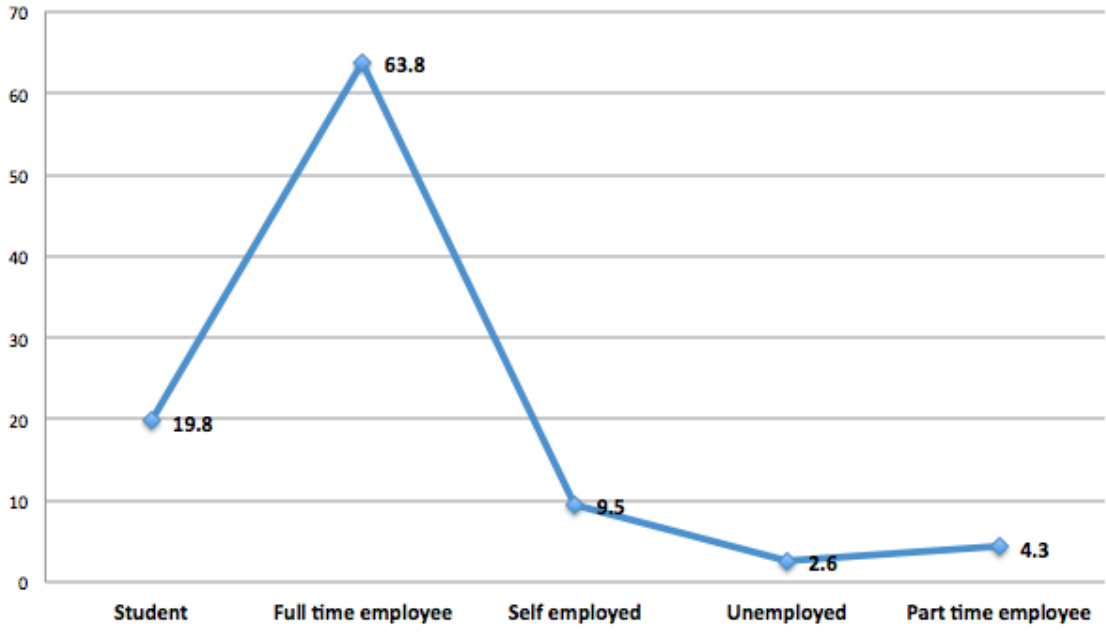
Figure 5: Percentages of the participants' ethnicity



Profession

The majority of the respondents or donors are full-time employees, accounting for 63.8%. Students are in the second rank at 19.8%. Many students who participated in this study were volunteers and small groups of students working together to collect some funding and products to donate for specific purposes such as flood relief and helping schools in the rural areas.

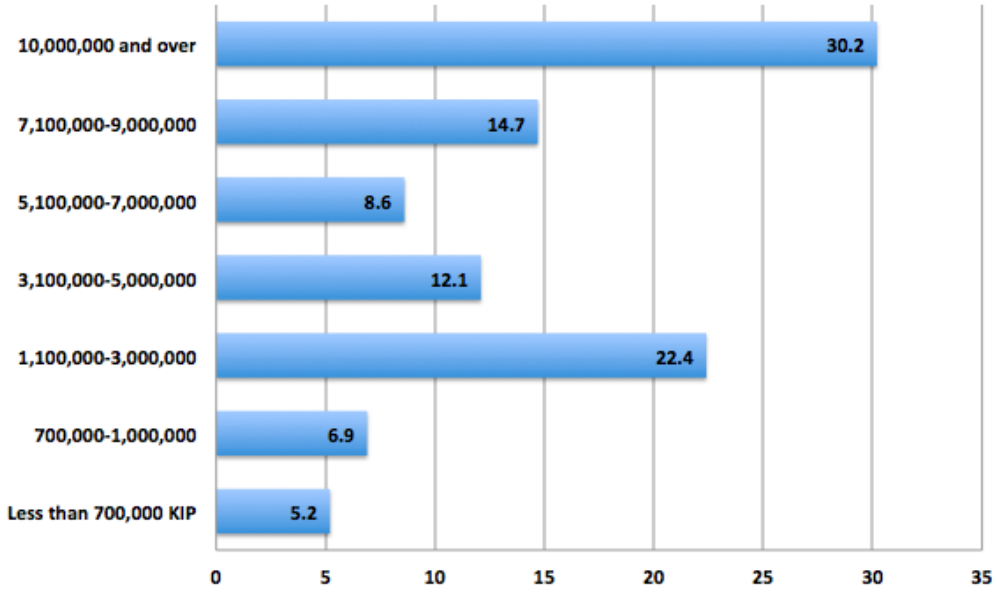
Figure 6: Percentage of participants' professions



Income range

Lao people normally describe their income on a monthly basis. In Laos, the official minimum monthly wage is 700,000 Kip per month which is equivalent to NZ$108, at the currency rate 6500 kip per NZ$1. This question provides seven ranges of income that started from lower than the minimum monthly wage as the first range and up to 10 million kip or higher as the top range. Respondents who have income in the 10 million kip or higher range were the highest percentage of this study at 30.2%. It is interesting that the second highest number of the respondents is not from the sixth range, but from those in the middle or third income range between 1.1 - 3.0 million Kip (22.4%), followed by donors with the sixth income range from 7.1 - 9.0 million Kip per month at 14.7%.

Figure 7: Income ranges of the respondents per month



4.5.5 Data reduction

Data reduction is a significant process to help the researcher to reduce data in order to make analysis, reporting and interpreting easier. It is used to reduce and summarise a large set of data to a smaller set of factors or components (Pallant, 2005).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA was used as the first step to gather information about the interrelationships among the set of variables. In EFA, there are three main steps involved: (1) assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, (2) Factor extraction and (3) factor rotation and interpretation (Pallant, 2005).

Step1: Assessment of the suitability of the data

Sample size and the strength of the relationship among the variables are two aspects to consider when deciding whether the data set is suitable for factor analysis.

Sample size:

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is a measurement of sample adequacy. The value of KMO should be .6 or above. In addition, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value should be significant .05 or smaller (Pallant, 2005). In this study, KMO value is .923, and the

Bartlett's test is significant (p=.000) which indicates that factor analysis is appropriate for the next process.

Table 14: Measurement of sample adequacy

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.923
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3751.630
	df	703
	Sig.	.000

Relationship among variables:

The correlation matrix provides details about the strength of the inter-correlations among the items. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that if only a few coefficients greater than .3 are found, factor analysis may not be appropriate. According to the correlation matrix, the majority of the items are above .3; therefore, the data is considered to have a good strength of inter-correlation.

Step 2: Factor extraction

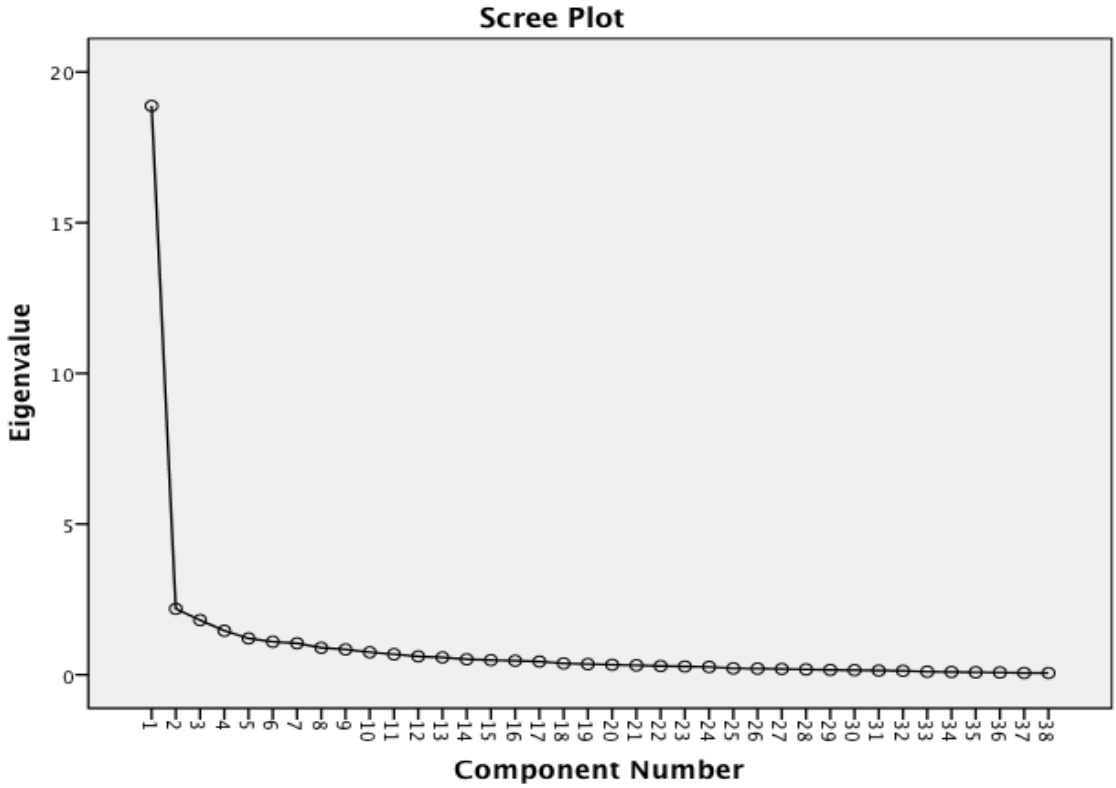
Factor extraction is a step to reduce the number of factors that are the best representation of the interrelations among the set of variables. The most common approach to extract the number of underlying factors is component analysis (Hair, 2005; Pallant, 2005). Furthermore, the number of factors also depends on the researcher's consideration. The researcher needs to explore a simple solution with as few factors as possible. In this case, it was decided to use a Scree plot technique and Kaiser's criterion because these techniques are widely used and available in the SPSS program.

Scree plot

The scree plot below illustrates that the critical change in the gradient of the line starting at component 3 which refers to eigenvalue is 1.0 or more. Although component 1 captures much more of the variance than other remaining components, it

was decided to retain three components. Kaiser's criterion technique was also used as a second technique to determine which factors to retain.

