BUILDING BRAND COMMITMENT FROM INTERNAL BRAND MANAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE-BASED BRAND EQUITY FACTORS

By

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THESIS

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

(Marketing)

in the

School of Economics and Business Sciences

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

Supervisor: Professor Helen Duh

2020

DECLARATION

I, Caroline Boitumelo Sebopa, declare that this thesis is my own work that has not been aided, with the exception of where due recognition has been given. It is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing at the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg. This thesis has not been submitted before for any degree at this or at any other university.

Caroline Boitumelo Sebopa
2020

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There were so many people who assisted and supported me throughout this jouney.

"I come as one, but stand as 10 000" - Maya Angelou

A heartfelt thank you to my parents, Arrie and Rachel Sebopa; aunt, Mokgadi Malahlela; siblings and niece. Thank you all for being so supportive and always being there for me no matter what journey I decide to embark on, I am truly grateful. This thesis is dedicated to each of you as well as Emily and Caroline Malahlela.

To my amazing supervisor, Professor Helen Duh, you always challenged me and strove to bring out the best in me and as a result, I have learnt so much from you. You are the epitome of kindness and excellence, thank you. To Professor Richard Chinomona and Dr Marike Venter, thank you for allowing me to always step into your offices and ask questions at the beginning of this journey. Thank you to Jennifer Croll for assisting with editing.

I'd like to express my gratitude to Molla Bonnet, Derrain Nadauld, Linda Sinclair, Darren Hele, Charmaine Ellis and Lindiwe Mabizela. You all played a pivotal role in my journey, whether it was allowing me to conduct research at the company, allowing me to ask you questions or simply being supportive. Each of you showed me that when you speak of integrity, humility, and agility, it's not just words but something you live by. To all the respondents who took part in this study, thank you for taking the time out of your schedules to complete the questionnaire; it made all the difference.

Last but not least, thank you to my friends who were my constant cheerleaders. I really felt like I had my very own 'Bring It On' squad.

ABSTRACT

Famous Brands is a JSE listed company with a market capitalisation of over R10 billion and is the largest food services franchisor in Africa, boasting of over 24 brands. The organisation has over 2800 restaurants in Africa, the Middle East and the United Kingdom. Some of their market-leading brands include Steers, Debonairs Pizza, Wimpy, Mugg n Bean, Fishaways, GBK, and Turn n Tender, amongst others. Various success factors of the organisation have been documented and these have included acquisitions, joint ventures, and vertical integration. The success of Famous Brands could also have been generated from its brand knowledge structure held by customers and employees. The brand knowledge, role clarity and brand commitment that employees hold of their company's brand have been found to be important dimensions necessary for building employee-based brand equity (EBBE). When EBBE is built, it is reported that organisations or brand owners benefit in various ways, such as employees' motivation, retention, satisfaction, brand citizenship behaviour, willingness to endorse the brand, and most importantly, it can lead to increased brand commitment. Brand commitment can be seen through the attachments an employee has with a brand and the extent to which they are willing to go the extra mile to help an organisation reach its objectives. These benefits can be achieved if there is good internal brand management.

Despite the benefits of EBBE, and because there is the notion that the strength of the brand lies in what customers know and feel about the brand, marketing practitioners and academics have focused too much on how customer-based brand equity (CBBE) is built, measured and managed. The building and measuring of the contribution of EBBE has received limited attention, even though the resource-based view theory posits that superior customer value is created when the importance of all resources (i.e., brands and employees) are recognised and nurtured for competitive advantage. Employees are important company resources, and for them to build good brand citizenship behaviours, the social exchange theory suggests that they have to perceive an organisation to be caring and supportive, and the social identity theory suggests that employees need to identify with the organisation.

In one of the first empirically tested model on how EBBE can be built and measured, King and Grace (2010) showed that the benefits of EBBE can be achieved if a brand is internally well managed through openness, good human factors, information generation from studying employee needs, management support, brand knowledge dissemination, which then leads to role clarity and brand commitment. These factors impacted on the EBBE benefits: brand citizenship behaviour, employee satisfaction, brand allegiance, and employee willingness to endorse the organisation. Subsequent studies have tested King and Grace's (2010) model in various service industries. However, the importance of testing the resource-based view theory in different industry contexts has been recommended. Also, the internal brand management factors may first impact on employee satisfaction, before leading to EBBE benefits and brand commitment.

Considering the success of Famous Brands in South Africa and the fact that few studies have tested the sources and outcomes of EBBE in the food service industry, this study integrated King and Grace's (2009; 2010) EBBE model and Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) internal brand management (IBM) model to examine the extent to which IBM and employee satisfaction impact overall EBBE, and whether the overall EBBE drives employee brand commitment. An integrated conceptual model with twelve hypotheses was developed. To test the hypotheses, data was collected from 404 Famous Brands employees in South Africa through self-administered questionnaires. Structural equation modelling was used to test the hypotheses. Of the twelve hypotheses that were tested, ten were supported and two were not. Internal brand communication, role clarity, management support and rewards had a positive impact on employee satisfaction. Employee satisfaction positively impacted brand citizenship behaviour, brand endorsement and brand allegiance. Employees who displayed brand citizenship behaviours, endorsed the brand/organisation and intending to continue working for the organisation were found to be committed to the organisation. Internal marketing research and employee satisfaction were found to have a negative relationship, as well as employee satisfaction and brand commitment.

This study contributes to theory on IBM, employee satisfaction, EBBE and employee brand commitment, particularly in the food service industry in South Africa. These findings can help better understand employees and how their commitment to a

company's brand can be gained. The study can help managers and marketers to understand the factors leading to the commitment of the employees of Africa's biggest food services franchisor and the learnings can be used in their own organisations. This study's findings can also be used to develop IBM programmes for organisations.

Keywords: Food services, internal brand management, brand equity, employee-based brand equity, employee satisfaction, brand commitment.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AMOS	Analysis Moment of Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa
CBBE	Customer-Based Brand Equity
CDR	Casual Dining Restaurant
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CR	Composite Reliability
EBBE	Employee-Based Brand Equity
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EU	European Union
FBBE	Financial-Based Brand Equity
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
IBM	Internal Brand Management
IFI	Incremental-Fit Index
NFI	Normed Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RTD	Ready-To-Drink
SA	South Africa
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
QSR	Quick Service Restaurant
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States of America

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

In today's globalised, digitalised and competitive marketplace; running a successful and sustainable food service business, whose offerings may not be easily copied, has become difficult. However, one aspect of the business, which cannot be copied is the brand and its equity. Brand equity are the strongly held beliefs, thoughts and feelings that customers hold of a company's brand, which cause them to positively and differentially respond to the brand (Keller, 2013). A company with a strong brand equity enjoys a number of benefits, such as brand loyalty, customers' willingness to pay a price premium, resistance to competitors' offers, greater market share and profitability (Keller, 2013). Brand equity is therefore a company's most prized asset (Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). Keller (2020) contends that brand equity is built from various forms of marketing communications and from the positive experiences that customers have with the brand's products and services. Employees, especially services employees, play a significant role in how much customers get the positive experiences. However, most studies on the building and measuring of brand equity have been conducted from customer and financial perspectives. Studies of brand equity from employees' perspective are limited (King and Grace, 2010; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020).

The resource-based and competence-based views or theories suggest that in order for an organisation to be competitive, it needs superior resources and competencies, which are linked to employees (Gisip & Harun, 2013; Piehler, King, Burmann & Xiong, 2016). Both of these theories argue that employees are important in the success of an organisation, because they carry knowledge and have an influence over the organisation's interactions with consumers (Piehler, King, Burmann & Xiong, 2016). The delivery of the brand promise to customers is highly dependent on employees as they display attitudes and behaviours to internal and external stakeholders (King & Grace, 2009; Piehler, King, Burmann & Xiong, 2016). To build successful brands, the organisation needs to have employees who are talented, committed and motivated (John, Kilumile & Tundui, 2019). Therefore, the management of employees should form part of brand management practices in the organisation as they represent an important source of competitive advantage as well as differentiation (Piehler, King, Burmann & Xiong, 2016).

Brand equity that is built, managed and measured from an employee perspective is called employee-based brand equity (EBBE). King and Grace (2009, p. 13) define EBBE as “the differential effect that brand knowledge has on an employee’s response to their work environment”. EBBE can be achieved by investing in internal brand management (IBM). IBM communicates the value of the brand, builds employees’ knowledge of the brand, clarifies employees’ roles in delivering the brand promises, does research on employees’ needs so that appropriate motivations and rewards are provided, supports employees and provides general brand leadership (King & Grace, 2010; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). This will result in outcomes (EBBE benefits) such as employee satisfaction, lower employee turnover, employee positive word of mouth and employee behaviours that help the organisation reach its consumer and financial goals (King & Grace, 2010; John, Kilumile & Tundui, 2019).

While King and Grace (2010) propose that IBM practices directly lead to EBBE benefits such as brand citizenship behaviour, employee intention to stay in the organisation and positive word-of-mouth, it is questionable whether these would not first depend on employee satisfaction. Moreover, and in the services sector, Boukis and Christodoulides (2020) assert that EBBE is not the final outcome of internal branding efforts. They contend that when the level of EBBE is high, there are other outcomes like customer orientation and employees’ engagement in brand value dissemination to co-workers. According to Keller’s (2013; 2020) brand equity resonance model, one of the important end goals of brand building efforts is brand attachments. Brand commitment is an important outcome, especially in the current era where brand disloyalty is growing. Whether this important outcome can be gained from building EBBE in the food service sector needs examination.

Researchers have begun to conduct studies on EBBE in the services industry (Mokhtar, Altaf & Ghani, 2018; Etim & Uford, 2019; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020), while limited studies have been conducted in the food service industry, which is important to the economy (Mupani, 2016; Dube, Nhamo & Chikodzi, 2020). In 2015 South Africa’s fast food industry was worth R300 billion (Marx-Pienaar, Du Rand, Fisher & Viljoen, 2020). In 2016, South Africa was the 6th largest market for eating out in the Middle East and Africa (MEA) region (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017) and between 2017 - 2018 the restaurant industry had an estimated 42 million consumers in South Africa (Marx-Pienaar et al., 2020). On the African continent, the leading company in this sector is Famous Brands, which boasts of market-leading restaurant brands such as Wimpy and Steers, amongst others (Famous Brands, 2020). While their financial performances are well documented, little is known about the extent to which their IBM practices are leading to employee satisfaction and resultant EBBE benefits and brand commitment. Since the food service sector is important to many economies and the success of its businesses in the sector's competitive environment requires a strong brand that is defended and protected by employees (Liu et al., 2020), there is a need to examine the sources and outcomes of EBBE. This is additionally vital because little research exists on sources and outcomes of EBBE in the food service industry and the South African market.

1.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND GAP

The growing realisation of the fact that employees are one of the key assets of organisations, alongside brands, is shifting the management of employees from the human resource to the marketing department (Biswas & Suar, 2016; Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015). Marketers are beginning to develop strategies to gain brand commitment from employees. Brand commitment is seen from the attachments employees have with an organisational brand and the extent to which they are willing to go an extra mile to help an organisation achieve its non-financial (e.g., customer satisfaction and retention) and financial (e.g., market share and profits) objectives (Biswas & Suar, 2016; Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015; Liu et al. 2020). In his customer-based brand equity resonance model, Keller (2020) presents brand commitment as one of the final outcomes of brand equity building efforts. Key to the building of a strong brand equity is the positive experiences that customers have with the brand owner's products and services. The positive experiences, especially with services, stem from satisfactory interactions with employees (Keller, 2020).

Despite the important roles that employees play in providing positive experiences to customers and delivering on the brand promises of companies, the study of EBBE has been limited (Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). Much attention has been given to the customer-based brand equity (CBBE), because of the notion that the strength of a brand lies in what customers know, believe, experience and feel about a brand (i.e., the customer brand knowledge) (Keller, 1993; 2013). However, the resource-based view theory posits that superior customer value is created when the importance of all resources in the delivering of the value are recognised and nurtured for competitive advantage (Panda & Reddy, 2016). Employees are important company resources (Andersen, 2010; Panda & Reddy, 2016). For them to build good brand citizenship behaviours and be committed to the brand, the social exchange and social identity theories suggest that they have to know the brand value, identify with the brand and perceive their organisation to be caring and supportive (Chiniara, Bentein, Gebert, Heinitz & Buengeler, 2016; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). These can be achieved through good IBM practices, which according to King and Grace (2010) and Boukis and Christodoulides (2020), are sources of EBBE.

Kwon (2013) also sees IBM practices as sources of EBBE and suggests employee brand knowledge, role clarity and brand commitment as three of the key sources. IBM practices, according to King and Grace (2010), are openness, good human factors, information generation from studying employee needs, management support, brand knowledge dissemination, role clarity and employee brand commitment. King and Grace (2010) propose that they can lead to four EBBE benefits, such as brand citizenship behaviour, employee satisfaction, employee intention to stay with the organisation (brand allegiance), and employee willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth about the organisation (brand endorsement). While King and Grace propose that the IBM practices directly lead to brand knowledge effects (brand commitment and role clarity) followed by the four EBBE benefits, Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) assert that employee satisfaction is rather the outcome of the IBM.

Bataineh, Alfalah and Falah (2017) point out that employees need to feel comfortable with their work environment and be satisfied with their jobs before they contribute to the EBBE benefits. Therefore, and unlike King and Grace’s (2010) model, it is expected that the IBM factors may first impact employee satisfaction, before leading to EBBE benefits. Moreover, Boukis and Christodoulides (2020) worry that limited studies have investigated how and under which conditions EBBE benefits result in other positive employee consequences, which may easily lead to positive responses. One of such outcomes of EBBE benefits is brand commitment. While King and Grace (2010) see brand commitment as a source or predictor of the EBBE benefits, Keller's (2020) brand equity resonance model posits that the commitment to a brand is one of the end goals or final stage in the brand building efforts. Considering brand commitment as the outcome of building EBBE as Keller's (2020) brand equity resonance model suggest, this study examined the extent to which IBM factors impact employee satisfaction, how the satisfaction drives EBBE benefits and ultimately leading to brand commitment.

IBM encourages employees to "live the brand" and this is particularly important in the services industry because the employees play an important role in the delivery of the brand promise to consumers (Du Preez, 2017, p.1). However, limited studies on IBM and EBBE have been conducted (King & Grace, 2010). Therefore, it is important that more studies are conducted across different industries as well as in different geographic locations (Du Preez, 2017). Researchers have begun to conduct studies on EBBE in services sectors such as banking, airlines, hotels, and travel agencies (Mokhtar, Altaf & Ghani, 2018; Etim & Uford, 2019; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). However, few studies have focused on the food service industry. The building and measuring of EBBE is important for the food service industry like restaurants because the beliefs, feelings, attitudes and image consumers will build of the brand will be directly or indirectly linked to employees of the organisation. More so, the restaurant industry is labour intensive (Mupani, 2016; Dube, Nhamo & Chikodzi, 2020). It is also important to conduct IBM and EBBE studies in different markets (Poulis et al., 2016; Du Preeze, 2017) like South Africa because the employees and dynamics may be different from those of developed markets.

1.2 PURPOSE STATEMENT

Drawing from the resource-based, social exchange and social identity theories, this study integrated aspects of King and Grace's (2010) and Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) models to develop an integrated conceptual model. The integrated conceptual model delineated how IBM practices or efforts (internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, internal market research and management support) led to employee satisfaction. The extent to which the satisfaction in turn, impacted brand commitment and EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement). Then the extent to which EBBE benefits led to brand commitment were tested. In summary, this study aimed to examine the sources and outcomes of EBBE in the food service industry of South Africa. These purposes of this study were achieved through the achievement of the following objectives.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Theoretical Objectives

The theoretical objectives were to:

- Case study Famous Brands and understand why they are successful in the food service industry;
- Review literature on the internal marketing and brand management practices and their outcomes;
- Examine the importance of employee brand commitment;
- Investigate the predictors and benefits of EBBE;
- Review theories and models to develop an integrated conceptual model that can be used to examine the sources and outcomes of EBBE.

1.3.2 Empirical Objectives

- Examine the relationships between internal brand management practices (i.e., internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, internal market research, and management support) and employees' satisfaction;
- Assess the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment;
- Determine the extent to which employee satisfaction impacts EBBE benefits (i.e., brand citizenship behaviours, brand allegiance and brand endorsements);
- Examine the impact of EBBE benefits (i.e., brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance in the organisation and brand endorsements) on the brand commitment of the employees.

1.4 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW, CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

This section provides a brief literature review of the theories and models that underpinned this study and guided the development of the conceptual model. A more detailed literature review can be found in chapters 2 – 5. This brief literature review starts with an overview of the three main types of brand equity. It then summarises the theories that were applied, followed by the various models that guided the development of the conceptual model and the hypotheses. A detailed discussion of the hypotheses development can be found in chapter 5.

1.4.1 Various Views on Brand Equity: Is Employee-based brand equity recognised?

To retain customers and sustain competitive advantage, brand management (internal and external) is important in exploiting assets that are owned by an organisation and gaining added value from a brand. Brand equity measures the strength of a brand from a customer, employee and financial perspective (Karamian, Nadoushan & Nadoushan, 2015). The most commonly used measure is the customer-based brand equity (CBBE), which measures brand equity from the consumer perspective (Boolaky, Gungaphul & Adeyemi, 2017). CBBE measures brand equity by the different consumer responses to marketing activity that comes from the brand knowledge that consumers have gained about a brand (Keller, 2006; 2013). Another way that brand equity is measured is from the financial-based brand equity (FBBE), Simon and Sullivan (1993, p.19) define FBBE as “the incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flows which would result from the sale of unbranded products”.

While the CBBE and FBBE studies provide rich insights into how brand equity can be built, measured and managed from customer and financial perspectives, King and Grace (2009) worry that employees’ contributions to the building and management of brand equity have been ignored in most brand equity literature. If there is a good IBM system, King and Grace (2010) and Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) contend that employees will be satisfied and encouraged to embrace their roles as brand ambassadors and be committed to the brand building efforts. These will lead to employee-based brand equity (EBBE), which is defined as “the differential effect that brand knowledge has on an employee’s response to internal brand management” (King et al., 2012, p. 269). With a focus on how a firm gains from EBBE, Tavassoli et al. (2014, p. 677) define EBBE as “the value that a brand provides to a firm through its effects on the attitudes and behaviours of its employees”. Since EBBE benefits the firm, there was a need to understand the sources and outcomes of EBBE. The achievement of this goal required a literature review of various useful theories and models which are discussed in the next sections.

1.4.2 Brief Discussion on theories found useful in the study of EBBE sources and outcomes

Three theories were found to be useful in the study of EBBE: the social identity theory, resource-based theory and the social exchange theory. The social identity theory states that individuals get some of their self-concept from their membership in social groups. It can be defined as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Lohndorf & Diamantopoulos, 2014, p.17). The more a person believes that they belong in a certain group, the more they have intentions to behave in a manner that is aligned with the group. The same applies in the work environment, as employees have been found to behave in ways that are aligned to the organisation's brand when they identify with it (Lohndorf & Diamantopoulos, 2014; Mangum & Block, 2017). IBM practices can help with making employees better identify with an organisation and this can lead to behaviours which benefit the organisation (Buil et al., 2016).

The resource-based view (RBV) theory states that organisations have resources and capabilities. The resources are tangible and intangible; the capabilities are the extent to which an organisation can use the resources to reach their goals (Gisip & Harun, 2013). Poulis et al. (2016, p. 490) highlight that "Intangible resources play an increasingly imperative role in differentiating organizations and creating competitive advantages. One such imperative is managing an organisation's intangible equities, such as internal brand management". IBM is important because without internal brand building, it can make it difficult for an organisation to effectively utilise its intangible resources and as a result, achieve its brand goals (Gisip & Harun, 2013).

The social exchange theory explains the behaviour of employees towards their organisation. It is defined as an "employees' general belief that their work organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Lohndorf & Diamantopoulos, 2014, p.17). The theory states that when employees feel like they are treated fairly by an organisation then they will reciprocate by treating the organisation fairly as well, by displaying desired workplace behaviours like increased job performance, intentions to remain working in an organisation and citizenship behaviours (Lohndorf & Diamantopoulos, 2014; Roch, Shannon, Martin, Swiderski, Agosta & Shanock, 2019).

Based on these theories and the research problem discussed in section 1.2, this study integrated two models to develop a holistic model that can be used to measure the sources, benefits and outcomes of EBBE. The models are discussed in the sections that follow.

1.4.3 King and Grace's (2009; 2010) EBBE model

King and Grace (2009) drew from Keller's (1993) CBBE concept to conceptualise EBBE. Keller (1993, p. 2) suggests that brand knowledge is the key to developing brand equity, which he defines as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand". In line with Keller (1993), who sees consumer brand knowledge as an important source for the building of brand equity, King and Grace (2009) also highlight that brand knowledge is equally an important EBBE source, since employees need to be knowledgeable about the brand to deliver on the brand promise. The authors stress that if employees do not have brand knowledge, then they are unable to behave in a way that the organisation wishes and they struggle to make brand-related decisions. In this study, brand knowledge was measured in terms of internal brand communication, following the notion that employees become knowledgeable about the values of the brand from brand knowledge communication (King & Grace, 2010; Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015).

Communicating the brand values to employees is an important element of IBM, generally identified as a key source of EBBE. This is because employees need brand-related information in order for them to be able to perform their roles and responsibilities and through IBM, they are able to gain the knowledge (King & Grace, 2010). As aforementioned, King and Grace (2010) provide IBM sources to be, firstly, *information generation*, which is internal research that helps the organisation better understand employee needs. Secondly, *knowledge dissemination,* which refers to giving employees information that helps them fulfil the needs of consumers. Thirdly, *openness,* which refers to an environment that allows employees to receive brand knowledge and this is manifested through employee attitudes towards their jobs, management support, organisational socialisation, and employee involvement. Lastly, the *H Factor,* which refers to the extent to which employees view the organisation to treat them like human beings and this affects the exchanges between the employer and employee.

King and Grace's (2010) EBBE model proposes that other elements of a good IBM are role clarity and brand commitment which are brand knowledge effects. The model also proposes that role clarity and brand commitment lead to EBBE benefits, which are attitudes and behaviours employees exhibit that benefit the organisation and include: employee satisfaction, brand citizenship behaviours, intention to stay in the organisation and willingness to spread positive word of mouth about the organisation. King and Grace's (2010) model remains one of the seminal models, which other authors have adapted to study the sources and outcomes of EBBE. Hence, the current study also adapted this model, but integrated with other models for greater explanation of the EBBE outcomes. The sections that follow discuss models that were derived from King and Grace's (2010) EBBE model.

1.4.4 Kwon's (2013) EBBE model

Also concerned about the fact that only a few studies have examined brand equity from the internal perspective, Kwon (2013) adapted King and Grace's (2010) model and integrated this with Aaker's (1991) model to study the sources of EBBE and develop its measuring scales. Kwon (2013) summarised King and Grace's (2010) EBBE sources into three dimensions: brand knowledge, role clarity, and brand commitment. *Brand knowledge* refers to the knowledge that an employee holds about a brand and its importance in delivering "the marketer's vision of what the brand must be and do for consumers" (Kwon, 2013, p. 60). Therefore, without adequate brand knowledge, an employee will not be able to turn the brand vision into brand equity. *Role clarity* refers to when an employee feels like they have enough relevant information needed to fulfill their roles (King & Grace, 2010). Role clarity is considered a predictor of outcomes such as satisfaction, performance, turnover and commitment (Kwon, 2013). Finally, *brand commitment* which is "the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, is proposed to be a predictor of the willingness to exert extra effort towards reaching the brand goals" (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005, p.284).

Essentially, Kwon's (2013) EBBE model proposes that if employees have brand knowledge, then they will have a clear understanding of their roles (role clarity) and that will lead to their brand commitment. The model proposes that the EBBE generated from brand knowledge, role clarity and brand commitment, will lead to job satisfaction as well as organisational citizenship behaviours.

1.4.5 Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) IBM model

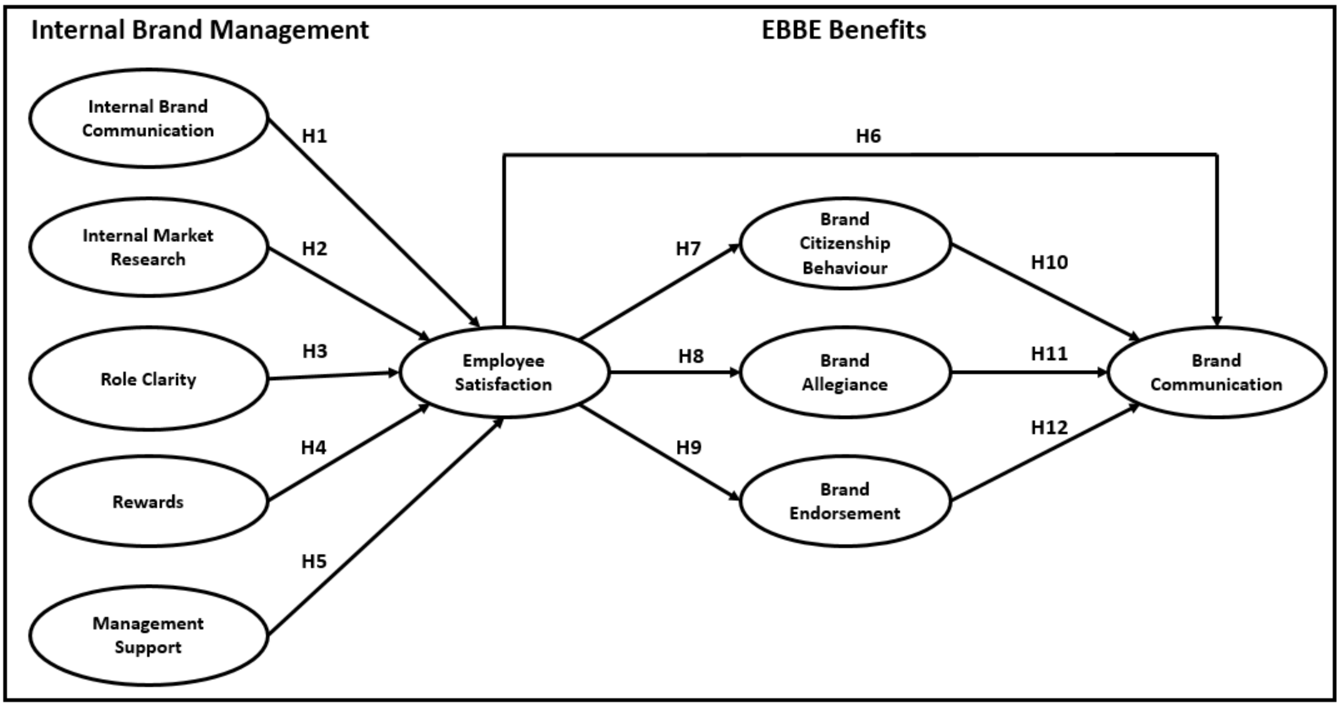
Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) propose an IBM model that identifies IBM practices: internal brand communication, brand leadership and brand identity. The authors suggest that human resource practices like selection of employees, the promotion of employees, and recruitment should be brand-centred in order for employees to identify with the brand (brand identity). "The brand is reinforced among employees by generating brand awareness and understanding through internal communications (BCom). Employees are encouraged to live the brand by fostering brand leadership (BLead) at all levels in the organization" (Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015, p.81). These IBM practices lead to employee satisfaction and brand commitment, which then lead to employees' intention to stay in an organisation. Employee satisfaction is important because it has a significant effect on the performance of an organisation and it forms part of an organisation's competitive advantage (Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014; Huang et al., 2019).

Based on the literature discussed in the above sections, this study developed a conceptual model by integrating King and Grace's (2009; 2010) EBBE and Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) models. The model for this study is presented and discussed in the next section.