Figure 8: Scree plot



Kaiser's criterion

Kaiser's criterion known as the eigenvalue rule, is commonly used in statistics. It measures the amount of total variance for which each factor accounts. Only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained. In the Total Variance Explained summary (Table 15), the first seven components, which recorded eigenvalues above 1.0, are listed. These seven components explain a total of 72.87% of the variance. However, the components 4, 5, 6 and 7 are just above eigenvalue at 1.0, which indicates that they are not significant variances or weak factors (see Table 15). Some of the weak factors may have only one item that contributes to these factors. As a result, only three factors were retained.

Table 15: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.876	49.674	49.674	18.876	49.674	49.674	7.654	20.142	20.142
2	2.190	5.763	55.437	2.190	5.763	55.437	6.265	16.487	36.629
3	1.813	4.770	60.207	1.813	4.770	60.207	4.082	10.743	47.372
4	1.461	3.846	64.053	1.461	3.846	64.053	3.894	10.248	57.620
5	1.208	3.178	67.231	1.208	3.178	67.231	2.786	7.331	64.951
6	1.096	2.885	70.116	1.096	2.885	70.116	1.734	4.563	69.514
7	1.046	2.754	72.870	1.046	2.754	72.870	1.275	3.355	72.870
8	.897	2.360	75.229						
9	.842	2.217	77.446						
10	.748	1.968	79.414						
11	.682	1.794	81.208						
12	.610	1.606	82.814						
13	.575	1.512	84.326						
14	.516	1.357	85.683						
15	.487	1.281	86.965						
16	.465	1.224	88.188						
17	.441	1.161	89.349						
18	.378	.996	90.345						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Step3: Factor rotation and interpretation

After the numbers of factors were sorted to three, interpreting data was required. Rotation of factors make interpreting data easier by presenting a loading pattern. In this case, the Varimax rotation technique is used to rotate factors. The Rotated Component Matrix Table 16 presents high loading to four factors which support the researcher's assumption that component 5, 6 and 7 may have only one or two items loading that are considered to be a weak factor. Although factor 4 has three items loading, the scree plot diagram significantly breaks from factor 3 and is far behind factor 4. Therefore, three factors were retained.

The relationship of any item to a factor is called factor loading. Sample size is an important factor to determine whether a loading is statistically significant. As stated before, according to Blaike (2003), a minimum loading for 100 respondents is .51. Since this study includes 38 variables, it was necessary to explore a simple solution with as few factors as possible. Therefore, the variables that have a coefficient value less than .60 were dropped and are not presented in the table. The output from the factor rotation is quite clean and linear. Many variables are loaded strongly in factor 1. There are up to nine items loaded into factor one with high loading. Factor 2 and 3 comprise three items. More details are in the **Rotated Component Matrix** (Table 16).

Table 16: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NU2 Caring	.804						
NU1 Compassionate	.766						
IN5 Virtuous	.741						
NU4 Benevolent	.689						
IN2 Positive influence	.680						
NU3 Loving	.677						
IN6 Reliable	.672						
IN1 Honest	.633						
IN3 Committed to the public good	.603						
IN4 Reputable							
SO4 Respectful							
CO1 Adaptable		.715					
CO2 Cooperative		.646					
CO3 Supportive		.620					
CO4 Development-minded							
EQ2 Un-bias							
AM1 Ambitious							
AM2 Driven							
DI2 Persistent							
DI1 Disciplined							
EQ1 Fair							
CO5 People-focused							
NU5 Feminine							
DI4 Comprehensive							
AM3 Powerful			.818				
SO2 Glamorous			.758				
SO1 Good-looking			.758				
RU1 Tough							
SC1 Confident							
CR2 Innovative				.758			
CR1 Creative				.726			
SC3 Unique				.688			
DI3 Proactive							
RU3 Outdoor					.822		
RU4 Fearless					.759		
RU2 Masculine							
SC2 Decisive						.734	
SO3 Upper class							.748

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Table 17: Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor 1: Integrity	Factor 2: Collaboration	Factor 3:Sophistication
Integrity -Honest -Positive Influence -Committed to the public good -Reliable -Virtuous **Nurturance** -Caring -Compassionate -Loving -Benevolent	**Collaboration** -Adaptable -Cooperative -Supportive	**Sophistication** -Glamorous -Good looking **Ambition** -Powerful

Reliability

The purpose of reliability is to confirm the stability and replicability of the research. It means the degree to which all the items in the scale measure the same underlying attribute (Bryman, 2009). The most commonly used statistic to measure Internal consistency is Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha of a scale should be above .7.

The total number of items from the scale is 15. The important figure to look at is the Alpha value. As mentioned above, the The Cronbach coefficient alpha of a scale should be above .7, and this case is .943. This means the scale can be considered reliable with the sample. In summary, the new scale has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .943 which indicates that this new scale is reliable.

Table 18: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.943	15

4.5.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Test model fit)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to test how well measured variables represent a small number of constructs (Hair et al., 2006). The constructs of the measurement model for this study were conducted in the Exploratory Factor Analysis stage to consider the number of factors and the pattern of loading. The AMOS program was used to help the researcher process CFA.

Assessing measurement model validity

Assessing fit

In assessing the fit of the model, a number of indicators and statistics were calculated to determine the model fit, which are summarised in the table below together with the critical values.

Table 19: Absolute indicators to determine model fit

Measure	**Threshold**
Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	< 3 good
p-value for model	>.05
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	> .95
Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	> .80
Comparative fit index (CFI)	> .90
RMSEA	Below 1.0 acceptable model (.03-.08 with 98% confidence)

Proposed model one: The construct from EFA

The construct from EFA identified three factors and fifteen variables. In the Structural Equation Model (SEM) technique, a visual diagram normally uses measurement theories in order to illustrate the paths by the arrow pointing from the latent variables (Factors) to the measured items (Variables). Each path shows loading that is a theoretical linking between the selected measured items and its latent construct only which is different from EFA in that the loading is for each variable on every factor (Hair et al., 2006). Low loadings suggest that the percentage of variance that can be explained in the observed variable by that latent construct is low (Ho, 2013). According to the model that is constructed directly from the EFA stage, factor loadings should not be less than .5. However, the loading is not the only criteria to use when evaluating model fit. Various absolute indicators to determine model fit were also incorporated, as detailed below.

Figure 9: Proposed model (the construct from EFA)

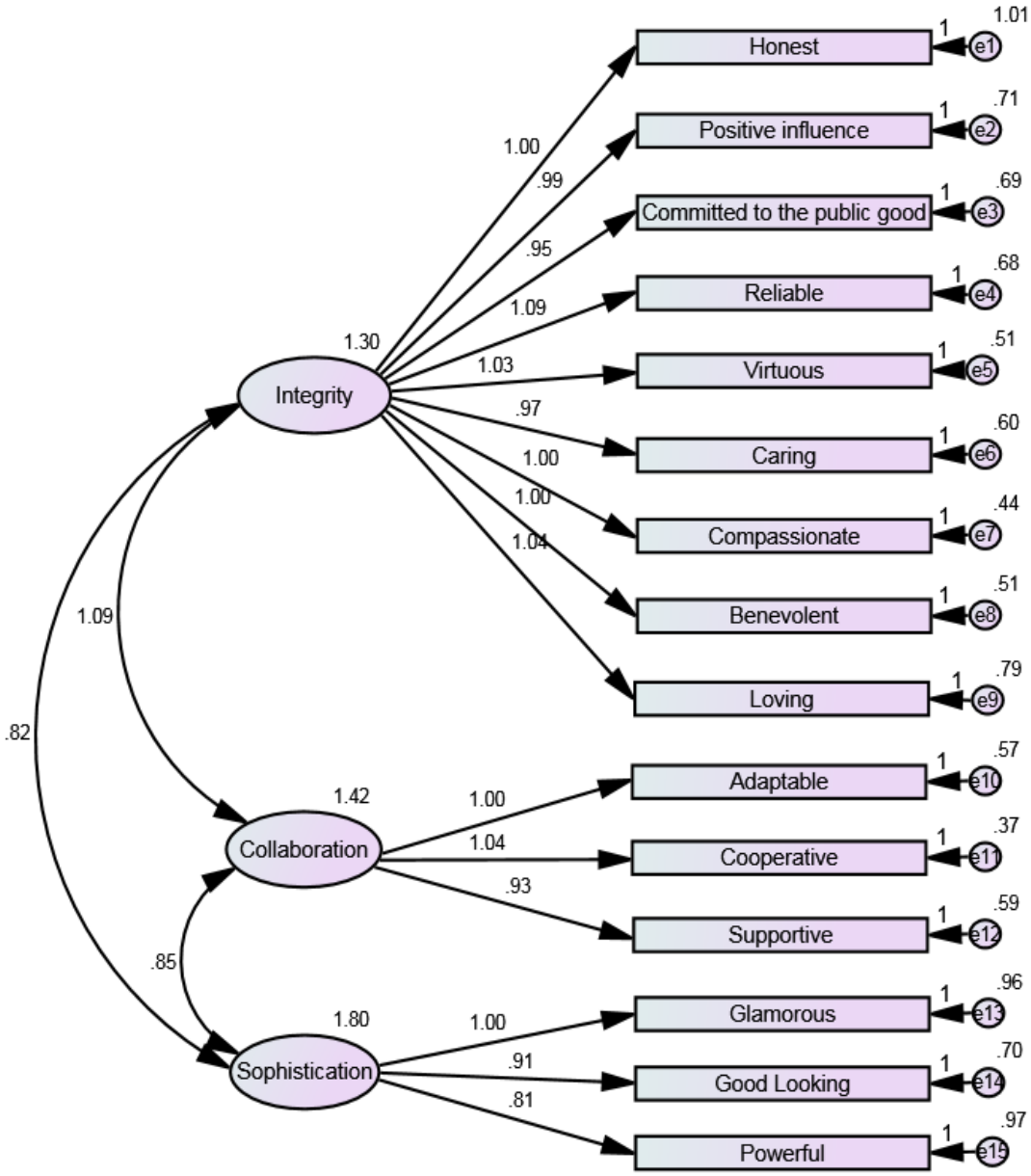


Table 20: The results of model fit (the construct from EFA)

According to this table below, the values indicate a poor fit between the model and the empirical data. Therefore, this model needs inspection and adjustment.