1.4.6 Proposed Conceptual Model of this study

Figure 1.1 presents the conceptual model for this study and its hypotheses. A detailed discussion of the hypotheses development can be found in chapter 5. The conceptual model proposes that internal brand management practices (management support, role clarity, rewards, internal market research, and internal brand communication) have a positive effect on the satisfaction of employees. Once employees are satisfied, they become committed and the organisation benefits from their behaviours and intentions (EBBE benefits) because they would have intentions to stay employed by the organisation (brand allegiance), exhibit brand citizenship behaviours and say positive things about the organisation (brand endorsement). Ultimately, those behaviours and attitudes that benefit that organisation (EBBE benefits) lead to their commitment to the organisational brand (brand commitment).

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model



Source: compiled by researcher and guided by ideas from King and Grace (2009; 2010) and Du Preez and Bendixen (2015).

Based on the conceptual model, the following twelve hypotheses that follow were proposed:

H1: There is a positive relationship between internal brand communication and employee satisfaction.

H2: There is a positive relationship between internal market research and employee satisfaction.

H3: Role clarity will positively impact employee satisfaction.

H4: The relationship between rewards and employee satisfaction will be positive.

H5: There is a positive relationship between management support and employee satisfaction.

H6: Employee satisfaction will positively impact employee brand commitment.

H7: There is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and brand citizenship behaviours.

H8: Employee satisfaction has a positive effect on brand allegiance.

H9: There is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and brand endorsements.

H10: There is a positive relationship between brand citizenship behaviour and brand commitment.

H11: There is a positive relationship between brand allegiance and brand commitment.

H12: There is a positive relationship between employee brand endorsements and brand commitment.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ADOPTED FOR THIS STUDY

This section outlines the research methodology that was adopted in this study to test the proposed conceptual model and its hypotheses. A detailed discussion and justification of the methods adopted can be found in chapter 6.

1.5.1 Research Paradigm

A paradigm is a shared belief system that affects the type of knowledge that researchers of a speciality area aim to acquire. The beliefs can include the type of research questions that should be asked as well as how the questions should be answered (Brierley, 2017). There are different kinds (positivism, pragmatism, constructivism, and critical realism) of paradigms that can be used by a researcher (Cupchik, 2001; Krauss, 2005; Oliver, 2011; Shannon-Baker, 2016). The positivist paradigm sees science as a way of getting the truth and operates on cause and effect relationships between constructs. It is also used to test theories and models (Krauss, 2005). Pragmatism is interested in understanding the meaning of things and believes that theories can be generalisable and contextual. The choice of pragmatism is guided by the research questions (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Constructivism is a subjective philosophy because meaning is established through the views of individuals or groups (Cupchik, 2001). Finally, “critical realism presupposes an objective reality which exists independently of our thoughts and whose discovery is one purpose of knowledge acquisition” (Oliver, 2011, p.374). This study aimed to test a conceptual model that was developed from other theories and models, therefore a positivist paradigm was adopted, a detailed discussion can be found in chapter 6. The research design and process is discussed in the section that follows.

1.5.2 Research Design

A research design is a framework that is used to partake in a study effectively (Göttfert, 2015). There are various research approaches that a researcher can adopt. The most common designs used are descriptive, exploratory, and causal research (Wiid and Diggins, 2010; Göttfert, 2015). Descriptive research deals with specific issues and is used to establish patterns, characteristics, and behaviours (Thyer, 2009; Göttfert, 2015). Exploratory research is used to analyse problems, evaluate alternatives or discover new ideas (Ralyté & Léonard, 2020). Exploratory research is often used when a problem is ambiguous (Wiid and Diggins, 2010; Göttfert, 2015). Causal research is used to identify cause and effect relationships between objects in a study (Göttfert, 2015). Considering the fact that this study aims to examine the impact of EBBE sources and outcomes, descriptive research was employed.

When using descriptive research, a researcher can either choose a longitudinal study or cross-sectional study method (Wiid and Diggins, 2010). In a longitudinal study, the same sample elements are measured repetitively over a period of time to pick up any changes that happen over time. In a cross-sectional study, a sample of elements is measured once off to get a snapshot at a point in time (Wiid & Diggins, 2010; Sedgwick, 2014). A cross-sectional method was adopted in this study.

1.5.2.1 Research Strategy

Research strategies affect the way in which research is conducted. The types of research studies that are commonly used include: surveys, case studies and experiments (Amaratunga, Haigh & Ingirige, 2015). Surveys have structured questions that are answered by respondents through questionnaires to express their perceptions or agreements to statements measuring studied constructs (Wiid & Diggins, 2015). "A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 2003, p.13). Experiments are used to identify causal relationships between dependent and independent variables (Lewis-Beck, Bryman & Liao, 2003). Considering that this is a descriptive study that aims to examine the effect of EBBE source and outcomes, the survey method was adopted.

1.5.2.2 Questionnaire Design and Measurement Instrument

A questionnaire was used as the measurement instrument. The questionnaire consisted of five sections. Section A contained a screening question as well as questions that helped obtain respondents' demographic data. Section B measured internal brand management variables: internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards and management support. Section C measured employee satisfaction and Section D measured EBBE benefits which included: brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement. Lastly, Section E measured employee brand commitment. The scales used to measure these constructs were adapted from previous studies. The constructs were measured on a 5-point Likert scale whereby 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure that the scales were understandable and reliable in the South African context.

1.5.2.3 Sampling Process

Sampling is a process of choosing a sample in order to estimate population characteristics. The process involves defining a target population, sample frame, sampling unit, sampling method, sample size, sampling plan, and selecting a sample (Kabir, 2016).

A target population for a survey is “the entire set of units for which the survey data are to be used to make inferences” (Lavrakas, 2008, p.875). The target population of this study were Famous Brands employees aged 18+, working across all departments in South Africa. A sample frame is a list that contains all the sampling units and a sample can be drawn from it (Kabir, 2016). The sampling frame for this study was defined as a list of all Famous Brands employees, males and females, who are over the age of 18 and working in South Africa.

A sampling method is a procedure that is used to select the units of a sample in order to gain clarity on a research problem (Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2015). The types of sampling methods that can be used are probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is a method whereby a random sample is chosen from the target population (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Due to the fact that the researcher was not able to obtain a list of all employees from Famous Brands, it was not possible to randomly select a sample using a probability method. Therefore, non-probability sampling in the form of convenience sampling was used.

A sample size is generally a number of units that are selected from which data can be collected. When a number of units from where data is meant to be collected is defined, that is called a designated sample size. However, factors such as non-response can affect that final sample size. Therefore, it can also be defined as the number of units from which data was collected (Lavrakas, 2008). There are various methods that can be used to determine a sample size: a sample calculation based on the entire population, the sample size used by related previous studies, the type of data analyses to be conducted and the rule of thumb methods (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Riley et al., 2020). This study adopted the rule of thumb method. Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010) suggest that each variable should have five observations in order for a sample size to be adequate. This study had 57 variables and when multiplied by five, the sample size obtained was 285. Complete data was collected from 404 respondents, therefore it was adequate.

A data collection method is a procedure used to collect data (Bryman, 2011). The process used to collect the data is determined by resources that are available as well as the purpose of the research, amongst other factors (Wild & Diggins, 2011). This study used a self-administered structured questionnaire and data was collected through an online and a paper-based survey. The advantage of a self-administered questionnaire is that it can be less intrusive, which was important in this study as respondents had to provide honest information about their work environment and their workplace behaviours and intentions. Secondly, it can be less expensive than other data collection methods and data can be collected from a large number of people; this study required a fairly large number of respondents (De Leeuw, 2008). This study used online and paper-based surveys due to the fact that not all Famous Brands employees have access to computers or the internet. Consequently, employees with access to emails received online surveys and employees without access to emails or the internet received paper-based surveys. The collection happened within ethical data collection procedures, which are discussed in detail in chapter 6.

1.5.2.4 Data analysis

The data analyses started with descriptive statistics that gave demographic characteristics of the respondents and the constructs' means and standard deviations. The study used structural equation modelling (SEM) to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and path analysis to test model. The model and the relationships between the variables and the measurement model tested the constructs' reliability (composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha) and validity (convergent and discriminant validity). The measurement model also tested the model fit in terms of the Chi-Square, Comparative fit index (CFI), Random measure of standard error approximation (RMSEA), Goodness of fit Index (GFI), Incremental fit Index (IFI) and Normed fit Index (NFI). These analyses were conducted with SPSS and AMOS 26. The results of all the analyses are presented in detail in chapter 7 and discussed in chapter 8.

1.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

1.6.1 Theoretical Contributions

Brand equity is important for organisations as it represents the power that a brand holds and comes with many benefits for the organisation (Keller & Brexendorf, 2019). However, the majority of brand equity literature focuses on CBBE and FBBE and little attention has been given to the EBBE. Employees deliver the brand promises to the consumer, thus their contributions to the building of brand equity should be studied

(King & Grace, 2010). This study contributes to literature in IBM, strategic brand management, human resources, and relationship management by revealing how organisations can build EBBE as well as showing the benefits that can come as a result of investing in employees.

IBM was identified as a source of EBBE in this study. Although studies have looked at internal brand management, this study shows four IBM practices that can lead to employee satisfaction, which is in turn, a strong driver of three EBBE benefits (i.e., brand endorsement, brand allegiance and brand citizenship behaviour). These benefits are good drivers of brand commitment as this study found. This shows that the many studies (e.g., King & Grace, 2010) that have focused on EBBE as the end point of building brand equity from an employee perspective are limiting.

There are other outcomes after attaining EBBE. From this study's finding and some other studies that have looked at the outcomes after gaining EBBE, there is now proof that beyond EBBE achievement, there are other outcomes such as brand commitment, firm performance, customer orientation and, market performance (Poulis & Wisker, 2016; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). This study's addition of brand commitment as another outcome of EBBE benefits is a pointer that models delineating the sources and outcomes of EBBE should be expanded beyond explaining only EBBE. This study's tested holistic model is a good example of how EBBE models can be expanded.

There are EBBE studies that have been conducted previously (see e.g., King & Grace, 2009, Poulis & Wisker, 2016; Mokhtar, Altaf & Ghani, 2018). However, many of these studies have been conducted in countries outside of South Africa, where the dynamics and business environment could be different. This study provides insights for understanding the sources and outcomes of EBBE from a South African or emerging market perspective. The developed and empirically tested conceptual model can also be used to examine the sources and outcomes of EBBE in other emerging and African markets. Lastly, few studies have tested an EBBE model in the food services environment. The insights from this study can be used to understand how EBBE and brand commitment can be built in the food services sector and what to look out for in strategy development.

1.6.2 Practical Contributions

There is increasing pressure for marketing professionals to be accountable for their huge investments in building brands whether from customer or employee perspectives (King & Grace, 2010). This study provides a tested model that can be used by management to demonstrate that the efforts in internal brand management can yield fruits that start with employees' satisfaction to a number of EBBE benefits. With these benefits, and the fact that it stretches to the attainment of brand commitment, brand and marketing managers can now have ways to receive internal buy-in for internal brand management strategies that require financial resources and other investments. The EBBE benefits found in this study, and which emanate from employee satisfaction, are strong pointers to brand/marketing managers that their overly focus on customers can start shifting to employees too.

EBBE benefits do not only lead to brand commitment as this study found, but can also lead to varied non-financial and financial outcomes like customer orientation, brand value defence and dissemination of customers, market share and financial revenues (Wolter et al., 2019; Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). Defining brand commitment as "the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert extra effort toward reaching the brands goals, that is, to exert brand citizenship behaviour", Burmann et al. (2009b, p. 266) contend that brand commitment can "generate a new quality of brand strength". This study contributes by showing how employee brand commitment can be developed.

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

This study was divided into eight chapter; below is a brief description of each chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

Chapter 1 presents the background of this study, the problem statement, objectives, a brief literature review in terms of useful theories and models. These are followed by the conceptual model of the study and the hypotheses. An overview of the research methodology, as well as the contribution of the study, is then presented.

Chapter 2: Context of the study

This chapter gives a review of the food and beverages industry, globally and in South Africa. This is then followed by a review of the food service industry, then finally a review of Famous Brands and a justification of why the organisation was chosen for this study.

Chapter 3: Literature Review: Internal brand management and employee satisfaction as an outcome

Chapter 3 reviews internal brand management and its different sources (internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards, management support, development, training, leadership, motivation and recruitment). Employee satisfaction was also reviewed as an outcome of internal brand management.

Chapter 4: Literature Review: Employee-based brand equity (EBBE) and brand commitment

In this chapter, the brand equity concept is discussed, followed by a review of EBBE. The review of the EBBE concept is followed by a discussion of the benefits of EBBE (brand citizenship behaviour, brand endorsement and brand allegiance) and lastly, brand commitment is reviewed as an outcome of EBBE benefits.

Chapter 5: Conceptual framework and hypotheses development

This chapter reviews the theories that ground the study (resource-based view, social exchange theory and social identity theory). This is followed by a discussion of the models that were integrated to develop the conceptual model and hypotheses of this study. Based on the review, an integrated conceptual model was developed, followed by a discussion and development of the hypotheses.

Chapter 6: Research methodology

Chapter 6 discusses and justifies the research methodology adopted in this study. This includes a discussion of the research philosophy, research design, sampling design and the data collection and analyses methods used.

Chapter 7: Presentation of results

In this chapter, the results from testing the conceptual model and hypotheses are presented.

Chapter 8: Discussion of results, conclusions, and recommendations

Chapter 8 starts by recapping on the objectives of the study and looks at whether these were achieved. The chapter discusses the results that were presented in chapter 7 and these results are discussed in comparison to previous studies in order to arrive at the conclusions. Thereafter, the recommendations, contributions, limitations, and recommendations for future research are discussed.

1.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, an overview of this study was provided. The chapter began by giving an introduction and background of the study. This was followed by the research problem, which then led to the objectives of the study. A brief literature review was presented, followed by the development of the conceptual model and hypotheses. The chapter then provided an overview of the research methodology adopted in this study and briefly discussed the contributions that the study makes. Lastly, the overview of the thesis was presented. The chapter that follows gives a review of the research context.

CHAPTER 2: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This study aimed at achieving its objectives in the context of the South African food and beverages industry. Thus, this chapter reviews the food and beverages industry and food services industry globally, and in South Africa. The chapter starts by overviewing the food and beverages industry globally; it then discusses the industry in South Africa. Thereafter, it looks at the historical background of Africa's leading food service company, Famous Brands, followed by a review of its portfolio and business performance.