Threshold	Measurement	Results
< 3 good	Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	3.00
>.05	p-value for model	.00
> .90	Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	.74
> .80	Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	.64
> .90	Comparative fit index (CFI)	.87
(.03-.08)	RMSEA	.13

Table 21: Degrees of Freedom (DF) and P-value

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	33	261.0151	87	.0000	3.0002
Saturated model	120	.0000	0		
Independence model	15	1543.6878	105	.0000	14.7018

According to the value of model assessment indicators, a poor fit is indicated between the model and empirical data. First, Chi-square and p-value are fundamental to measuring model fit. Chi-square is the likelihood-ratio chi-square that measures goodness-of-fit (DF). The chi-square test indicates value to tell the researcher to reject the null hypotheses if there is a significant difference between the “observed” and the “expected” (degrees of freedom). The chi-square value should not be higher than 3 (Hair et al., 2006; Ho, 2013). The chi-square for this model is 3.00 which shows poor fit for this model. In addition, the p-value of this model is only .000 because the p-value should be higher than .05 to suggest good fit.

Table 22: Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.1273	.7449	.6481	.5401
Saturated model	.0000	1.0000		
Independence model	1.0361	.1874	.0713	.1639

Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is a measurement of how much better the model fits compared with no model at all, so the ranging of model fit is 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit). The threshold of GFI is > .95. GFI value for this proposed model is only .74. This is another indicator that this model is a poor fit.

Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) is adjusted for the degrees of freedom between the proposed model and the number of variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2012). The threshold for AGFI is >.80. AGFI for this model is less than .80 and only .64

Table 23: Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.8309	.7959	.8805	.8540	.8790
Saturated model	1.0000		1.0000		1.0000
Independence model	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) examines baseline comparisons. The average correlation between variables should be .90 or higher (Hair et al., 2006). CFI for this model is .87 that cannot achieve good fit.

Table 24: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.1319	.1137	.1504	.0000
Independence model	.3452	.3300	.3605	.0000

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is a measure of the discrepancy per degree of freedom. It is a relationship between the proposed model and estimated number in the population. RMSEA value is representative of the badness-of-fit where 0 indicates the best fit and a higher value indicates a bad fit. The threshold for RMSEA ranges from .03 to .08 indicating 98% confidence of good fit (Ho, 2013). Therefore, this model is a poor fit when RMSEA is .13.

According to the absolute indicators assessment of model fit above, the research can conclude that the model from EFA construct does not fit the data. This model needs to be investigated for problems and the model adjusted for the next stage.

Model modification

Step1: Inspect the highest covariance and Squared Multiple Correlations

Table25 : Covariances

			M.I.	Par Change
e12	<-->	e15	6.4025	.2166
e9	<-->	Sophistication	4.9780	-.1988
e8	<-->	e9	4.7548	.1085
e7	<-->	e9	34.5645	.3807
e6	<-->	e9	13.0541	.2063
e6	<-->	e8	12.0953	.1860
e6	<-->	e7	13.8069	.2584
e5	<-->	e9	5.5648	-.1259
e4	<-->	e9	4.1873	-.1242

			M.I.	Par Change
e4	<-->	e7	4.5156	-.1571
e4	<-->	e6	8.5815	-.1910
e4	<-->	e5	21.5549	.2830
e3	<-->	e8	4.8547	-.1249
e3	<-->	e6	6.2358	-.1622
e14	<-->	Collaboration	4.7931	-.1701
e14	<-->	Integrity	8.6258	.2107
e2	<-->	e9	14.0916	-.2315
e2	<-->	e7	13.0959	-.2717
e2	<-->	e3	14.6603	.2685
e1	<-->	e9	8.1341	-.2073
e1	<-->	e7	11.6767	-.3021
e1	<-->	e6	11.7687	-.2676
e1	<-->	e4	14.8135	.3193
e1	<-->	e3	15.7896	.3282
e1	<-->	e2	14.9814	.3259

Inspection of correlated errors is one of many techniques to identify unexpected problems and to improve model fit. Correlated errors can be related to two aspects: (1) errors between the terms of indicators (measured items) and latent variables. (2) errors among the terms of indicators (Ho, 2013). After examination of the modification indices, the correlation table illustrates high covariance that indicates the error among the terms of the indicators.

.e7 (Loving) & e9 (Benevolent) = 34.56

.e4 (Reliable) & e5 (Virtuous) = 21.55

.e1 (Honest) & e3 (Committed to the public good) = 15.78

.e6 (Caring) & e8 (Compassionate) = 12.09

e7 (Loving) & e9 (Benevolent) have high covariance at 34.56 that refers to high errors between the terms of indicators. So it was decided to eliminate e9 (Benevolent) because this item was found in the semi-structured interviews and was added to the questionnaire in order to test if it was best described in the context of Laos. As a result, 'Loving' from the model of Venable et al. (2005) can represent the charity brand personality in the Laos context. Similarly, e4 (Reliable) & e5 (Virtuous) is the second high covariance at 21.55. 'Virtuous' was also identified in the interviews and added in the questionnaire under 'Integrity' dimension. This high covariance shows that either 'Reliable' or 'Virtuous' can be best described in the charity brand personality in the Laos context.

e1 (Honest) & e3 (Committed to the public good) also have high covariance which accounted for 15.78 which means either of these items can be retained. Therefore it was decided to delete e3 (Committed to the public good). In addition, other high covariance items are e6 (Caring) and e8 (Compassionate) at 12.09 because these items share similar meaning when both items are related to feeling or showing sympathy and concern for others. So it was also decided to eliminate e8 (Compassionate).

Squared Multiple Correlations

Table 26: Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate
AM3Powerful	.5520
SO1GoodLooking	.6803
SO2Glamorous	.6528
CO3Supportive	.6781
CO2Cooperative	.8077
CO1Adaptable	.7146
NU4Benevolent	.7205
NU1Compassionate	.7488
NU3Loving	.6432
NU2Caring	.6708
IN5Virtuous	.7309
IN6Reliable	.6953
IN3CommittedPublicGood	.6293
IN2PositiveInfluence	.6441
IN1Honest	.5635

The explained variances of the 15 measured items are represented by Squared Multiple Correlations. It was decided to exclude measured items less than .60 in which the percentage of variance explained ranging from 60% or higher were retained. In the Squared Multiple Correlations table, there are three measured items less than .60, namely 'Powerful' (.55), 'Honest' (.56).

Table 27 : Covariances

			M.I.	Par Change
e13	<-->	Collaboration	4.1731	.1981
e12	<-->	Integrity	4.0464	.1223
e7	<-->	Sophistication	4.8499	-.2299
e6	<-->	e13	4.9292	-.2225
e6	<-->	e7	19.6104	.3500
e2	<-->	e7	11.8805	-.2896
e2	<-->	e4	5.5160	.1917

After deleting high correlated error items ('Benevolent', 'Virtuous', 'Committed to the public good' and 'Compassionate') and low Squared Multiple Correlations <.60 ('Powerful' at .55 and 'Honest' at .56), , the high correlated errors were inspected again. The Covariances (Table 27) showed a highly correlated error between e6 (Loving) & e7 (Caring). So it was decided to eliminate e6 (Loving) because either of these items can be a representative of charity brand personality in the Laos context. In addition, 'Loving' and 'Caring' share close meanings and can be categorised in the same quality.

Figure 10: Charity brand personality proposed model (after modification)

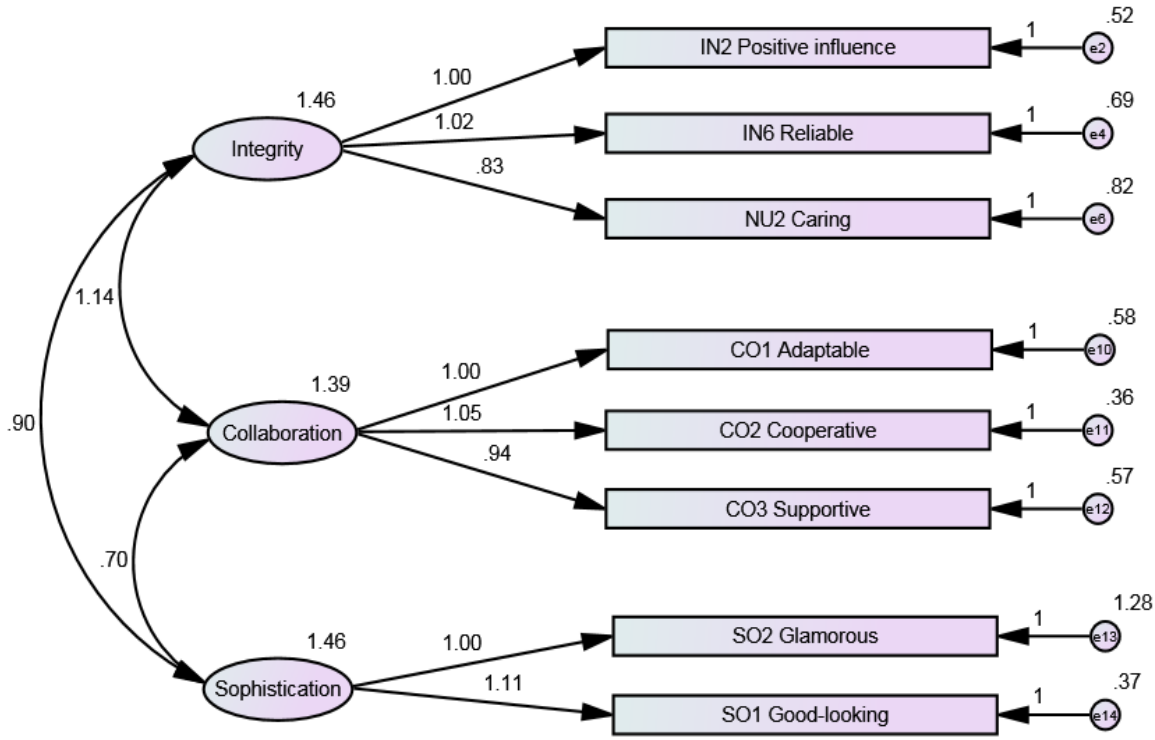


Table 28: The results of model fits after model modification

The value from the table below illustrates good fit of the model and the empirical data.

Threshold	Measurement	Results
< 3 good	Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	1.08
>.05	p-value for model	.36
> .90	Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	.96
> .80	Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	.91
> .90	Comparative fit index (CFI)	.99
(.03-.08)	RMSEA	.02

Table 29: Degrees of Freedom (DF) and P-value after model modification

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	19	18.4046	17	.3638	1.0826
Saturated model	36	.0000	0		
Independence model	8	555.6127	28	.0000	19.8433

As mentioned above, Chi-square and p-value are fundamental to measuring model fit. Chi-square is the likelihood-ratio chi-square that measures goodness-of-fit. After model modification, the Chi-square value was significantly improved from 3.00 to 1.08 which indicates better fit. In addition, p-value for this model is .36 which is the acceptable value for model fit. Furthermore, other absolute measures were used to determine the model fit.

Table 30: Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) after model modification

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.0789	.9617	.9189	.4541
Saturated model	.0000	1.0000		
Independence model	.9553	.3335	.1431	.2594

Based on the threshold of Goodness-of-fit index (GFI), GFI must be higher than .95. After model modification, GFI is .96 which indicated a better fit compared with the previous model.

Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) is adjusted for the degrees of freedom between the proposed model and the number of variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2012). The threshold for AGFI is >.80. AGFI for this model is higher than .80 at .91.

Table 31: Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.9669	.9454	.9974	.9956	.9973
Saturated model	1.0000		1.0000		1.0000
Independence model	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000	.0000

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) examines baseline comparisons. The average correlation between variables should be .90 or higher (Hair et al., 2006). CFI for this model is 1.00 which is another indicator of model fit.

Table 32: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.0268	.0000	.0906	.6526
Independence model	.4048	.3758	.4345	.0000

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is a measure of the discrepancy per degree of freedom. It is a relationship between the proposed model and estimated number in the population. RMSEA value is representative of the badness-of-fit where 0 indicates the best fit and a higher value indicates a bad fit. Therefore, this model is good fit when RMSEA is .02 which is close to 0.

Chapter summary

This chapter presented a detail analysis of the raw data collected from the semi-structured interviews and survey. After raw data was analysed from the semi-structured interviews with the eight participants from the Association Autism of Laos, the data revealed 26 new potential variables that were not mentioned in the literature

and other research. This shows that cultural differences affect the construct of charity brand personality. This issue will be discussed in the next chapter. Therefore, the new variables were added to test in the survey questionnaire approach along with the charity brand personality model of Venable et al. (2005). Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was then used for data reduction to reduce and summarise a large set of data to a smaller set of factors. Three factors and 15 variables were retained which presented high loadings. The final stage of data analysis was testing model fit. The model that was constructed directly from EFA was a poor fit between the model and the empirical data. As a result, model modification was needed to improve the model fit. Various techniques were used to inspect the problems such as correlated errors between the measured items, and eliminating items less than .60 from the Square Multiple Correlation. Finally, the model after modification indicated better fit that is based on various absolute indicators values to evaluate model fit. The details—and implications—of the findings are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Five

Discussion and conclusion

5. 1 Introduction

Chapter Five is a discussion about findings from the previous chapter. In addition, this discussion is based on empirical data and theories that were highlighted in Chapters Two and Four. After that the conclusions of this research will be made. Before moving to the discussion, it is first necessary to briefly review the purpose of this study. The aim of this research is to identify charity brand personality as perceived by donors in Laos. In order to achieve the aim, this research sought to achieve the following six objectives: (1) To determine the perceptions of donors of charity brand personality, (2) To determine the charity brand personality dimensions in Laos, (3) To evaluate the goodness-of-fit of the hypothesised model to the data from the Laos sample in order to provide support for the brand personality in charitable organisations in Laos, (4) To analyse and test research hypotheses, (5) To develop a charity brand personality model in Laos and (6) To discuss charity brand personality in a cross-cultural context.

The data was collected in Vientiane, the capital city of Laos. In the previous chapter, the results from various analyses of the raw data found some interesting results that will be discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, this discussion is related to the empirical data and the literature. The discussion will be divided into two parts, namely interviews and questionnaires.

5.2 Discussion of interviews

The questions in semi-structured interviews were designed to achieve the first objective which is to determine the perceptions of donors of charity brand personality. The semi-structured interviews were used to explore the perceptions of Lao people who are donors and also have knowledge about the nonprofit sectors in Laos. This

will make it possible to study charity brand personality across cultures as well as to discover potential variables.

Discussion question one

The interviews began with a warm up question in order for the researcher to understand the motivation of the participants to work with this organisation as well as in the nonprofit sector. According to the data analysis, the eight participants' motivation to work with the Association for Autism in Laos can be summarised in three main points.

First, three of the interviewees have autistic children. There has been no support from the Lao government or any nonprofit organisation because autism is a new issue in Laos. Therefore, they decided to form the first nonprofit organisation to help autistic people in Laos. Participant 4, the president of this organisation, added that after she found out that her son was autistic, she took him to this training centre that was initially operated by a group of parents who also have autistic children. There were some parents that could not afford to have their children trained. Therefore, a group of parents decided to form a nonprofit organisation and open for donations to support parents and children to have equal opportunity. Thus, this organisation was initially established from the mothers' care, love, cooperation and support, which are the same facets as in the charity brand personality of Venable et al. (2005) and new trait items found during the interviews. Second, three trainers have similar motivation in that they have a passion to work with children with special needs and feel rewarded when the autistic children make some improvement. Third, two of the participants always work with the nonprofit sector. They have a special interest in working with autistic people. Again, their main motivation to work with this organisation as well as nonprofit organisations fits with the model of Venable et al. (2005) and the new items found during the interview, such as care, compassion and commitment to the public good.

Discussion questions two, three and four

In questions two, three and four, the participants were asked to think of three charity organisations that are involved in educational development, relief and healthcare. These questions helped the researcher to understand why particular organisations appeared in the participants' mind during the interviews. The answers are quite varied. In the educational sector, the eight participants mentioned eight different NPOs that provide educational development in Laos. Although all the participants listed different NPOs, some of the participants had similar reasons why they think of these NPOs. For instance, participant 2 and 4 were impressed with the work of the Room to Read and the Big Brother Mouse that helped students in the rural areas. Participant 5, 6 and 8 used to work or coordinate with the organisations that they chose. Finally, participants 1, 3 and 7 knew about the organisations from the media and their reputations.

In the relief sector, the Lao Red Cross was the most listed organisation. Five participants chose the Lao Red Cross when they were asked to think of an organisation that is involved in relief. There are many reasons why the Lao Red Cross is on top of the participants' minds. For example, participants 1 and 8 saw the Lao Red Cross from the media because the organisation helps people affected by natural disasters. Participant 2 knew about this organisation helping her friend's family after a natural disaster in the rural area. Participants 6 and 7 saw social work and activities that this organisation contributes to the society.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) and Population Services International (PSI) are the most mentioned organisations in the healthcare sector as three participants chose WHO, and two participants selected PSI. Participants 1, 6 and 8, who chose WHO, gave the reasons that this organisation is a leading organisation that deals with public health issues. Furthermore, it is a large and well-known organisation. For PSI, two participants had the same reasons, that PSI has many activities and advertising strategies to attract people's attention.

For the reasons above, there are some interesting points that organising activities, advertising and reputations of the NPOs play significant roles in bringing them to the top of people's mind. Many NPOs that the participants mentioned are quite well-

known and actively involved in social development at a local and international level. They have maintained their reputation well for a long time. Sargeant et al. (2008) also raise an interesting point that NPOs have long recognised the importance of maintaining consistent policies and actions to make sure that a coherent personality is perceived by the stakeholders. These practices are seen as the essence of branding concept. Daw and Cone (2011) are of an opinion that if NPOs want to stand out among the long list of charitable options, safeguarding themselves against unpredictable political and economic pressure and becoming charities of choice, they need to build a breakthrough nonprofit brand in a complicated philanthropic marketplace. Therefore, branding is not only essential for profit sectors, but nonprofit sectors also need to build their brands to differentiate themselves from other organisations in the same category (Mort, Weerawardena, & OAM, 2007; Venable et al., 2005).

As mentioned in Chapter One, Laos relies heavily on foreign aid and donor-funded programs which account for 8.5 percent of GDP (Global Edge, 2012), while the nonprofit sector at the international level has been facing many challenges. First, NPOs need to seek private donations because the government is reducing funding to this sector. Second, the number of NPOs is increasing rapidly which results in strong competition for funding and volunteers. Third, donors tend to be fickle due to increasing competition for donations (A Sargeant, Hudson, et al., 2008; Venable et al., 2005).

At the local level, the president of the Association for Autism revealed, Mrs. Viengsam Indavong, mentioned that although their main funding is from international donors, the organisation has to implement many strategies and activities to raise awareness of autism as well as raise funding from private sectors such as individual donors and commercial companies in order to sustain their operation for a long term. She also emphasised that the organisation has been planning to have more fundraising activities and open a shop to obtain regular funding rather than only waiting for donations. As Venable et al. (2005) mention the nonprofit sector has been focusing on implementing marketing strategies as aggressively as the big businesses including marketing segmentation, building relationships, database marketing and branding.

Brand personality has emerged to strongly differentiate each brand from other competitors (Seimiene, 2012) but brand personality is still in the developing stage. To date, only Venable et al (2005) have conducted empirical research on the brand personality model in the nonprofit sector. Venable et al. have found some similarities and differences between brand personality in the charity and profit sector (A Sargeant, Ford, et al., 2008). Furthermore, in the models of charity brand personality that have been studied in German, Spanish, French and Japanese contexts, some of the dimensions and corresponding items also found similarities and differences. Many researchers argue that nonprofit brand personality that was developed by Venable et al. in the US, cannot be generalised in an intercultural context (Voeth & Herbst, 2008). As a result, this researcher continued to question five to identify and explore charity brand personality in the perception of Lao people.

Discussion question five

Question five is a vital question for this research that guides the researcher to answer two sub-research questions: (1) to what extent do charitable organisations have personalities? And (2) what kind of personality is perceived by donors in Laos? All the eight participants were asked to imagine and describe human characteristics of the organisations that they chose from questions two, three and four. All participants had no problem imagining the nonprofit organisations that they chose as a person. All the traits from the charity brand personality model of Venable et al. (2005) were mentioned, except 'reliable, 'glamorous' and 'western'. Finally, there were 6 new dimensions and 24 new trait items found from the semi-structured interview. These 24 trait items are the new potential variables that were included and tested in the questionnaire in order to develop a conceptual model for charity brand personality in Laos. Similarly, the research of Voeth and Herbst (2008) on charity brand personality in Germany also conducted mixed method research to explore charity brand personality across cultures. The results of their interviews identified 50 new traits items that are suitable for NPOs in Germany.