2.2 FOOD AND BEVERAGE INDUSTRY

2.2.1 The Nature of the Food and Beverage Industry

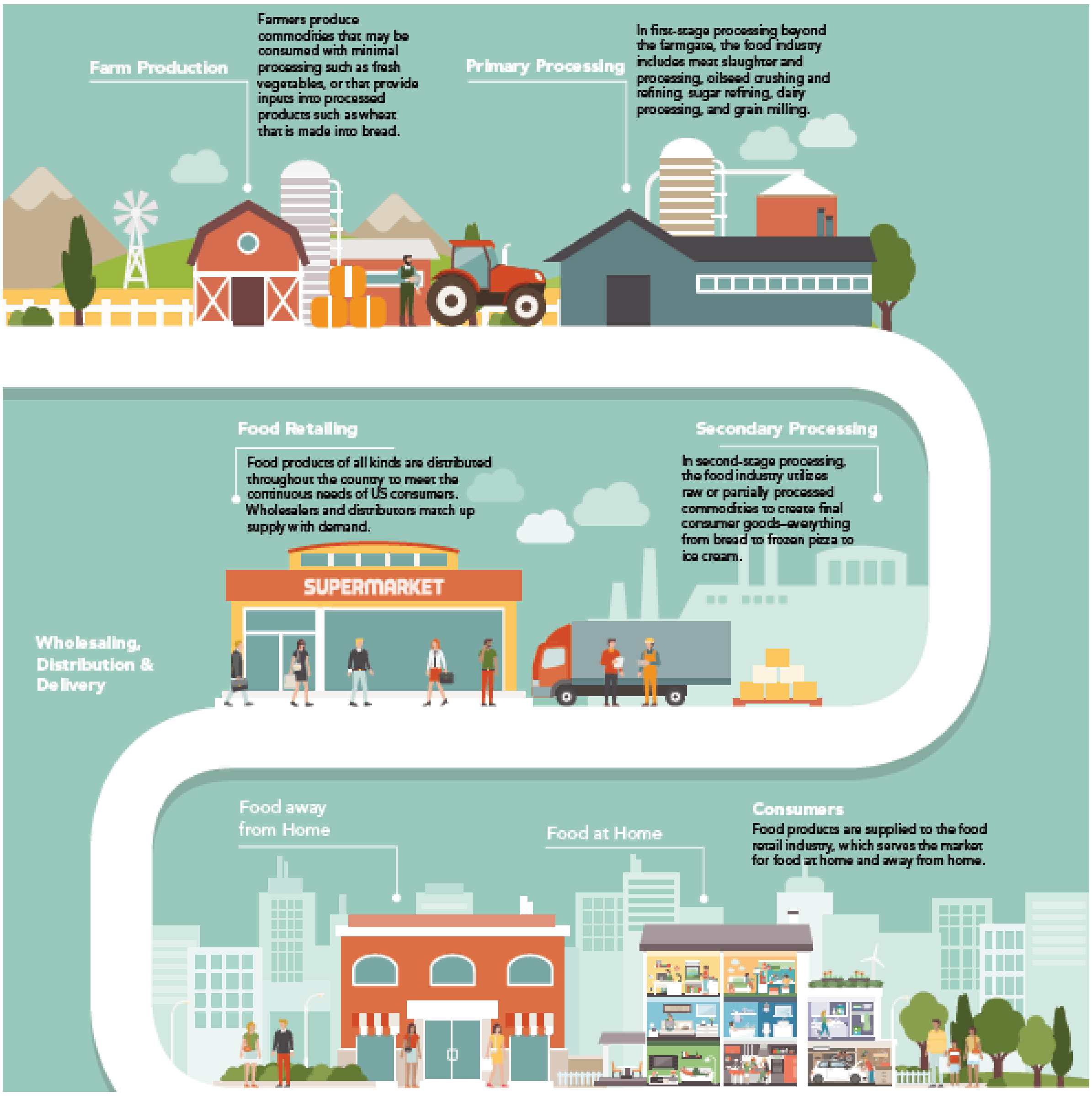
The "food and beverages industry provides consumers food and beverage, service, ambience, and delightful dining time and space" (Ho, Yang & Hung, 2015, p.115). The industry comprises of farming, distribution, retail, food production and catering (IMAP, 2010). Shopping centres are increasingly including more food and beverages providers in their designs. These types of developments are growing in popularity due to the fact that they provide landlords with footfall which is needed for business growth (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). The industry is fragmented, with market leaders like Nestle, Unilever, Cargill, and Kraft foods each accounting for less than 5% of the industry's value (IMAP, 2010).

The industry is amongst the biggest contributors to economic growth in most countries (Agriculture, forestry & fisheries, 2017). The last 10 years have seen good growth in the industry, which is projected to carry on (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). Increased competition is also expected (Ho, Yang & Hung, 2015). In 2008, the global food and beverages industry was valued at $5.7 trillion USD (IMAP, 2010). The value is expected to go up to between $20 and $25 trillion by 2030 (Sana, 2016). The growth in urbanisation and more young people gaining financial power are some of the drivers for the demand for packaged and processed food and beverages (Gulfood, 2019). The global population is expected to grow significantly by 2030 and this will drive up the demand for food and beverages. However, consumer spending is expected to decrease (Gulfood, 2019).

Europe has the biggest share of the food and beverage (F&B) industry globally, generating over $1 trillion USD in revenue and providing employment for 4 million people in 2007 (IMAP, 2010). In 2018, the European Union's (EU) F&B industry was employing 4.51 million people and spending 101 billion Euros in salaries. In 2015, 38.5 billion Euros was invested in the industry, receiving the highest spending in terms of capital (FoodDrinkEurope, 2019). In 2008, the United States (US) was the second largest contributor and it contributed an estimated $1 trillion USD. Emerging markets like India, have become major contributors of raw material in the industry (IMAP, 2010). Between 2007 and 2008, India's food and beverages market was valued at $182 billion USD and the food processing sector was valued at $72 billon USD. China's food processing industry was valued at $50 billion USD (IMAP, 2010). Like with many industries, this industry also faces challenges such as increased transportation costs due to the rise in oil prices and rising food costs. Although this industry has faced challenges, it has been impacted less than most industries. This is mainly because food is essential in consumers' lives (IMAP, 2010).

There are various parties involved in the development of food and beverages. Farmers are first in the value chain as they are responsible for the production of commodities needed (Committee for Economic Development (CED), 2017). This is then followed by manufacturers who process and manufacture products. Retailers are then responsible for the selling of products and lastly, the products are then consumed by consumers in the home environment or restaurants (CED, 2017). Figure 2.1 provides an overview of the value chain.

Figure 2.1: Value Chain – F&B industry



Source: (CED, 2017, p.13)

While this section provided an overview of the industry, the next section discusses why this industry is important globally.

2.2.2 The Importance of the Food and Beverage Industry

The food and beverage industry has an important role to play because it affects human life as well as health (Pfitzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). The industry operates on a societal level, where families grow food for their own consumption, communities are able to trade for fresh produce, local businesses are able to transform local crops into markets and global businesses are able to purchase commodities and distribute them globally (Pfitzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). In developing markets, people are able to grow and sell food as agriculture is the biggest sector in these economies (Pfitzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). In developed markets like the EU, the industry is amongst the top three manufacturing industries, it employs a large number of people and has over 290 000 SMEs that account for half of the industry's turnover (FoodDrinkEurope, 2019). In the US, the industry accounts for 5 percent of GDP, 10 percent of employment and 10 percent of the disposable income spend (CED, 2017).

When looking at the business landscape globally, large firms have not only found business opportunities but they continue to create economic opportunities for people through food and beverages (Pfitzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). In the last 50 years, there has been global economic growth, however, the challenge has been that not everyone has benefited or been a part of the growth (Pfitzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). Over 65 percent of the world's population lives in poverty. What is even more challenging is that these people often do not have opportunities to assist themselves to improve their lives (Pfitzer & Krishnaswamy, 2007). Pfitzer and Krishnaswamy (2007) and Committee for Economic Development (CED) (2017) highlight that the food and beverages companies are able to increase economic opportunities for both developing and developed countries around the world. The food and beverage industry has been proven to have an economic and social impact in societies. Even during economic crises, like the one that hit Greece, the food and beverage industry (F&B) is one of the industries that remain resilient (Konstantinidis, Natos & Mattas, 2019). The industry has been able to add value to:

- Farms producing raw materials
- Domestic food processing and manufacturing plants
- Employment creation
- Taxes for the government
- Dividends to local and international investors
- Addressing consumer needs

This section discussed the importance of the F&B industry. It also highlighted the various stakeholders that are involved in the development of F&B. The next section looks at the global demand and supply of F&B.

2.2.3 The Global Demand and Supply of Food and Beverages

Rapid growth in population and urbanisation has resulted in increased demand across the world for processed as well as packaged food and beverages; this trend is projected to continue. The top 20 countries of F&B consumption in 2017 are presented in figure 2.4. Figure 2.4 shows that in 2017, China had the largest consumption of F&B, followed by the US. Consumer spending in food and beverages is expected to drop from 8.5% to 8% of overall global GDP by 2030. This will be caused by the fact that as prices of products decrease, consumers will use up a smaller proportion of their spending on food and beverages (Gulfood, 2019). When looking at where the growth in consumer demand will come from, in 2015 the world had 7.3 billion people and this number is expected to increase to 9.7 billion by 2050. Currently, about 50% of the world's population resides in urban areas and this number is expected to increase to 66% by 2050. By 2030, 6 in 7 people are expected to consume 3000 calories a day (Accenture, 2017).

Figure 2.2: Top 20 F&B countries by consumption

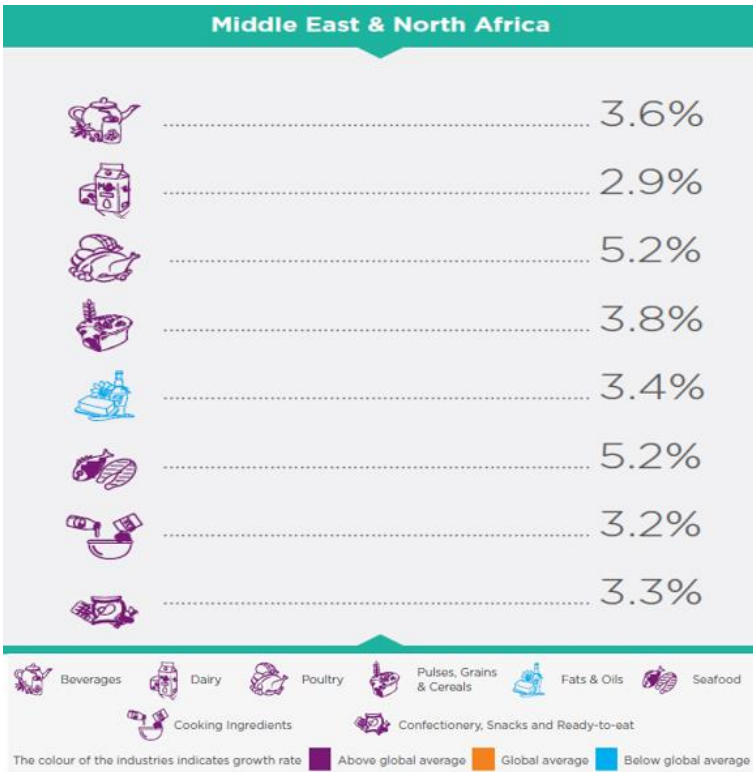
Source: (Gulfood, 2019, p.29)

Young people, under 30 years, who reside in urban areas across Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia Pacific will become the food and beverages consumers of the future (Gulfood, 2019). This group of consumers is the fastest growing and highest contributor in sales value growth; this is driven by their increasing spending power and love for convenient and easy to make food and beverages (Gulfood, 2019). Some of the most popular food and beverages these young adult consumers consume include: dairy products, snacks, instant noodles, pasta and ready-to-drink (RTD) drinks. This group is health conscious and this can also be seen through young parents who are careful about what they feed their children (Gulfood, 2019).

In 2017, the term "Food with a Function" was in the top five most googled food related searches and in 2017, it was estimated that healthy foods would result in $1 trillion worth of sales (Accenture, 2017). Many consumers in emerging markets are lower income consumers who are trading up to purchase packaged food for the first time, which is the opposite of their counterparts in mature markets like Europe, North America, and Australasia (Gulfood, 2019). Mature markets have slower growth rates and the people are older; with the main consumer of the future most likely to be over 50 years. Some of these consumers in the mature markets are affluent, while others are living on government pensions. What is common about them is that they are looking for health benefits in what they consume. To get these benefits, they consumer organic, high-quality fresh or processed products and treats (Gulfood, 2019).

The Middle East and Africa have the highest rates of growth due to high birth rates, employment growth, rapidly expanding cities, distribution of wealth, political and economic stability, and improved infrastructure. These factors have given consumers greater access to a variety of food and beverages (Gulfood, 2019). In Asia Pacific, the size of the population and growth in disposable income offers great growth for food and beverages (Gulfood, 2019). In the Middle East and North Africa, beverages; dairy; pulses, grains and cereals; seafood; cooking ingredients; and confectionery, snacks and ready-to-eat products are growing at a higher rate than the global average. Sub-Saharan Africa has the same trend. Asia Pacific is also seeing growth that is higher than the global rate for these categories, with the exception of beverages, which are growing at the global average and seafood, which is below the global average (Gulfood, 2019). The growth rates for these categories in these regions are presented in figures 2.5 and 2.6.