The 24 new trait items and the 14 items from the model of Venable et al. (2005) were included in the questionnaire in order to measure and test hypotheses by using a quantitative approach. There were a total of 10 categories and 38 trait items. Each trait was rated on a seven-point Likert Scale where 1 refers to less descriptive and 7 is

the most descriptive. In the study of charity brand personality of Venable et al. in the United States, these researchers also combined Aaker's (1997) original 42 items with 12 new trait items found on the basis of the results of the qualitative research. Venable et al. gave the reasons for adding new items to measure the potential social nature of nonprofits and to capture more precisely the trust aspect such as integrity that was identified in the qualitative research. In addition, this researcher observed that some of the new characteristics could be included in the four dimensions charity brand personality model of Venable et al. For example, 'virtuous' is suitable to be placed under the 'Integrity' dimension. Some new traits were added to the model of Venable et al. (2005) because the traits of this model may not best describe characteristics in the Laos context. (See Table 11 and 12)

5. 3 Discussion of the questionnaire

The survey questionnaire made it possible to determine the dimensions of brand personality of charitable organisations in Laos based on a larger sample of donors, which is one of the research objectives. Nueman (2011) mentions that a quantitative approach tests the relationship or hypothesis that researchers have in mind for verification. In addition, conceptual model development is normally conducted in the quantitative approach.

The questionnaire encompasses three main parts, namely, donor behaviours, charity brand personality and demographic details. Data from the questionnaires was entered and processed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The SPSS program provides many data analysis techniques to help researchers analyse a large set of data. There were three main stages of data analysis in the questionnaire. Stage one studies donor behaviour and donor demographic details in which the 'Frequencies' technique was used to analyse data. Stage two is data reduction where Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a significant technique to manage a large set of data into factors or components. Stage three is the final stage where Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is an appropriate analytical technique that allows the researcher to determine the validation of scales for the measurement of charity brand personality in the Laos context. Each stage of the finding results will be discussed in detail as follows.

5.3.1 Discussion of donor behaviour

116 respondents were asked to rate how often they donate to charity in general, excluding donating for religious purposes. The rating was from 1 to 7 where 1 means very rarely and 7 refers to very often. Overall, the highest frequency of donation was ranked between 2 to 4. The highest number of the respondents is in the ranking of number 3 (31%), ranking 2 and 4 are 23% and 20.7% respectively which indicates occasional donating behaviour. The types of charity that the respondents most donate to are social services (39.7%), education (16.4%) and advocacy (14.7%). Referring back to the interviews, most listed organisations from the participants are the organisations that have many public activities, advertising and are well-known organisations such as the Lao Red Cross. It provides many social services, and its activities are shown in the media. The empirical data from the interviews and questionnaire supports the theories that branding is very important for the nonprofit sector. For example, Sargeant and Ford (2007) state that branding reduces risk because individual donors cannot investigate whether their money was actually used effectively, so developing a brand identity that is associated with a commitment to deliver high quality goods and services is essential for NPOs because donations rely heavily on donors' perceptions and trust.

5.3.2 Data reduction process

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used as the first step to gather information about the interrelationships among the set of variables. The data reduction approach provides metric variables that provide different ways of understanding the forms of association. A large set of data is reduced into scale and index to discover latent variables, to measure variables and to simplify analysis (Blaikie, 2009). In EFA, there are three main steps involved: (1) assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, (2) factor extraction and (3) factor rotation and interpretation.

Step1: Assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis:

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is a measurement of sample adequacy. The value of KMO should be .6 or above. In addition, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value should be significant .05 or smaller (Pallant, 2005). In this study, KMO value is .923, and Bartlett's test is significant (p=.000) as it indicates that factor analysis is appropriate. In addition, the correlation matrix provides details about the strength of the inter-correlations among the items. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggest that if only a few coefficients greater than .3 are found, factor analysis may not be appropriate. According to the correlation matrix table, the majority of the items are above .3; therefore, the data is considered to have a good strength of inter-correlation. Thus, the analysis in step two could be proceeded with.

Step 2: Factor extraction

The most common approach to extract the number of underlying factors is component analysis. The researcher decided to use the Scree plot technique and Kaiser's criterion.

The scree plot illustrates the fact that the critical change in the gradient of the line starting at component 3, which refers to eigenvalue, is 1.0 or more. Although component 1 captures much more of the variance than other remaining components, from this stage, the researcher decided to retain three components. The researcher also used Kaiser's criterion technique as a second stage to determine which factors to retain. Kaiser's criterion is known as the eigenvalue rule. Only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained. The first seven components, which recorded eigenvalues above 1.0 are presented. These seven components explain a total of 72.87% of the variance. However, the components 4, 5, 6 and 7 are just above eigenvalue at 1.0, which indicates that they are not significant variances or weak factors. As a result, only three factors were retained.

Step3: Factor rotation and interpretation

After the numbers of factor were sorted to three factors, interpreting the data was required. Factor Rotation makes interpreting data easier by presenting a loading pattern. In this case, Varimax rotation technique is used to rotate factors. The Rotated Component Matrix (Table 16) presents high loading to three factors which support the

researcher's assumption that components 5, 6 and 7 may have only one or two items loading which is considered to be a weak factor. Although factor 4 has three items loaded, the Scree plot diagram significantly breaks from factor 3 and is far behind factor 4. Therefore, the researcher decided to retain three factors.

The relationship of any item to a factor is called factor loading. Sample size is an important aspect to determine whether a loading is statistically significant. According to Blaike (2003), the minimum loading for 100 respondents is .51. Since this study includes 38 variables, the researcher needed to explore a simple solution with as few factors as possible. Therefore, the variables that have a coefficient value less than .60, were suppressed and are not present in the table. The output from factor rotation is quite clean and linear. Many variables are loaded strongly in factor 1. There are up to nine items loaded into factor one with high loading. Factor 2 and 3 comprise three items (See Table 16).

Exploratory Factor Analysis is used for exploring and organising the data in order to indicate how many factors are needed to best represent the data set so that factors are derived from statistical results, not from theory (Hair, et al., 2006). Therefore, CFA is the next data analysis process to illustrate how well the factors match the empirical data and how well the indicators represent the latent variables that are not measured directly (Sharma & Mukherjee, 1996). Therefore, the researcher can accept or reject the preconceived theory (Sharma & Mukherjee, 1996).

5.3.3 Discussion of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Model fit)

EFA is normally used to refine the construct as the first stage before CFA analysis is conducted in the scale development. The constructs of the measurement model for this study were refined in the Exploratory Factor Analysis stage that identified the three factors (latent variables in CFA) and fifteen variables (measured items in CFA). CFA serves two objectives: to estimate the parameters of the hypothesised factor model and to examine the model fit of the hypothesised factor model (Sharma & Mukherjee, 1996).

Discussion of the proposed model one

The proposed model that was constructed directly from the EFA stage includes three latent variables (‘Integrity’, ‘Collaboration’ and ‘Sophistication’). The ‘Integrity’ latent variable comprises nine measured items (‘Honest’, ‘Positive Influence’, ‘Committed to the public good’, ‘Reliable’, ‘Virtuous’, ‘Caring’, ‘Compassionate’, ‘Loving’ and ‘Benevolent’). ‘Collaboration’ has only three measured items (‘Adaptable’, ‘Cooperation’ and ‘Supportive’). The last one is ‘Sophistication’ that also captures three measured items (‘Glamorous’, ‘Good looking’ and ‘Powerful’).

The proposed model that was constructed directly from the EFA stage indicates poor fit to the empirical data. The researcher used various absolute indicators to analyse the model fit.

First, Chi-square and p-value are fundamental to measuring model fit. Chi-square is the likelihood-ratio chi-square that measures goodness-of-fit. The chi-square test indicates value to tell the researcher to reject the null hypotheses, if there is a significant difference between the “observed” and the “expected”. The threshold of chi-square value should not be higher than 3 (Hair et al., 2006; Ho, 2013). The chi-square for this model is 3.00 which shows poor fit. Nevertheless, the chi-square test depends on the sample size. Normally a large sample affects the model fit to the data statistically. In addition, the p-value of this model is less than .05 at .000 which is another indicator of poor fit.

Second, Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is a measurement of how much better the model fits compared with no model at all. The threshold of GFI is > .95 (Hair et al. 2006). GFI value of this model is only .74.

Third, Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) is adjusted for the degrees of freedom between the proposed model and the number of variables. The threshold for AGFI is >.80 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2012). AGFI for this model is less than .80 and only .64.

Fourth, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) examines baseline comparisons. The average correlation between variables should be .90 or higher (Hair et al., 2006). CFI value for this model is .87.

Fifth, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is a measure of the discrepancy per degree of freedom. It is a relationship between the proposed model and estimated number in the population. RMSEA value is representative of the badness-of-fit where 0 indicates the best fit and a higher value indicates a bad fit. The threshold for RMSEA ranges from .03 to .08 indicating 98% confidence of good fit (Ho, 2013). Therefore, this model is a poor fit when RMSEA is .13.

According to the absolute indicators assessment of model fit above, the researcher can conclude that the model from EFA constructed does not fit the data. This model needs to be investigated for problems and needed model modification for the next stage.

Discussion of model modification

The researcher investigated the problems and adjusted the model in several steps as follows:

Step1: Inspect correlated errors and square multiple correlations

Inspection of correlated errors is one of many techniques to identify unexpected problems and to improve model fit. Correlated errors can be related to two aspects: (1) errors between the terms of measured items and latent variables. (2) errors between the terms of indicators (Ho, 2013). After examination of the modification indices, the correlation table illustrates high covariance (See Table 25), which indicates the error between the terms of the measured items.

.e7 (Loving) & e9 (Benevolent) = 34.56

.e4 (Reliable) & e5 (Virtuous) = 21.55

.e1 (Honest) & e3 (Committed to the public good) = 15.78

.e6 (Caring) & e8 (Compassionate) = 12.09

e9 (Benevolent) and e5 (Virtuous) were deleted because these items were found in the qualitative approach and were added to the questionnaire in order to test if they were best described in the context of Laos. As a result, ‘Loving’ and ‘Reliable’ from the model of Venable et al. (2005) can represent the charity brand personality in the Laos

context. In addition, e6 (Caring) and e8 (Compassionate) have high covariance because they share a similar meaning with both items relating to feeling or showing sympathy and concern for others. It was decided to eliminate e8 (Compassionate). Similarly, e1 (Honest) & e3 (Committed to the public good) also have high covariance which means either of these items can be retained. The researcher decided to delete e3 (Committed to the public good).

Squared Multiple Correlations

The explained variances of the 15 measured items are represented by Squared Multiple Correlations. It was decided to exclude measured items less than .60. In the Squared Multiple Correlations (Table 26), there are three measured items less than .60, namely 'Powerful' (.55) and 'Honest' (.56).

Step 2: Final inspection of high correlated error items

After deleting high correlated error items and low Squared Multiple Correlations <.60 ('Powerful' and 'Honest'), the correlated errors were inspected again. The Covariances (Table 27) shows a high correlated error between e6 (Loving) & e7 (Caring). Due to the fact that 'Loving' and 'Caring' share close meanings and can be categorised in the same quality the researcher decided to eliminate e6 (Loving).

Model after modification

After applying model modification techniques above, the model has significantly improved whih can be seen from the values of several absolute indicators for model fit. First, The Chi-square value was significantly improved from 3.00 to 1.08 which illustrates better fit of this model. Furthermore, p-value of this model is .36 which is higher than .05. This value is an acceptable value for model fit. Second, Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) for this model is .96 which is above the threshold at .95. Third, Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) is adjusted for the degrees of freedom between the proposed model and the number of variables. The threshold for AGFI is >.80. AGFI for this model is higher than .80 at .91. Another absolute indicator of

better fit is Comparative Fit Index (CFI). CFI for this model is 1.00 which is higher than .90. Lastly, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is a measure of the discrepancy per degree of freedom. It is a relationship between the proposed model and estimated number in the population. RMSEA value is representative of the badness-of-fit where 0 indicates the best fit and a higher value indicates a bad fit. Therefore, this model is good fit when RMSEA is .02 which is close to 0.

Discussion of Charity brand personality of the proposed model after modification

This model contains three dimensions and eight facets. 'Integrity' freed six parameters and retained three facets, namely 'Positive influence', 'Reliable' and 'Caring'. 'Collaboration' remained three facets that include 'Adaptable', 'Cooperative' and 'Supportive'. 'Sophistication' freed one parameter ('Powerful') and retained two facets ('Glamorous' and 'Good looking').

Table 33: Charity brand personality in a Lao context

Integrity	Collaboration	Sophistication
-Positive Influence -Reliable -Caring	-Adaptable -Cooperative -Supportive	-Glamorous -Good looking

Dimension one is a combination of 'Integrity' and 'Nurturance' from the model of Venable et al. (2005). In the charity brand personality model developed by Voeth and Herbst (2008), these researchers also combined 'Social Competence' and 'Trust' as dimension one and combined 'Emotion' and 'Assertiveness' as dimension two. However, the dimensions of their model creates confusion about what really measures between 'Social Competence' or 'Trust'. Therefore, it was decided to name 'Integrity' for this study because both names were tried in CFA analysis (scale development stage) and 'Integrity' provided better model fit results than 'Nurturance'.

Dimension two is ‘Collaboration’ which is a new dimension and new trait items found from the interviews. This affirms the researcher’s assumption that different cultures may identify different charity brand personality dimensions. For example, the study of Voeth and Herbst (2008) of charity brand personality in Germany also found new dimensions. In addition, many studies of commercial brand personality in different countries found similarities and different dimensions. The study of Aaker, Martines and Garolena (2001) found overlap between Japanese and American brand personality dimensions. The Japanese brand personality model also embraces five dimensions as does American brand personality. Nevertheless, the ‘Ruggedness’ dimension in the American brand personality was replaced by ‘Peacefulness’. Furthermore, Aaker, Martines and Garolena (2001) extended their research on cultural differences affecting the constructs of brand personality dimensions in a Spanish context. The results of their research also found similarities and differences, as did the Japanese context. Again, ‘Ruggedness’ (United States) was replaced by ‘Passion’ (Spain).

Dimension three is ‘Sophistication’. It is an interesting dimension because different studies from commercial to nonprofit sectors also identify this dimension. In addition, in the studies of brand personality in other countries such as Japan and Spain by Aaker, Martines and Garolena (2001) and in Germany by Voeth and Herbst (2008), the ‘Sophistication’ dimension was found in their research. From this study, the ‘Sophistication’ dimension includes two items (‘Glamorous’ and ‘Good looking’), excluding ‘Upper class’. It means that ‘Upper class’ has a coefficient value less than .60; therefore, this item was suppressed.

5.4 Discussion of reliability and validity

5.4.1 Reliability

The purpose of reliability is to confirm the stability and replicability of the research. It means the degree to which all the items in the scale are measuring the same underlying attribute (Bryman, 2009). The most commonly used statistic to measure internal consistency is Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha of a scale should be above .7. In summary, the proposed model of charity brand

personality in the Laos context has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .892 which indicates that this new scale is reliable.

Table 34: Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.892	8

5.4.2 Validity

As mentioned earlier CFA was applied to determine the construct validity. Validity examines if the instruments really measure the concept (Bryman, 2012). CFA/SEM are able to assess the construct validity to determine if the set of measured items really reflects theoretical latent constructs because it focuses on the accuracy of measurement. The SEM program computes factor scores for each respondent. Hair et al. (2006) explain that "this process allows relationships between constructs to be automatically corrected for the amount of error variance that exists in the construct measures" (Hair et al., 2006, p.776). Measurement validity depends on goodness-of-fit (GOF) to be evidence of construct validity. GOF refers to how well the model reproduces the covariance matrix among the indicator items (Everitt & Hothorn, 2011). According to the proposed model of charity brand personality in the Laos context, this model indicates scale validity as was summarised in Table 28.

5.5 Hypotheses testing

The first study of brand personality dimensions for the nonprofit sector was conducted by Venable et al. (2005) in the United States. Later, some research on charity brand personality was studied in other countries such as Germany by Voeth and Herbst (2008). The detailed analysis and evaluation of the three dimensional models of Aaker (1997), Venable et al. (2005) and Voeth and Herbst (2008) are in Chapter Two. The researcher decided to apply Venable et al.'s (2005) model to study charity brand personality in a Laos context because this model was developed specifically for the nonprofit sector. The researcher decided to use the model of

Venable et al. (2005) for this study and posited four hypotheses as follows:

H1: Integrity has relationships with a charity's brand personality in a Lao context

H2: Ruggedness has relationships with a charity's brand personality in a Lao context

H3: Sophistication has relationships with a charity's brand personality in a Lao context

H4: Nurturance has relationships with a charity's brand personality in a Lao context

Based on the research methodology, collection of empirical data in Laos and data analysis, the researcher found that 'Integrity' and 'Sophistication' dimensions from the model of Venable et al. (2005) are the same as the proposed model for charity brand personality in the Laos context. However, the facets of the 'Integrity' dimension from both models are slightly different. The 'Integrity' dimension of Venable et al. consists of five facets, namely 'Honest', 'Positive influence', 'Committed to the public good', 'Reputable' and 'Reliable'. In the proposed model only three facets remain which include 'Positive Influence', 'Reliable' and 'Caring'. Similarly, in the 'Sophistication' dimension, the facets for both models are also slightly different. There are only two facets in the proposed model, except 'Upper class'. As a result, H1 and H3 have relationships with charity brand personality in the Laos context (except H1 and H3).

On the other hand, 'Ruggedness' and 'Nurturance' dimensions are not found in the proposed model for charity brand personality in the Laos context. The study of Veoth and Herbst (2008) of charity brand personality for NPOs in Germany, also found that the 'Ruggedness' dimension did not exist in their model. Referring to the studies of commercial brand personality in Japan and Spain by Aaker, Martines and Garolena (2001), 'Ruggedness' was replaced by 'Peacefulness' in the Japanese brand personality. Furthermore, 'Ruggedness' also was replaced by 'Passion' in the brand personality study in Spain. The pre-test questionnaire for this study provided evidence that the 'Western' facet that is one of the facets in the 'Ruggedness' dimension, had to be deleted because three Asian participants did not understand this term, while two participants from European counties had no difficulty rating this item. As a result, it can be concluded that cultural differences directly affect the construct of brand personality in the commercial sector as well as the nonprofit sector because the

‘Ruggedness’ dimension is related to American and some Western cultures.

The ‘Nurturance’ dimension was not included in the proposed model because all the facet items (‘Caring’, ‘Compassionate’ and ‘Loving’) from this dimension were combined in the ‘Integrity’ facets at the EFA analysis stage. However, CFA is the analysis that was used to test the hypotheses. After examination of the modification indices, the correlation table illustrates high covariance which indicates the error between the terms of ‘Caring’ and ‘Compassionate’ due to the fact that ‘Caring’ and ‘Compassionate’ have a close meaning in terms of feeling or showing sympathy and concern for others. In Square Multiple Correlations, ‘Loving’ facet has a value of less than .60; therefore, this item was excluded. Consequently, H2 and H4 were rejected.

Chapter summary

Chapter Five is a comprehensive discussion of the results of the data analysis in Chapter Four. Based on the discussion above, this research has achieved the six research objectives. First, from the semi-structured interviews, 24 new trait items were identified from Lao people’s perceptions of characteristics of charitable organisations in Laos. Second, this research applied Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in the quantitative stage to determine the dimensions of charity brand personality in Laos. The CFA data analysis technique was used to develop a conceptual model and to evaluate the model validity. The model that was constructed directly from EFA indicated poor fit between the empirical data and the model. Therefore, this model required modification to achieve the next research objective which was to evaluate the goodness-of-fit of the hypothesised model. Various techniques were incorporated to improve model fit, such as absolute fit indices. Finally, the model after modification indicated good fit that was based on various absolute indicators values to evaluate the model fit. The charity brand personality in the Laos context was developed and proposed three dimensions and eight facets, which shared similarities and differences from the model of Venable et al. (2005), as well as results obtained from similar analyses in other countries. This research accepted two hypotheses (‘Integrity’ and ‘Sophistication’) and rejected two hypotheses (‘Ruggedness’ and ‘Nurturance’), due to the fact that cultural differences

influence the construct of charity brand personality dimension. From this research has emerged the 'Collaboration' dimension that is different from the studies in other countries.