Figure 2.3: Food and beverage growth in the Middle East and Africa



Source: Gulfood (2019, p.14)

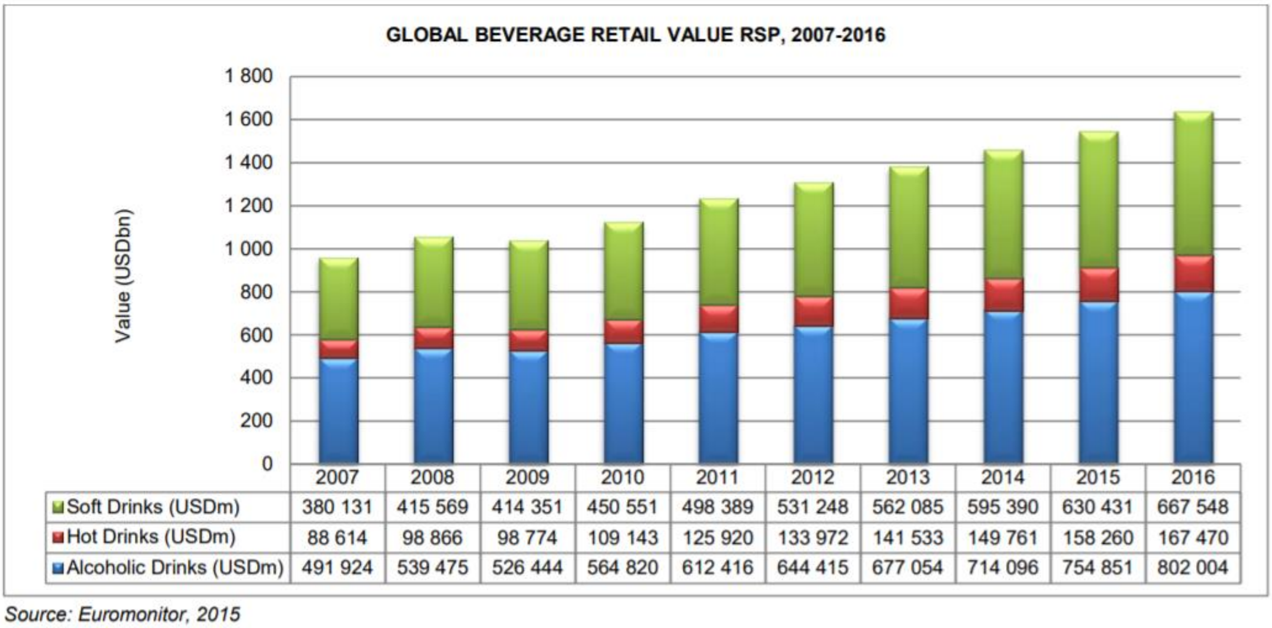
Figure 2.4: Food and beverages growth in Asia Pacific

Source: Gulfood (2019, p.15)

Global beverage sales have mainly been driven by the sale of alcoholic beverages, followed by soft drinks (Wesgro, 2016). West Europe and America are seeing a decrease in the consumption of mainstream beer and seeing an increase in the consumption of craft beer, which indicates the continued change in consumer tastes (Wesgro, 2016). Although commercial beer is seeing declines in developed markets, the category is seeing growth in developing markets (excluding Russia). Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa's consumers are drinking more beer, and more expensive beer, while the average person in Western Europe is reducing the consumption of beer (Wesgro, 2016). Premium whisky has been the best performing category in alcohol globally and as a result, spirit companies like Diageo and Pernod Ricard are putting more investment behind whisky (Wesgro, 2016). In 2017, gin sales spiked in the UK and the growth was higher than any other spirit, this resulted in over 47 million bottles of gin being sold (BDO, 2018). Products like Scotch whisky have mainly been popular in countries like China and India (Wesgro, 2016).

There has been a growing trend towards healthier beverages in major markets across world and the global soft drinks industry has remained stable. The majority of ready-to-drink (RTD) growth between 2014 and 2015 came from bottled water. Carbonated soft drinks reached their lowest in 2015; consumers are moving towards water, tea and alternative soft drinks, which are healthier and more natural (Wesgro, 2016). Most growth in the soft drinks industry is projected to come from Africa, Asia and the Middle East (Wesgro, 2016). There has been a decline of fruit juice sales in developed markets however, growth coming from Asia has been able to offset the declines. 100 percent juices and flavour innovations are expected to sustain the fruit juice category (Wesgro, 2016). Figure 2.7 shows global beverage value between 2007 and 2016.

Figure 2.5: Global beverage retail value



Source: Wesgro (2015, p.3)

This section gave an overview of the demand and supply of F&B. The next section reviews some of the trends that could drive demand and supply in the future.

2.2.4 Trends in Food and Beverages

There has been growth in the global F&B industry, with the US and Europe driving trends which are then replicated across the world. Although there are differences in the different regions, for the most part, the trends are very similar (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). Consumer tastes are continuing to change and as a result, driving a need for customisation, innovation and authenticity (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). With consumers travelling more around the world and experiencing new foods and flavours, there has been an emerging trend of **global cuisines**; Korea, Africa and the Philippines are driving the global cuisines trends (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). While consumers want to experience global flavours, they also want to connect with F&B on a personal level by understanding where the food comes from and the involvement of the local community (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017).

An estimated 55 percent of consumers are willing to pay more for products from companies that have a **positive impact socially and in the environment** (Accenture, 2017). Many consumers believe that change is needed in the way food is produced and consumed. As a result, technology is being developed and implemented to allow consumers to trace food from the source until the point of consumption (Accenture, 2017). In North America, over $4 billion has been invested in technology that allows consumers to trace food and this is projected to grow globally (Accenture, 2017). In the US, **trust** was also found to be one of the top-three purchase drivers for both big brands and private labels. Six out 10 consumers said they would not be willing to purchase products from companies they do not trust. Due to the rapid need for trust, companies will need to find ways to communicate their value system to the end consumer (Accenture, 2017).

Consumers are increasingly looking for **new experiences** due to feeling adventurous and having a fear of missing out (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). F&B operators have found themselves needing to have quality offers and increased engagement with consumers through personalising products and in the food services industry, through training staff (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). Venues that have grown popular in offering F&B experiences are music festivals, sports events, and restaurants (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017).

For many years, traditional food retailers have remained leaders in the retail industry, having loyal customers and high transactions. However, the growth in **e-commerce** is bringing about new opportunities in this industry, challenging retailers in food to start thinking differently (Accenture, 2017). F&B are amongst the biggest offerings in the retail industry however, e-commerce is still lagging behind (Sana, 2016). One of the reasons the growth of e-commerce in F&B has been slow is because F&B have unique storage and transport requirements, as compared to non-perishable items like apparel. The products have unique needs in terms of packaging, hygiene, expiration dates and temperature, which means that it is vital for companies to have fast delivery. Consequently, many companies have focused on the challenges rather than the opportunities (Sana, 2016). Although e-commerce in F&B has some challenges, global companies like General Mills, Mondelez and PepsiCo have noticed that e-commerce will affect their businesses in the future therefore, they have started focusing on investing in e-commerce (Sana, 2016). In 2016, the e-commerce business for Mondelez was valued at $100 million and this is projected to grow to $1 billion by 2020 (Sana, 2016). Grocery stores have also started to offer their products online as they have seen the growth of customers who are needing convenience. Key online retailers such as Walmart and Amazon have started expanding their online businesses to start including groceries and this trend is expected to filter into other F&B businesses (Sana, 2016). Li and Coca-Stefaniak (2020) conducted a study during COVID-19 outbreak, which found that consumers were moving more towards online grocery shopping; this trend could continue post the outbreak as those who were skeptical to use online shopping are now adopting it during this period. Drones have increasingly been playing an important role in the delivery of food and beverages due to their speed, ability to avoid traffic and being able to reach more locations. UberEats, which is a food delivery service, plans to launch drones by 2021 (Hwanga, Leeb & Kim, 2019).

Consumers are increasingly changing their diets and opting for **healthy foods.** Food is expected to be tailored for health needs and health organisations will start focusing on food in order to assist in controlling diseases (Accenture, 2017). Because consumers are increasingly focused on health when purchasing food, they are willing to pay a premium for healthier food (Accenture, 2017). Food production systems will change in future due to the competitive landscape and change in consumers' needs. This will help with climate changes and meet the needs of the global urban population. This means that food production will be reinvented and each stage of food production will change (Accenture, 2017).

Per capita income and population growth means that the world demand for products like crops will grow by 60 percent between 2010 and 2050 (Accenture, 2017). As it currently stands, food producers are already using technology to better manage resources and create better efficiencies, e.g. agriculture has started using technology that assist in monitoring and optimising inputs, therefore increasing profitability (Accenture, 2017). Waste management in food production will also become a focus. Currently, trillions of tonnes of food is lost and wasted globally every year (Martin-Rios, Demen-Meier, Gössling, & Cornuz, 2018). In the future, technology will assist in reducing waste and educating customers (Accenture, 2017).

By 2050, the global **protein** demand is projected to increase by 80 percent and traditional advancement will not be able to handle the capacity. Consequently, food will broaden and change, there will be changes genetically and biologically. Alternative proteins like algae, peas, yeast, and insects will grow significantly (Accenture, 2017). Meal replacement innovation will also be on the rise and this trend has begun; 17

percent of consumers in the US said that they had used meal-replacement beverages (Accenture, 2017). The consumer demand for local food is expected to increase however, current methods will not be able to support the production needs. Trends like urban farming and in-store farming will grow popular in order to bring farm/s closer to the population centres (Accenture, 2017).

The previous sections have discussed the F&B industry globally, the next section looks at the F&B industry in South Africa.

2.3 THE SOUTH AFRICAN FOOD AND BEVERAGE INDUSTRY

2.3.1 Overview of the Types, Consumption Rate and Key Players in Food and Beverages in South Africa

South Africa has a developed infrastructure, wide biodiversity and marine resources, as well as competitive pricing. These factors make the country an important player in the world's F&B industry (Flanders, 2015). In the previous financial year, F&B exports were valued at R 70.23 billion, while imports were valued R 69.77 billion. The sector accounts for 5.6 percent of overall exports in South Africa and it has grown consistently over the years (DALRRD, 2019).

Agriculture plays an important role in the F&B industry of South Africa. It employs 600 thousand people and approximately 8 million people are indirectly or directly dependent on agriculture for employment (Flanders, 2015). Agriculture contributes to 2 percent of the GDP. This number has declined over the past few decades, which indicates that the economy is approaching a maturity stage and that there is a movement towards secondary and tertiary sectors (Flanders, 2015). The country is self-sufficient in most of the major agriculture products and it also exports 30 percent more agricultural goods than it imports. The biggest export countries for agricultural goods include: China, the Netherlands, the UK, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique (Flanders, 2015). The biggest export products are grains, fish, alcoholic products, fruits, vegetables, sugar, and fish (Flanders, 2015).

Manufacturing is also another important sector for South Africa; the production of food is the largest manufacturing sector in the country (Flanders, 2015). The country produces a wide range of products and the industry is developed, competitive and it produces good quality for the country and international markets (Flanders, 2015). The industry is divided into five sectors: confectionary, snacks, cereals and baking; beverages; dairy; food preparation products; and meat, fish, vegetables and fruits (FoodBev, 2019). The industry has over 1800 companies, with the top 10 companies accounting for 70% of the industries sales. These major players include: Tiger Brands, Nestle, Parmalat SA, Clover SA, AVI, Kellogg's, Premier Foods, Rainbow and South African Breweries (Flanders, 2015). According to Mchiza, Steyn, Hill, Kruger, Schönfeldt, Nel and Wentzel-Viljoen (2015), full cream milk, white bread, maize, potatoes, rice, fruits, vegetables, tea and sugar are amongst the most consumed items in South Africa.

When looking at the beverages sector, the South African trend of beverages has seen a similar trend as global sales, with alcohol and soft drinks being the highest selling beverages in the country (Wesgro, 2016). Fruit juices and water have been seeing a growth since 2008 (Wesgro, 2016). Energy drinks are projected to become an important player in the future and the growth of on-the-go breakfast has also had a positive impact on the coffee market (Wesgro, 2016).

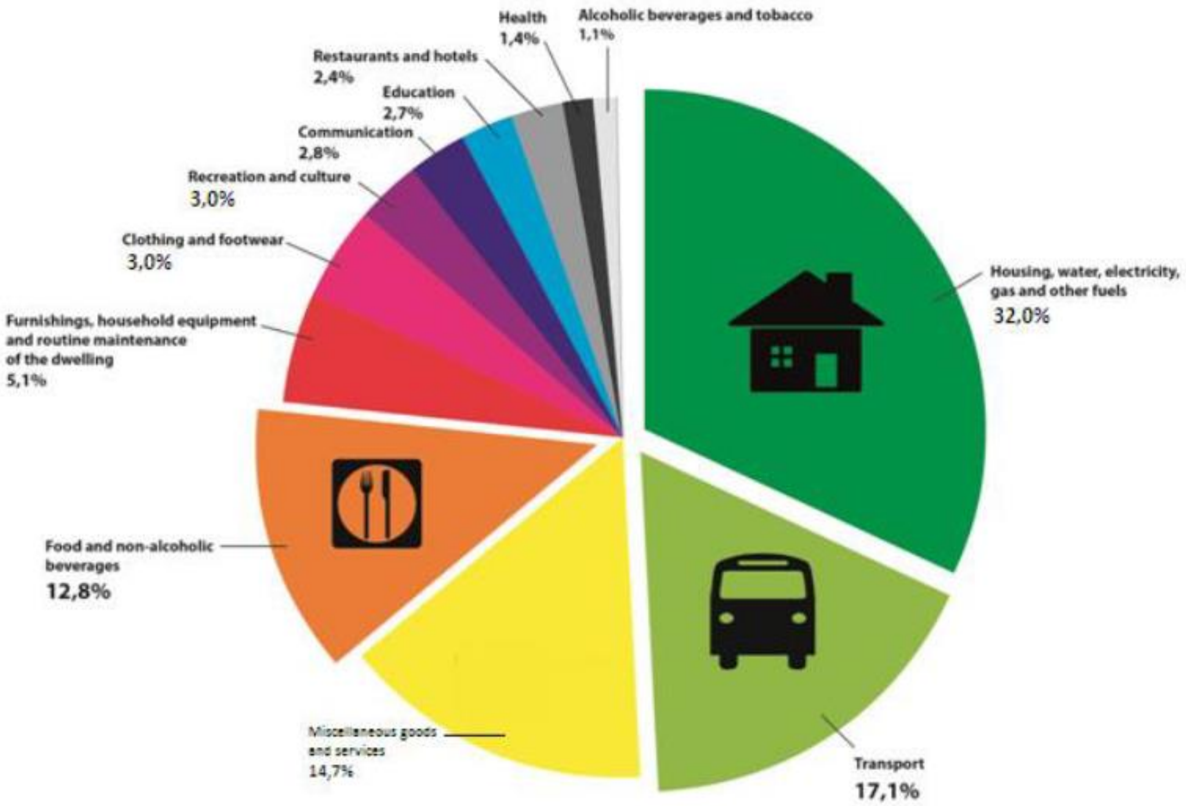
The soft drinks industry is dominated by carbonated drinks, with Coca-Cola being the market leader (Flanders, 2015; Wesgro, 2016). PepsiCo is bottled by Pioneer foods in South Africa and holds an estimated market share of 5% (Wesgro, 2016). Carbonated drinks have remained popular, especially amongst lower income consumers in the country. However, this trend could be affected by consumers becoming more health conscious; the sugar tax; the growth in fruit juices; bottled water and energy drinks (Wesgro, 2016).

Coffee dominates the hot drinks market in South Africa, with the per capita consumption sitting at 0.7 kg per annum (Wesgro, 2016). The leaders in the hot drinks market are Nestle, which supplies Nestle Classic and Ricoffy, and AVI. Key factors that have attributed to the growth of this market include value for money, convenience, increasingly busy lifestyles and modern trade growing in the rural markets of South Africa (Flanders, 2015; Wesgro, 2016). Consumers in this market are gradually moving towards the consumption of premium instant coffee as income levels increase and organic coffee is also becoming popular due to consumers seeking healthy alternatives (Flanders, 2015). Another indicator of the growth in the South African coffee culture are the increased number of people investing in coffee machines at home (Flanders, 2015). International brands like Starbucks have also entered the market and opened outlets (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017).

Beer and wine dominate the South African alcoholic drinks market (Flanders, 2015; Wesgro, 2016). The bulk of alcohol consumed in South Africa is beer, accounting for over 70% of the volume and over 50% in terms of value (Wesgro, 2016). SABMiller dominates the beer market, with almost 90% market share. The closest competitors are Heineken and Diageo (Wesgro, 2016). Carling Black Label, Castle and Hansa Pilsner are the most consumed SAB beer brands (Flanders, 2015). In the wine category, South Africa's wine industry has been in existence for more than 300 years and it is the 7th biggest in the world in terms of production, contributing to 4% of the world's production (Flanders, 2015). The wine industry in South Africa is mainly based in the Western Cape and has a reputation of producing quality (Wesgro, 2016). The growth in wine has mainly come from sweet and rose wines, and Distell holds 40% market share in the premium wine market (Wesgro, 2016).

When looking at the percentage of income spent on F&B, figure 2.8 presents the income expenditure of South Africans between 2010 and 2011. The majority (32 percent) of expenditure was spent on housing, electricity, water and gas (Flanders, 2015). Food and non-alcoholic beverages accounted for 12.8 percent, restaurants and hotels accounted for 2.4 percent and alcoholic beverages accounted for 1.1 percent of expenditure (Flanders, 2015). Consumer spending has seen increases over the years as middle class consumers increase and retailers play an important role in giving consumers access to products (Flanders, 2015). In 2016, South Africa's retail industry was valued at $62.6 billion USD and it is projected to grow by 2.4 percent by 2021 (Wesgro, 2017). The country has a wide variety of retail outlets such as speciality stores, boutiques, department outlets, wholesalers, chain stores, and supermarket chains. Grocery retailers account for 47 percent of retail usage and are dominated by the likes of Woolworths, Pick n Pay, Massmart and Shoprite (Flanders, 2015). E-commerce is still at its early stages but growing gradually and the food franchising sector is well established (Flanders, 2015; Johnson & Iyamu, 2019).

Figure 2.6: Household expenditure in South Africa between 2010 and 2011



Source: (Flanders, 2015, p.16)

This section gave a broad overview of the F&B industry, the next section provides an overview of an important sector within the F&B industry, which is the food service industry.

2.4 THE FOOD SERVICE INDUSTRY

2.4.1 The Nature of the Food Service Industry

Food services refers to "the serviced provision of food and beverages (meals) purchased out of the home but which may be consumed both in and out of the home" (Edwards, 2013, p. 223). Food services can be classified into private, profit and commercial sectors that include cafes, catering, bars, restaurants and fast food outlets (Edwards, 2013; Viljoen, 2012). These sectors have an impact on the economy, generate a substantial amount of money, and employ a large work force (Viljoen, 2012).

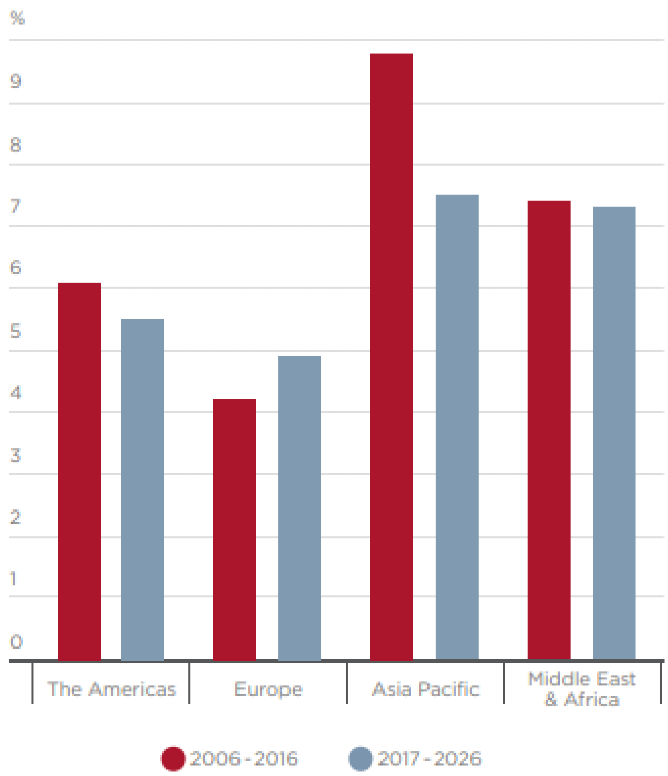
Coffee shops are shops that specialise in selling coffee and a variety of other complementary products that can be consumed at the shop or as a takeaway. Between 2014 and 2015, the industry grew by 9.1 percent (Han, Nguyen, Song, Chua, Lee & Kim, 2018). The US has an estimated 131 000 coffee shops and sales are expected to reach $85 billion USD by 2025 (Han, Nguyen, Song, Chua, Lee & Kim, 2018). In the UK, sales grew by 28% between 2010 and 2015; countries in Asia Pacific like Korea and Japan are also seeing growth in this market. Some of the market leaders are Starbucks and McCafe (Han, Nguyen, Song, Chua, Lee & Kim, 2018). "Full-service restaurants, defined as establishments with wait staff, tend to offer more varied menus and dining amenities" (Stewart, Blisard, Bhuyan & Nayga, 2004, p.3). The growth of this industry is largely influenced by demographic changes and income levels (Stewart, Blisard, Bhuyan & Nayga, 2004).

Another popular offering in the food service industry is fast food. The concept of fast food was first introduced in the 1920s and by the 1950s, the industry had witnessed rapid growth (Nisa, 2005). Fast food is made and served at a speedy rate, either at a fast food restaurant or shop (Nisa, 2005; Xiao, Yang & Iqbal, 2019). Outlets that offer fast food provide consumers with take away or sit down services (Marx-Pienaar, Du Rand, Fisher & Viljoen, 2020). The industry is worth billions globally and is projected to continue growing at a rapid rate (Nisa, 2005; Alnassar, 2017). Fast food is often prepared following processes which can include standard ingredients, production methods and methodical cooking processes (Nisa, 2005). It continues to be chosen by customers due to the convenience, taste, and affordable pricing ((Xiao, Yang & Iqbal, 2019). Other factors which influence the use of fast food is that fast food is prepared much more quickly than home-cooked meals and consumers are having increasingly busy lifestyles, long working hours, as well as family responsibilities (Xiao, Yang & Iqbal, 2019).

Global consumption food services

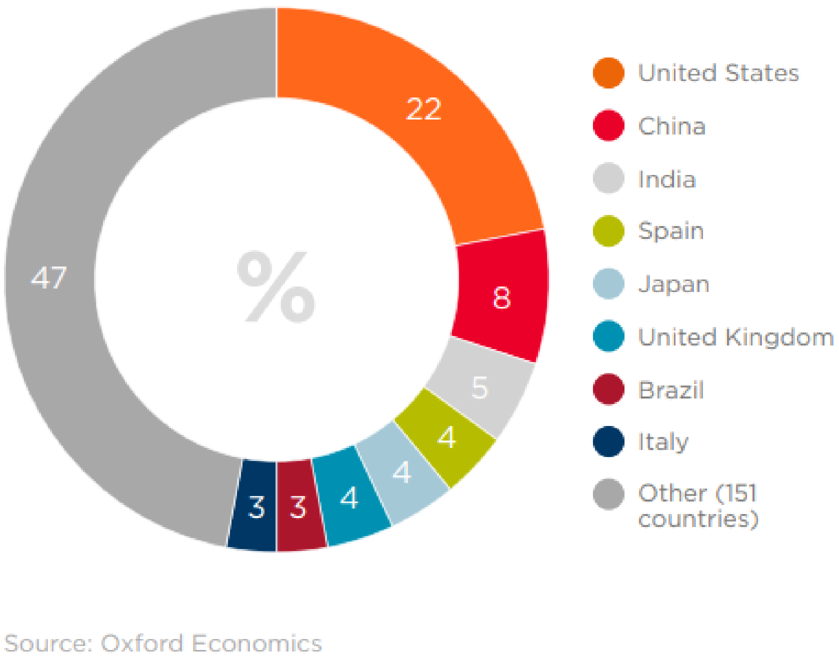
In the UK, the sales of food and drinks that are not consumed in the home grew by 7 percent between 2006 and 2011 (Edwards, 2013). The US, Canada and Europe have the most mature markets, with growth sitting between 4.2 percent and 6.1 percent between 2006 and 2016 (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). In the US, the food service industry accounts for the employment of over 12.9 million people (Joung, Goh, Huffman, Yuan, & Surles, 2015). In 2010, Asia Pacific accounted for 40% of food services sales, making it a dominant region (Edwards, 2013). Asia Pacific is the fastest growing region for eating out, with an average annual growth of 9.8 percent between 2006 and 2016 (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). This region also dominates with the number of outlets that exist and some of the outlets consist of street stalls and independent restaurants in countries like India and China (Edwards, 2013). Eating out is also seen as an important part of social life, China has the 2nd biggest market and countries like South Korea and Japan are penetrating the higher-income markets. In Latin America, countries like Argentina, Brazil and Columbia are driving the growth in the region (Edwards, 2013). The Africa and Middle East regions have been the second fastest growing regions with an annual average growth rate of 7.4 percent between 2006 and 2016 (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). Figure 2.9 shows the growth rate of eating out per region between 2006 and 2016 and the forecasted growth for 2017 – 2026. It is evident that that Asia, the Middle East, and Africa are projected to have the highest percentage growths for eating out in the future (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017). Figure 2.10 shows the regional breakdown of the eating out global share, the US has the biggest market and it is followed by China (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017).

Figure 2.7: Global growth on eating out



Source: Cushman and Wakefield (2017, p.15)

Figure 2.8: Largest markets in eating out



Source: Cushman and Wakefield (2017, p.15)

2.5 THE SOUTH AFRICAN FOOD SERVICE INDUSTRY

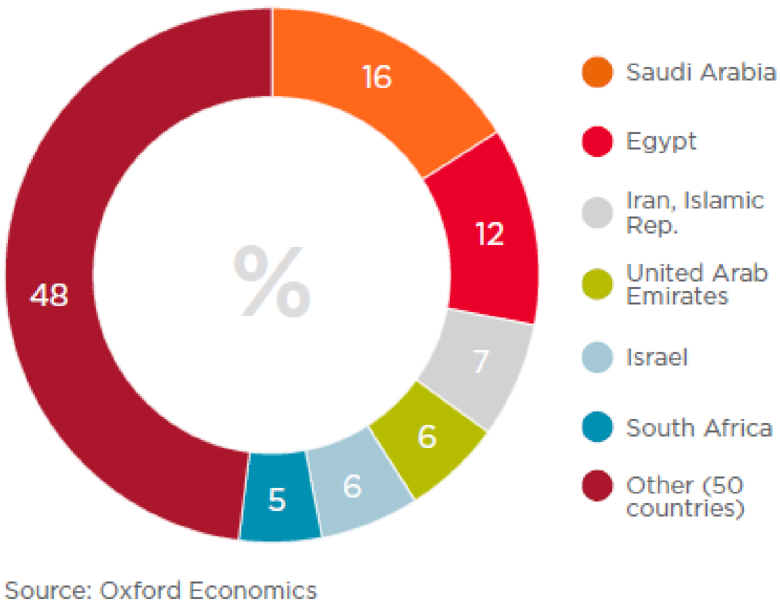
This section outlines the food services industry in South Africa, the sectors within the industry, then looks at the key competitors.

2.5.1 The State of the Food Service Industry in South Africa

South Africa has the biggest food service industry in Sub-Saharan Africa (Ntloedibe, 2016). Between 1994 and 2010, South Africa saw a 69 percent increase in gross national income per capita (Maumbe, 2012). Additionally, the middle has class increased, there has been an increase in rural-urban migration and there have been more women entering the workforce. This has resulted in increased consumerism and the consumption of food from food services outlets. The food service market structure comprises of restaurants, local and multinational franchises, food catering, supermarket chains offering ready-to-eat meals and informal traders (Maumbe, 2012).

The catering market is dominated by large services providers who offer services to the transport industry, prisons, educational institutions and the health sector (Ntloedibe, 2016). Restaurants are also important to the economy because they employ a significant labour force due to the labour intensiveness of the industry (Mupani, 2016). In January 2016, restaurants and coffee shops grew by 4.4 percent and catering grew by 2.4 percent. Furthermore, in 2016 South Africa was the 6th largest market for eating out in the Middle East and Africa (MEA) region, as presented in figure 2.11

Figure 2.9: Top consumer spending markets for eating out (MEA)



Source: Cushman and Wakefield (2017, p.20).