5.6 Conclusion

This is the conclusion of the research project. The aim of this research is to identify charity brand personality as perceived by the donors in Laos. This research has developed a conceptual model of charity brand personality in the context of Laos. Due to the fact that results of many studies about brand personality in commercial and nonprofit sectors share similarities and differences. Therefore, the research question to be explored in this thesis is *"What are the dimensions of brand personality in charitable organisations in a Laos context?"* In addition, to answer this research question and also to support a comprehensive conclusion to this question, several sub-questions have been identified. These sub-questions were the guidelines for the researcher in collecting primary data logically: (1) to what extent do charitable organisations have personalities? (2) what kinds of personality are perceived by Lao donors? (3) why are these types of personalities common perceptions in Laos?

5.6.1 Research question one

To what extent do charitable organisations have personalities?

A qualitative, semi-structured interview approach was used to answer this research question because this method is appropriate to study people's experience and gain insight into it. The semi-structured interviews were conducted with the eight participants from the Association for Autism in Laos. They had no difficulty imagining and describing NPOs as a person. Similarly, much other research mentions that consumers have no difficulty describing personalities of a brand as if it was a person in both qualitative and quantitative research (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003). As a result, it can be concluded that charitable organisations have personalities.

5.6.2 Research question two

What kinds of personality are perceived by Lao donors?

In the semi-structured interviews, all eight participants were asked to imagine and

describe human characteristics of the organisations. After sorting and eliminating the duplicated characteristics from the eight interviews, 24 new trait items were identified. All the traits from the charity brand personality model of Venable et al. (2005) were mentioned, except 'reliable', 'glamorous' and 'western'. The research of Voeth and Herbst (2008) on charity brand personality in Germany also identified 50 new traits items that are suitable for NPOs in Germany. The trait items were organised and categorised based on: (1) combining the characteristics that have similar or close meanings and (2) grouping the characteristics, which related to a similar quality. Finally, 6 new categories and 24 new trait items have become the new potential variables of charity brand personality in the context of Laos (See Table 11). These new variables based on cultural differences and the perception of donors in Laos such as collaborative, creative and fair were specially identified in this study.

5.6.3 Research question three

Why are these types of personalities common perceptions in Laos?

A quantitative approach was incorporated in the second stage in developing the conceptual model of charity brand personality in Laos and testing hypotheses along with the chosen brand personality measure scales from Venable et al. (2005) in relation to reliability and validity. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is widely used in business measured scale development in order to analyse and test a conceptual grounded theory that comprises different measured items. In addition, CFA was applied in this study to determine the construct validity because CFA/SEM are able to assess the construct validity to determine if the set of measured items really reflects theoretical latent constructs because it focuses on the accuracy of measurement. According to the absolute model fit indicators that illustrated significant results of the model fit, the proposed model after modification is considered to be a valid model for the Laos context.

This model contains three dimensions and eight facets, which is different from the charity brand personality of Venable et al. (2005) that consists of four dimensions. However, this model shares some similarities and differences from the model of Venable et al. such as the 'Integrity' and 'Sophistication' dimensions. The 'Integrity'

dimension consists of three facets, namely 'Positive influence', 'Reliable' and 'Caring'. 'Sophistication' comprises only two facets ('Glamorous' and 'Good looking'). The 'Collaboration' dimension is a new dimension that emerged in this study. This dimension includes three facets 'Adaptable', 'Cooperative' and 'Supportive'. It can be concluded that cultural differences directly affect the construct of charity brand personality, due to the fact that NPOs have long been recognised as playing a key role in providing social and economic development in Laos. NPOs collaborate with local government and local people to operate 570 projects in ten main sectors: (1) agriculture, forestry and fisheries, (2) community development, (3) data collection & analysis, (4) education, (5) emergency and humanitarian relief, (6) health care, (7) human resource development, (8) income generation & economic development, (9) natural resources and ecology, and (10) social development (Directory of Non-Government Organizations, 2013). As a result, the 'Collaboration' dimension is a new and unique dimension that emerged in the study of charity brand personality of Laos.

5.7 Contribution of the proposed model

So far, there is only a little literature and research about nonprofit brands in Laos. This study has carefully planned and applied acceptable methodology, data collection and data analysis techniques. Therefore, this study contributes to researchers and practictioners about developing nonprofit brands in Laos specifically, and in developing countries in general., Brand personality has been an especially successful branding strategy in the commercial sector. The brand personality concept was adapted from the commercial brand personality to charity brand personality not long ago. According to the research of Sargeant & Ford (2007), organisations that create distinctive brand personalities are able to get more awareness among the public, raise more money, and be more effective. Therefore, if NPOs lack a unique brand personality, it is not sufficient to get donors' attention.

Although Laos depends heavily on foreign aid, both international and local NPOs still need to build their brands at different levels and target donors to finance their operations. Hou, Du and Tian (2009) argue that there is a strong relationship between individual donors' self-concept and their giving intention because self-concept is strongly based on consumer mentality and behaviour. Donors always increase their

giving intentions towards charitable organisations with a brand personality that is more congruent with their own self-concept. Charity brand personality is a new concept of nonprofit branding strategy in Laos. This proposed model that was developed specifically in the context of Laos, may help NPOs in Laos to identify their unique brand personality in order to attract more donors as well as raise awareness.

5.8 Limitations and suggestions for future research

Although this research project was carefully planned and used a mixed method approach to minimise the limitation of each single method, the limitations of this study still exist. First, this research is a small-scale project. In the interviews phase, the researcher focused on only three nonprofit sectors, including educational development, relief and health care when exploring human characteristics of NPOs in Laos. These nonprofit sectors may not be able to be generalised to all other sectors due to the fact that NPOs in Laos are divided into 10 main sectors.

Second, research is normally based on modification indices that are the technique to identify statistical problems in the model. Based on empirical modification indices, researchers consider adding or deleting parameters from a theoretical model. Some methodologists are of the opinion that model modification may not be an appropriate method because freeing a parameter that is suggested by modification indices does not take into account the theoretical plausibility. However, it is acceptable to modify a model if it is done in a sensible way and with conceptual justifications (Stevens, 2012).

Schumacker and Lomax (2012) suggest that after model modification, future research should undertake to test and confirm model validation by replicating the study by using multiple sample analysis, performing cross-validation or bootstrapping the parameter estimates to identify the amount of bias. In order to address the inherent limitations of model modification, it would be useful to replicate this study in the future with different samples, as well as extend this line of inquiry to other developing countries.

5.9 Closing statement

It can be concluded that branding is a significant strategy not only for profit

organisations. Therefore, branding in the nonprofit sector is currently gaining interest from many researchers and practitioners. Many authors believe that branding will help NPOs to convey messages and raise the awareness of the society. At the same time, donors also enhance learning, reduce perceived risks and build loyalty with NPOs. Brand personality is one of many branding strategies that were adopted from the commercial sector by the nonprofit sector. There is an empirical example that the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) decided to rebrand and launched "Full Stop" campaign in 1999. This campaign represents its distinctive brand personality with the traits of authority, warmth, passion and confidence. The 'Full Stop' campaign has become a leading project in the United Kingdom. In 2006, NSPCC achieved more than $400 million worth of programs aimed at protecting children from abuse.

This study has empricially identified a model of charity brand personality in the Laos context that will contribute to theoretical and practical applications in Laos. Although this research has limitations, this research may provide the impetus to draw attention from other researchers to conduct more research in this field. Furthermore, after this research project was introduced to the president of the Association for Autism in Laos, this research project received good support and cooperation from this organisation. The organisation as well as the staff was willing to participate in the interviews. The president of this organisation stated that they would like to try the charity brand personality strategy to attract donors' attention because they are a newly established NPO that has to finance itself and it relies solely on donations from international funds and local donors. Therefore, this study will be made available to researchers and NPO practitioners in Laos as well other countries to help guide them in their work.

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Appendix 1: The semi-structured interview questions

Topic: "Measuring brand personality in charitable giving in Laos context"

Interviewer: Manilay Vanphavong (Ms.)

Interviewee: Eight staff from Association for Austism in Laos (AfA)

Duration: 30 mn

Venue: Interviewees' office

1. What is your main motivation for choosing to work with this organisation?
2. Can you think of one charitable organisation that is involved in educational development? Why do you think of this organisation?
3. Can you think of one charitable organisation that is involved in relief? Why do you think of this organisation?
4. Can you think of one charitable organisation that is involved in healthcare? Why do you think of this organisation?
5. If the charitable organisations were a person, please describe human characteristics of charitable organisations?

Prepared by:

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Applicant for Master of Business Thesis
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Appendix 2: The research questionnaire

SCREEN QUESTION Have you DONATED money, time, and products to a CHARITY in the last six months (excluding Religious Churches or Temples)?	**YES (TICK):** ☐	**DATE/TIME:**

DONOR BEHAVIOUR Thinking about the types of **CHARITIES** you **DONATE** to, please answer the following questions by providing a number between 1 and 7 where: 1 means 'VERY RARELY' and 7 means 'VERY OFTEN'.	**VERY RARELY**						**VERY OFTEN**	**CODE**
1. How often do you donate to charities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB1**
2. How often do you donate to the following charity types?								
• Development and housing (e.g. Donate to community organisations or house maintenance)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB2**
• Social services (e.g. Handicapped, emergency or relief)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB3**
• Education (e. g. Donate study materials or reward scholarship)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB4**
• Health care (e. g. Donate to hospital, community clinic or organisations related to health care services)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB5**
• Sports and recreation (e. g. All types of sports and other social clubs)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB6**
• Culture and Arts (e.g. Performing arts, museum or library)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB7**
• Environment (e.g. Environmental or animal protection)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB8**

• Advocacy (e.g. Victim support)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DB9**
1. What is the name of the charity you most often give to?	**Write the name here:**							**DB10**
2. What type of Charity is this? (READ FROM THE LIST IN Q2):	**NPOs category code:**							**DB11**

BRAND PERSONALITY

- Thinking about the name of the **CHARITY** you most often **DONATE** to (FROM Q3)
- The following questions are about the **CHARITY** you most often **DONATE** to. We would like you to think of this **CHARITY** as if it were a person.
- This may sound unusual, but think of the set of human characteristics associated with this **CHARITY**. **I am going to pause for 30 seconds to allow you to do this.**
- We are interested in finding out which personality traits or human characteristics come to mind when you think of the CHARITY**.**
- Please answer the following questions by providing a number between 1 and 7 where: 1 means 'NOT AT ALL DESCRIPTIVE' and 7 means 'EXTREMELY DESCRIPTIVE'.

Category/Dimension	personality traits	Not at All Descriptive						Extremely Descriptive	CODE
Integrity	**1.** Honest (truthful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**IN1**
	2. Positive influence (being a good role model for community)								**IN2**
	3. Committed to the public good (promising or giving loyalty, time or money to a particular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**IN3**

	principle, person or plan of action)								
	4. Reputable (having a good reputation and able to be trusted)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**IN4**
	5. Virtuous (ethical practice)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**IN5**
	6. Reliable (sincere)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**IN6**
Ruggedness	1. Tough (strong)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**RU1**
	2. Masculine (having quality of strength and aggressiveness)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**RU2**
	3. Outdoor (taking part in activities relating to the outdoors)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**RU3**
	4. Fearless (not deterred by difficult issues or terrain)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**RU4**
Sophistication	1. Good-looking (good image)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SO1**
	2. Glamorous (attractive in an exciting and special way)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SO2**
	3. Upper class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SO3**
	4. Respectful (showing proper respect)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SO4**
Nurturance	1. Compassionate (feeling and showing sympathy for others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**NU1**

	2. Caring (displaying kindness and concern for others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**NU2**
	3. Loving (great care)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**NU3**
	4. Benevolent (altruism)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**NU4**
	5. Feminine (having qualities which are traditionally considered to be suitable for a woman)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**NU5**
Collaboration	1. Adaptable (willing to change or adapt in order to suit different group of people and conditions)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**CO1**
	2. Cooperative (involving mutual assistance in working towards a common goal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**CO2**
	3. Supportive (providing encouragement or emotional help)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**CO3**
	4. Development-minded (focusing on improving for better life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**CO4**
Ambition	1. Ambitious (having a great desire to be successful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**AM1**
	2. Driven (describes someone who is so determined to help other people)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**AM2**
	3. Powerful (having power to negotiate)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**AM3**

Self-confidence	1. Confident (self-assured)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SC1**
	2. Decisive (able to make decision quickly)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SC2**
	3. Unique (special in some way)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**SC3**
Creativity	1. Creative (using imagination and artistic skills to create work)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**CR1**
	2. Innovative (using new methods or ideas)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**CR2**
Diligence	1. Disciplined (behaving in a very controlled way)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DI1**
	2. Persistent (hardworking and never give up)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DI2**
	3. Proactive (taking action by causing change and not only reacting to change when it happens)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DI3**
	4. Comprehensive (Careful and complete)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**DI4**
Equal opportunity	1. Fair (treating people equally)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**EQ1**
	2. Un-bias (non-discriminatory)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**EQ2**

DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS			
1. What is your biological sex?	1	Male	DD1
	2	Female	
2. What is the highest level you completed in your formal education?	1	Primary school	DD2
	2	High School	
	3	Degree/Diploma from a Tertiary Institution	
	4	Bachelor	
	5	Master	
	6	Doctor	
	7	None	
3. What is your marital status?	1	Single	DD3
	2	Married	
	3	Widowed	
	4	Divorced/Separated	
4. What is your ethnicity?	1	Lao Loum (Lowlands)	DD4
	2	Lao Soung (Highlands)	

	3	Lao Thueng (Uplands)	
	4	Other	
5. What is your current employment status?	1	Student	**DD5**
	2	Full time	
	3	Self employed	
	4	Unemployed	
	5	Homemaker	
	6	Part-time	
6. What is your personal income before tax per month (LAO KIP)?	1	Less than 700,000	**DD6**
	2	700,000 - 1,000,000	
	3	1,100,000 - 3,000,000	
	4	3,100,000 - 5,000,000	
	5	5,100,000 - 7,000,000	
	6	7,100,000 - 9,000,000	
	7	10,000,000 and over	

Appendix 3: Organisational consent

ສະມາຄົມເພື່ອຄົນໂອທິສຕິກ
Association for Autism

Tel.: +856-21-330409
Mob. :+856-20-55160408
+856-20-55918117
Email: info@laoautism.org

Organizational Consent

I, Viengsam Soinxay, a president of Association for Autism, give consent for Manilay Vanphavong to undertake research in this organization as discussed with the researcher. The consent is subject to approval of research ethics application no 2013-1078 by the Unitec Research Ethics Committee and a copy of the approval letter being forwarded to the organization as soon as possible.

Signature:

Date: 17-10-2013

Appendix 4: Participant consent form (interviewees)

Research Project Title:"Measuring brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context"

1. I have had the research project explained to me, and I have read and understood the information sheet given to me.
2. My questions about the study have been answered.
3. I understand that I have right to withdraw from the study within two weeks of the date of me signing this consent form.
4. I agree to provide information to this study under the conditions of confidentiality and anonymity that are stated on the information sheet.
5. I understand that my discussion with the researcher will be taped and transcribed. I have an opportunity to review and amend a transcript.
6. I understand that all the information that I give will be stored securely on Unitec locked file, and all electronic data will be stored in the Unitec network with password protected for a period of 5 years.
7. I understand that the information that I agree to provide will be seen only by the researcher and the supervisor.
8. I understand that I can see the finished research document.
9. I have had time to consider everything and I give my consent to be a part of this project.

Your signature below indicates that you have agreed to volunteer in this research. It also means that you have read and understood the information listed above. At any time if you have any concerns about the research project you can contact my supervisor: My supervisor is Dr. Asoka Gunaratne, phone +64 815 4321 ext. 7035 or email agunaratne@unitec.ac.nz

Participant Name: …….....

Participant Signature: …….. Date: ……

Project Researcher: ……. Date: ……

REC REGISTRATION NUMBER: 2013-1078

This study has been approved by the UNITEC Research Ethics Committee from (21/10/2013) to (21/10/2014). If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Committee through the UREC Secretary (ph: 09 815-4321 ext 8551). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 5: Information for Participants (Interviews)

Research Project Title

"Measuring brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context"

Synopsis of project

1. The research is to be conducted by Manilay Vanphavong under the supervision of Dr. Asoka Gunaratne of Unitec Institute of Technology, New Zealand.
2. Currently, I'm studying a Masters of Business qualification. To fulfil the programme's requirements, I will conduct research to understand theoretical and practical insights of brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context.
3. Brand personality is defined as "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997, p. 347). Some researchers believe that charitable organisations are imbued with a distinctive set of human characteristics. They also believe that brand personality is an emotional attachment strategy to help charitable organisations to differentiate themselves from other organisations. Therefore, this research is interested in studying what kind of brand personality there is in charitable giving in a Laos context from the perception of donors in Laos.

What we are doing

1. I would like to ask you to participate in semi-structured interviews. In semi-structured interviews include introducing questions, following up questions, direct questions, interpretation questions, and indirect questions.
2. This interview may take one hour.
3. You have been asked to participate in this research because you are generally suitable to provide valuable information for this research. This interview aims to

identify brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context from the perceptions of donors or people who have knowledge about charity in Laos.

4. This study is voluntary and all information provided by you will remain confidential and anonymous.
5. Your information will be kept confidential, private and secure. All information collected from you will be stored on a password protected network and only the researcher and supervisor will have access to this information.
6. The results will be presented in the thesis. They will be seen by my supervisor, a second marker and the external examiner. The thesis may be read by future students on the course. The study may be published in a research journal.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to sign a consent form. This does not stop you from changing your mind if you wish to withdraw from the project. However, because of our schedule, any withdrawals must be done within 2 weeks after we have interviewed you.

Please contact me if you need more information about the project. At any time if you have any concerns about the research project you can contact my supervisor: My supervisor is Dr. Asoka Gunaratne, phone +64 815 4321 ext. 7035 or email agunaratne@unitec.ac.nz

REC REGISTRATION NUMBER: 2013-1078

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Appendix 6: Information for Participants (Questionnaire)

Research Project Title

"Measuring brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context"

Synopsis of project

4. The research is to be conducted by Manilay Vanphavong under the supervision of Dr. Asoka Gunaratne of Unitec Institute of Technology, New Zealand.
5. Currently, I'm studying a Masters of Business qualification. To fulfil the programme's requirements, I will conduct research to understand theoretical and practical insights of brand personality in charitable giving in a Laos context.
6. Brand personality is defined as "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997, p. 347). Some researchers believe that charitable organisations are imbued with a distinctive set of human characteristics. They also believe that brand personality is an emotional attachment strategy to help charitable organisations to differentiate themselves from other organisations. Therefore, this research is interested in studying what kind of brand personality there is in charitable giving in a Laos context from the perception of donors in Laos.

What we are doing

7. I would like to ask you to participate in the completion of a questionnaire.
8. You must be over 18 years.
9. The questionnaire will be administered face to face by the researcher. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

10. This study is voluntary and all information provided by you will remain confidential and anonymous.
11. So that you remain anonymous your name, address and phone number will not be collected. Basic demographic questions are included in the questionnaire.
12. Your information will be kept confidential, private and secure. All information collected from you will be stored on a password protected network and only the researchers will have access to this information.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to sign a consent form. This does not stop you from changing your mind if you wish to withdraw from the project. However, because of our schedule, any withdrawals must be done within 2 weeks after we have interviewed you.

Please contact me if you need more information about the project. At any time if you have any concerns about the research project you can contact my supervisor: My supervisor is Dr. Asoka Gunaratne, phone +64 815 4321 ext. 7035 or email agunaratne@unitec.ac.nz

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This study has been approved by the UNITEC Research Ethics Committee from (21/10/2013) to (21/10/2014). If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Committee through the UREC Secretary (ph: 09 815-4321 ext 8551). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.