The South African food service industry is dominated by fast food outlets (Ntloedibe, 2016). The country first saw the launch of its franchised fast food industry in the 1960s when American hamburger restaurant, Wimpy, entered the market. In 1971, Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) entered the market and today the brand is the market leader and has over 800 restaurants in South Africa (Mckay & Subramoney, 2017). Another flourishing fast food restaurant in South Africa is McDonald's. McDonald's opened its first South African restaurant in 1995 and today they operate over 200 restaurants in the country (Mckay & Subramoney, 2017).

The recent economic downturn has driven an economic slowdown in some parts of South Africa. As a result of this, consumers have started eating out less frequently or moving towards cheaper food outlets (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017) and fast food brands are known for offering value to consumers. The South African fast food industry previously had limited competition however, this has changed over the years as independent chains entered the market at a rapid pace. Competition has not only come from other independent food outlets but from supermarket chains such as Spar, Shoprite, Woolworths, Pick n Pay and Checkers, as well as informal traders. The supermarkets have started to offer ready-to-eat meals such as salads and entrees and as a result, have offered substitutes for restaurants (Mhlanga, 2018). What has made them great substitutes for consumers have been their attractive price points, which consumers are constantly looking for (Mhlanga, 2018).

Price wars have also grown in South Africa's food service industry; driven by international brands entering the market, supermarkets and convenience chains increasing their ready-to-eat offerings, and the large number of fast food outlets (Mhlanga, 2018). In 2014, there were 8661 fast food restaurants in the country and this increased to over 10, 302 by 2015 (Mckay & Subramoney, 2017). These were more restaurants per person than any other BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) country. Even developed markets like Australia have fewer restaurants per person than South Africa does (Mhlanga, 2018).

Despite increased competition in South Africa, there has been an increase in international brands entering the market as they have seen opportunities and this has increased competition for domestic brands (Mckay & Subramoney, 2017). Some of the global brands have included Pizza Hut, Domino's Pizza, Burger King, Dunkin Donuts and Starbucks (Cushman & Wakefield, 2017; Mckay & Subramoney, 2017; Mhlanga, 2018).These new entrants often face tough competition from brands that were previously in the country. An example is Burger King, which experienced substantial competition from McDonalds and Steers when entering the country. These brands decreased their prices and started opening outlets in the areas where the new competitor was opening (Mhlanga, 2018). Another example is when Pizza Hut and Domino's Pizza entered the South African market; domestic players like Debonairs Pizza and Romans Pizza reduced their prices by up to 36 percent (Mhlanga, 2018). E-commerce is also affecting competition, the growth in technology has led to the popularity of food delivery apps like Mr Delivery and UberEats, which are shifting demand across restaurants due to the presence of multiple restaurant providers on their platforms (Mhlanga, 2018).

When looking at organisations that dominate the food service market, Famous Brands Ltd has the highest market share; followed by Yum Brands Inc., which owns KFC and Pizza Hut; and the third biggest company is Nando's Group, which was established in South Africa and now has a presence internationally (Pereira (2014). Table 2.1

provides the market share of the top 10 companies in the food service industry of South Africa.

Table 2.1: Biggest food services companies in South Africa

Largest food service companies	Location of headquarters	Share of the market	Examples of chain brands owned by company
Famous Brands Ltd	South Africa	20.0%	Wimpy, Debonairs Pizza
Yum Brands Inc	USA	15.6%	KFC
Nando's Group Holdings	South Africa	9.5%	Nandos
Spur Corp Ltd		3.9%	Spur Steak Ranches, Panarottis Pizza
McDonald's Corp	USA	2.8%	McDonalds
Golden Fried Chicken	South Africa	2.5%	Golden Fried Chicken
King Pie Holdings	South Africa	2.5%	King Pie
Taste Holdings	South Africa	1.5%	Scooters, Maxis, St Elmo's
Captain DoRego's Fast Foods & Fresh Fish	South Africa	1.4%	Captain DoRego's
Ocean Basket Group	South Africa	1.3%	Ocean Basket

Source: Pereira (2014, p.13)

The next section reviews Famous Brands, which is the largest food service company in Africa.

2.6 FAMOUS BRANDS

This section provides an overview of Famous Brands, starting with their history, followed by the organisation's current business portfolio and market performance.

2.6.1 Historic Background

Famous Brands was founded in the 1960s by George Halamandres, who opened Steers steakhouse near Johannesburg. Halamandres was inspired by the food services concepts he saw during the time that he had spent in the US (Schaefer, 2009). He later added Steers fast food and in the 1980s and began rolling out a franchising programme (Schaefer, 2009). Steers was one of the first fast food brands to have a large number of consumers in South Africa, before international players such as McDonald's and KFC entered the South African market. This was largely due to brands not wanting to open in the SA market during apartheid, however, all this changed in the 1990s (Schaefer, 2009).

The entry of international brands in the 1990s brought about competition and this forced local brands to adapt quickly. Steers holdings continued to increase their franchise restaurants as well as acquire new brands and concepts. In 2003, the company bought Pleasure Foods Limited, which owned Wimpy and Creative Coffee. They also acquired Franchise Systems Limited, who were South African licensees for Brazilian and Illy Coffee Shops brands (Schaefer, 2009). The organisation has continued to acquire more brands and these have included the acquisition of upmarket Tasha’s in 2008. These acquisitions have led to the company having the widest concept and product portfolio in the South African food service industry (Schaefer, 2009).

2.6.2 Portfolio and Business Performance

Famous Brands is vertically integrated into manufacturing and logistics. The company produces, sources, and distributes many of the products which are used by their franchisees, (Schaefer, 2009). While the vertically integrated businesses are profitable; the margins are lower than franchising division margins (Schaefer, 2009; Famous Brands, 2019).

Famous Brands has a wide range of brands under its portfolio and these include top burger brands in South Africa, Wimpy and Steers. The biggest pizza brand in South Africa (SA), Debonairs Pizza, and fish brand, FishAways (Schaefer, 2009). The portfolio of brands consists of over 24 restaurant brands and over 2898 restaurants across Africa, the Middle East and the UK (Famous Brands, 2020). The company has also continued to build a strong position in coffee shops, the fast casual sector and it’s growing its retail division (Schaefer, 2009; Famous Brands, 2019). The retail division includes Wimpy and Steers branded sauces, which are available at South African supermarkets (Schaefer, 2009).

The company has over 5600 direct employees and 75000 indirect employees who are employed by the franchise network (Famous Brands, 2019). Today, Famous Brands is the largest food services franchisor in Africa and is listed on the JSE under travel and leisure, and has a market capitalisation of over R10 billion. The group reported a revenue of R7.8 billion between March 2019 and February 2020 (Famous Brands, 2020). The organisation does not only perform well financially, but some of their brands have strong brand equity. In 2019, the Sunday Times Top Brands Survey named Debonairs Pizza as the 2nd most loved fast food brand in South Africa and Steers came in 6th. Wimpy was named the 3rd most loved sit down restaurant in the country and Mugg n Bean was 4th (Bizcommunity, 2019).

2.7 CONCLUSION

The food and beverage sector continues to grow globally and in South Africa, with most growth projected to come from regions like Africa in the future. Therefore, it is critical to understand the industry as well as its dynamics. The local food service industry has been characterised by intense competition coming from international players such as McDonald’s and KFC, and new entrants like Starbucks and Burger King. In Africa, Famous Brands continues to lead in the industry with brands like Steers, Debonairs Pizza and Wimpy being market leaders and providing employment to over 75000 employees, directly and indirectly. With the organisation seeing such success in an intense market, the IBM processes that Famous Brands has used to keep these employees motivated and committed need to be studied. Chapter 3 provides an overview of IBM as well as employee satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3: INTERNAL BRAND MANAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

On reviewing the literature on the food service industry in South Africa in chapter two, it was found that Famous Brands is a market leader in the industry. The internal branding processes which Famous Brands has used needed to be studied. Therefore, this chapter reviews literature on internal brand management (IBM) practices and discusses the possibility of these practices driving employee satisfaction. The chapter starts by defining IBM and positions it in the study of internal marketing. It then discusses some of the sources of IBM. This is then followed by a review of employee satisfaction, which has been identified as an outcome of IBM activities.

3.2 INTERNAL BRAND MANAGEMENT (IBM)

Iyer, Davari, Srivastava and Paswan (2020) report that brand management is a function that primarily addresses how the core identity of a brand is developed and how its growth, value and all the brand-related assets are managed. Brand management comprises two functions: strategic brand management and internal brand management. Strategic brand management develops strategy for the building, management and measuring of the sources and outcomes of brand equity, as well as brand success in the medium and long-term (Keller, 2003; 2013). IBM is aimed at acquainting employees with brands and motivating them to support brands and deliver on the brand promises (Iyer et al. 2020). Jacobs (2003, p. 23) advise the embracing of IBM by companies for reasons such as “it leads to increased company loyalty and job longevity; it enables employees to better serve customers because they understand the brand promise; it encourages employees who believe in the brand to work harder, and better. Employees should – and can be – your most valuable brand champions”. Table 3.1 provides some of the definitions of internal branding and its authors.

Table 3.1: Internal branding definitions

Author	Definition
Wittke-Kothe (2001), p. 7.	Internal branding is "the internal-oriented management process within the intention of anchoring the target brand identity in employee behavior."
Vallaster/De Cher-natony (2004), p. 2.	"Internal brand building is about aligning employee behavior with brand values."
Henkel et al. (2007), p. 311.	"…we propose the construct behavioral branding as any type of verbal and nonverbal employee behavior that directly or indirectly determines brand experience."
Punjaisri/Wilson (2007), p. 59.	"Internal branding is considered as means to create powerful corporate brands. It assists the organization in aligning its internal process and corporate culture with those of the brand."
Burmann et al. (2009c), p. 281.	"The ultimate goal of internal brand management is to provide a new tool for strengthening a brand and establish methods to attain a unique and nonimitable market position, hence providing the basis for a lasting premium price and large market share."
Baumgarth/Schmidt (2010), p. 1250.	"It follows that the behavior of employees should be as consistent as possible with the brand identity and expressed brand values. This is not simply a matter of appropriate self-presentation and communication, but also of personal identification with the brand, emotional attachment to it, and motivation to become involved with the branding strategy in direct interaction with customers and influencers. In our study of the process, we define the strength of workforce internalization of brand equity, in support of branding at the customer interface, as the company's internal brand equity."
Foster et al. (2010), p. 402.	"Although a universal definition has not yet been proposed authors agree on a key principle underpinning internal branding, that is that it ensures that employees transform the espoused brand values, which set customers expectations about the organization, into reality during the delivery of the brand promise."
King et al. (2012), p. 271.	"The objective of internal branding is for the employer to engage with their employees in a way that enables the delivery of the brand promise."

Source: Ravens (2013, p. 31)

Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) assert that IBM is a part of internal marketing, whose origins, and definitions are discussed in the next section. Thereafter, the importance, limitations, sources, and outcomes of IBM are discussed.

3.2.1 Origins and Definitions of Internal Marketing

Gounaris (2008) states that Felton (1959) was amongst the first to highlight that employees are important in delivering great service to the consumer. Berry, Hensel and Burke (1976) later explained the reason why it is important to market to the internal customer (employee). Turkoz and Akyol (2011) highlight that later, George (1977) and Thompson et al. (1978) expanded the work on internal marketing (IM). The concept of internal marketing came from services marketing, with the objective of getting all employees involved in offering superior service when interacting with consumers (Kaurav, Prakash, Chowdhary & Briggs, 2016).

Berry et al. (1976) proposed IM as a solution for consistently delivering high service quality. Berry (1981) suggested that retail banking employees needed to be treated as internal customers and that became a guide for IM in the services sector. Berry (1981; 1983) highlights that IM starts by considering jobs and tasks as products that are to be marketed to employees and employees need motivation in order for an organisation to retain them. The author also notes that if employees are satisfied then there is a greater chance of increasing consumer satisfaction and loyalty. The rational is that if an employee is treated like a customer within the organisation and the job is seen as a product offered by the organisation, then using the marketing mix would lead to employee satisfaction and as a result, retain employees who are customer oriented (Barry, 2008). Employees are one of the most important marketing tools as they have the first encounter with consumers. The outcome of good IM is seen through an organisation having good customer service, dedicated and committed employees (Garcia & Middleton, 2016).

There are various definitions of IM, it can be defined as “viewing employees as internal customers, viewing jobs as internal products and then endeavouring to offer products that satisfy the needs and wants of these internal customers while addressing the objectives of the organisation” (Kaurav et al., 2016, p. 83). Gronroos (1981) defined it as behaviour that involves selling the organisation to its internal customers, with the understanding that satisfied employees will lead to market and customer oriented organisations. Berry and Parasuraman (1991) defined IM as a process that attracts, develops, motivates and retains employees who are qualified through job products that lead to their satisfaction.

King and Grace (2005) define internal brand marketing as a method of influencing employee attitudes and behaviour in order for them to reflect organisational requirements. The authors highlight that this is necessary for them to be able to carry out their roles and responsibilities. Garcia and Middleton (2016) described IM as a management philosophy that treats employees as customers by promoting the organisation and its policies to them. This strategy is key because employees are the heart and soul of every organisation. Haghighikhah, Arabi and Khadang (2016) define IM as a process and concept focused on employees within the organisation. It is focused on the planning and implementation of processes that improve all kinds of exchange between the company and employees.

Ullah and Ahmad (2017) define IM as a range of activities that can be used by the human resource department to motivate, train, and educate employees in order to improve services for consumers. The concept focuses on the integration of the various functions within the organisation to create a market-oriented culture, with the objective of achieving customer satisfaction as well as customer service that gives the organisation a competitive advantage.

From the origins and various definitions that are discussed in this section, it is clear that internal marketing is a process that focuses on the internal customers (employees). The next section discusses the importance of IBM.

3.2.2 The Importance of Internal Brand Management

Traditionally, employee management has always been set in the human resources department but now that employees are being recognised as organisational assets who can assist the organisation achieve its goals. It is important for marketers to start shifting their focus towards employees in order to realise their marketing strategies (King & Grace, 2009). IBM helps with the development, maintenance and strengthening an organisation’s brand. It helps with the employment and promotion of employees who fit the brand, it creates awareness and reinforces the brand to employees, and encourages everyone in the organisation to live the brand (Porricelli et al., 2014; Du Preez, 2017).

Investment in the brand of an organisation is important in internal branding because it gives the organisation an edge over competitors. The benefits of the investment can be seen through the implied brand promise which is promoted to the consumer. Therefore, in order for employees to deliver the brand promise that was intended to the consumer, it is fundamental that they themselves understand the organisation's brand and how their role contributes to the delivery of the brand promise (King & Grace, 2009). IBM can also lead to brand citizenship behaviours and brand commitment, which benefit the organisation (Porricelli et al., 2014). Employees that are committed to the organisation/brand are often willing to go above and beyond what the organisation requires from them, they have attachments to the organisational brand and they identify with the brands of the organisation. Another benefit of high brand commitment is that employees are more likely to have more knowledge of the organisation, deeper emotional connections than those with lower commitment and during social interactions, these employees induce brand commitment in others through sharing brand beliefs (Preez & Bendixen, 2015).

This section showed why IBM is important however, as with many things, there are limitations of IBM. The next section discusses some of those limitations.

3.2.3 Limitations of Internal Brand Management

It has been highlighted that the internal focus of an organisation may lead to a narrow focus in the organisation. This is because if too much focus is given to the internal customer (employees), it can move attention away from external customers and they bring income into the organisation (Lings, 1999). Giving too much focus internally can also limit the amount of time and focus needed to develop interrelated strategies that may help with delivering great products or services. Processes that are duplicated across departments may also go undetected and it may not deal with process issues within the organisation (Lings, 1999).

Some organisations find it challenging to translate a brand's values into employee behaviours. Another contributing factor to this is that most organisations have different departments in the organisation like marketing, operations, human resources and services, therefore, it can be challenging to translate a brand to the employees in these different departments (MacLaverty, McQuillan & Oddie, 2007). The other challenge is that internal branding is often a task that is left up to the marketing department although it affects the whole organisation (MacLaverty, McQuillan & Oddie, 2007). MacLaverty et al. (2007, p. 4) suggest that "overall, as a best practice, responsibility for strategic development and implementation for internal branding should be vested clearly with one senior level individual or group of individuals who have wide reach and access across functions. They also should be measured and rewarded for their success in this key area of brand management”.

While the importance and limitations of IBM have been covered in the preceding sections, it is important to understand what the outcomes of partaking in IBM activities are. The next section discusses some of these outcomes, together with the relationship between marketing and human resource management.

3.2.4 Human Resources, Internal Brand Management Factors and Marketing Outcomes of Internal Brand Management

The management of human resources has an impact on how employees interact with customers and that in turn, affects brand image positively or negatively (Anselmsson, Bondesson & Melin, 2016). Therefore, brand development should be the responsibility of the whole organisation. Human resource management and internal branding scholars have started to focus on recruitment, incentive programmes and the training of employees to better serve customers and support brand building efforts (Anselmsson, Bondesson & Melin, 2016). The logic is that if an organisation takes care of its employees then they will take care of the customers of the organisation and its brands (Anselmsson, Bondesson & Melin, 2016; Garcia & Middleton, 2016).

Various studies have looked at IBM and have identified various outcomes of IBM. King and Grace (2009; 2010) found that IBM creates role clarity and affects the commitment of employees, which then lead to EBBE benefits. Shaari, Salleh and Hussin (2012) found that IBM practices have an impact on brand commitment and brand citizenship behaviour. Porricelli, Yurova, Abratt and Bendixen (2014) conducted a study at a grocery chain in the US and found that IBM leads to job satisfaction, brand commitment and brand citizenship behaviour. Du Preez, Bendixen and Abratt (2017) conducted a study in SA and the US that also found IBM to have an impact on job satisfaction, brand commitment and brand citizenship behaviour. Buil, Martínez and Matute (2020) conducted a study at hotels in Spain and found that IBM factors: internal brand communication, brand-centred training and transformational leadership lead to organisational identification and this leads to organisational citizenship behaviours in the organisation. Koo and Curtis (2020) conducted a study amongst hotel employees in the US and found that IBM factors such as brand communication, brand-centred training and brand leadership led to brand trust, which then led to brand commitment and intentions to continue working for an organisation.

Based on the different outcomes of IBM that were identified in this section, it is important that the different elements of IBM are identified as well, in order to understand which activities organisations can utilise in order to realise some of these outcomes.

3.3 ELEMENTS OF INTERNAL BRAND MANAGEMENT

Researchers have looked at different elements of IBM which contribute towards happy employees who understand and live the brand and ultimately lead to happy customers. MacLaverty et al. (2007) identified IBM practices as internal communication, recruitment, leadership, training, rewards and recognition, and other sustainability factors that contribute towards brand-consistent behaviour. King and Grace (2009; 2010) argue that it is important for an organisation to have knowledge dissemination, information generation, employee motivation, openness (employee involvement, socialisation, management support, and employee attitude towards the job) and the "H" factor in order to have successful IBM. Shaari, Salleh and Hussin (2012) conducted a study that identified brand knowledge and rewards as IBM practices and found them to have an impact on brand commitment and brand citizenship behaviour. The authors argue that internal communication and training all contribute towards an employee's brand knowledge and that rewards are necessary for motivating employees and inducing brand related attitudes and behaviours. Porricelli et al., (2014) identified IBM practices as brand identity, brand communication and brand leadership. Burmann, Zeplin and Riley (2009), Buil and Martínez (2016), Koo and Curtis (2020) and Martínez and Matute (2020) identified internal brand communication, brand-centred human resource management, brand-centred training, brand leadership and transformational leadership as elements of IBM. The next section provides a review of what some of these elements entail.

3.3.1 Recruitment

For an organisation to attract, motivate and retain employees who are valuable, an organisation must become attractive to potential applicants and this will result in attracting first-class candidates (Kashive & Khanna, 2017). In organisations, recruitment plays the role of building human capital. Organisations are able to achieve their goals if they have an effective recruitment process (Hunter, Shortland, Crayne & Ligon, 2017). An effective recruitment process needs the ability to reach high quality talent and attract as many people as possible who possess skills that the organisation is looking for. The higher the number of quality people applying for jobs in an organisation, the more selective an organisation can be and this will result in it being more effective (Hunter, Shortland, Crayne & Ligon, 2017). Recruitment processes are dependent on how much knowledge individuals have about the organisation. The knowledge can be how familiar an applicant is with the organisation, the reputation of the organisation, as well as the image it has. The more these three factors align with an individual's values, the more they will find the organisation attractive (Hunter, Shortland, Crayne & Ligon, 2017).

The pre-recruitment dimensions which influence the outcome of a recruitment process are: the job seeker's intention to apply for the job, whether or not they would accept the job offer if it was offered to them, how much they like the organisation, their willingness to work for the organisation and the prestige of the organisation. The more a person perceives an organisation as attractive, the more likely they are to apply for a job there (Liu, Keeling & Papamichail, 2016). The main types of information that may affect how a job seeker views an organisation/job are hard and soft content. The hard content are the facts about a job and this can include information about the location of the job and salary (Liu, Keeling & Papamichail, 2016). Soft content is also important, and this information includes the perceptions, opinions, and feelings about an organisation as well as the work environment. Both soft and hard content is important in the recruitment process (Liu, Keeling & Papamichail, 2016).

The recruiting and on-boarding of new employees is associated with high costs and as a result, the retention of talented employees is of strategic importance to an organisation. The desirable scenario for any organisation is to attract high performers, improve the selection, as well as the utilisation of employees. Because of this, organisations can find themselves poaching talent from other organisations in the same industry with the objective of ensuring that their organisation advances while others become weaker (Hunter, Shortland, Crayne & Ligon, 2017).

Key individuals in the recruitment process are recruiters and they are most successful when they are informative and are socially adaptable. Knowledge is one of the most important things when it comes to recruitment; in the early stages the recruiter gathers information about the interest and needs of the organisation in order to be able to provide information to potential applicants. Applicants then review the information provided by the recruiter and weigh it against their social, personal, and economic factors, in order to determine whether the opportunity is attractive or not. Some of the things that are assessed by potential applicants are the perceived benefits and that is weighed against how much it aligns with personal ideals. Negative or detrimental information about an organisation or job should be kept away from potential applicants as this information affects the applicant's decision more than the positive information does. This particularly helps when the recruitment process is designed to change the image of an organisation (Hunter, Shortland, Crayne & Ligon, 2017).

Once applicants are hired by an organisation, they need to know how to perform their work and deal with the work environment. Employee development is a method for imparting knowledge to employees and the next section gives an overview of employee development.

3.3.2 Employee Development

Organisations rely on their employees for growth and the growth can come as a result of their development. Employees need the necessary knowledge and skills for the achievement of organisational goals (Mohan & Gomathi, 2015; Hammond & Churchill, 2018). Managers need to be aware of the internal and external environment in order to know how to best develop employees (Mohan & Gomathi, 2015). Employee development helps with motivating employees and develops them in an ever-changing environment. Employee development can happen directly or indirectly. Indirect development happens through being in a group setting and direct development happens through giving an employee more responsibilities (Mohan & Gomathi, 2015).

There are various definitions for employee development, Jacobs & Washington (2003) define it is as an integrated planning arrangement that is provided for a specific amount of time to ensure that employees have the skills and knowledge needed to do their work. Greenber and Baron (2003) describe it as a set of processes that direct or maintain behaviour that helps with the achievement of organisational goals. Jacobs

(2006) describes it as a process of developing and improving the skills of employees through training, organisational development and other forms of development which help improve the performance of an organisation. Ellinger, Ketchen, Hult, Elmadag and Richey (2008) highlight that employee development results in effective services from employees and this can be achieved through informal coaching, training and empowerment. Noe (2010) highlights that training and development strikes a balance between the organisation, assessments, training, methods, the design of the environment and evaluation.

Development concentrates on building skills and knowledge needed by employees of an organisation in order to be prepared for challenges and their responsibilities (Akter, 2016; Hammond & Churchill, 2018). Employee development involves education, career development, and training of employees. It is an intangible asset that leads to competence, effectiveness, and high personal responsibility (Akter, 2016). It also increases productivity, quality of work, it reduces staff turnover and absenteeism, and it helps motivate employees. A good development plan must be innovative and have the ability to reinvent itself (Hammond & Churchill, 2018).

Just like in this section, training is often cited as one of the best ways to develop employees with the aim of achieving organisational objectives. In the next section training is discussed.

3.3.3 Training

The performance of employees is crucial for any organisation as they are the most important asset. Consequently, there are various factors which impact the performance of employees such as the policies of the organisation, working conditions, relations between employer and employee, training and development (Khan, Abbasi, Waseem, Ayaz & Ijaz, 2016). Training and development is often cited as a vital tool to use in order to make sure that employees can perform effectively in the work environment (Khan, Abbasi, Waseem, Ayaz & Ijaz, 2016). In IBM, it is important that training is aligned with the brand's values (Buil et al., 2016).

Garavan (1997) and Berge et al. (2002) define training as a systematic and planned modification of behaviour which occurs as a result of programmes, activities, and events aimed at achieving a certain level of skills, knowledge, abilities and competencies which allow employees to perform their work effectively. Cole (2002) defines training as learning that aims at acquiring skills and knowledge necessary for a particular task or occupation. The author suggests that training can be effective if it develops skills and knowledge for the job, while also motivating and leading to the commitment of employees. Truitt (2011) describes training as skills gained by an employee through working with others in order to achieve organisational goals. Elnaga and Imran (2013) refer to training as programmes that are aimed at providing employees with information and skills needed for their professional development. Nasir and Ahmed (2014) define training as the knowledge, abilities and skills acquired by employees for professional development. Ahmed, Phulpoto, Umrani and Abbas (2015) define training as a systematic process aimed at imparting necessary skills which allow employees to perform effectively and responsively in the workplace.

One of the best ways to improve the quality of employees is through providing them with training and development programmes that are beneficial. This is important because the skills, capabilities and knowledge of employees who are talented have been found to be a determinant competitive advantage for organisations (Ullah & Ahmad, 2017). The resource-based and human capital theorists suggest that organisations should invest in their employees in order to develop skills that are specific for the firms in which they work, the skills can be gained through training initiatives. They have also suggested that training should happen internally, especially in the knowledge economy where knowledge has become a commodity. The internal training of non-imitable competencies is particularly vital as this increases the specificity of employees (Yang & Lin, 2009). Internal marketing states that employers should consider all the different jobs in the organisation as their internal products. Therefore, it is important that employers train their employees in order to develop loyal, skilful and qualified employees (Ullah & Ahmad, 2017).

In human resource management, training is considered as essential because the principle of training emphasises on providing employees with meaningful inputs which take into consideration effectiveness and efficiency. On-the-job training programmes are important in providing support to all employees of the organisation and studies have found that the more employees are trained, the more their efficiency levels increase (Hanaysha, 2016). Internal training has been linked to stability, predictability, employee satisfaction, commitment, as well as better co-ordination and control of employees. It is also able to enhance competencies and self-development because employees are able to receive feedback on their performance (Yang & Lin, 2009). Greene, Walls and Schrest (1994) found that in order for any promotion to succeed in the banking industry, employees needed to be technically proficient and confident to sell new or existing products. The proficiency can happen as a result of internal training. Some of the methods that can be used to train staff are: innovative media and information systems, giving employees information on potential consumer needs, and market trends (Greene, Walls and Schrest, 1994).

There are several other methods for training employees, these include on-the-job training, apprenticeship training, job instructions training, programmed training, literacy training techniques, teamwork training and lifelong training. On-the-job training happens through practicing within the workplace. Apprenticeship training combines classroom training and on-the-job training. Job instructions training happens through a systematic process in which training is given for each job task and this happens in a sequence. Programmed learning involves training, taking a test then receiving feedback instantly. Literacy training techniques include audio visual and simulated training. Audio-visual training involves the usage of audio, videos, PowerPoint presentations or video conferencing. Simulation happens through creating an artificial environment that is similar to the real work environment. Teamwork training is training that occurs in a group and lifelong training happens throughout an employee's career using different aids (Imran & Tanveer, 2015).

When organisations understand the needs of employees and their work environment, it can often be easier for them to fulfill those needs and create healthy work environments. The section that follows gives an overview of internal market research.

3.3.4 Internal Market Research

Internal market research refers to the generation of information from employees regarding what it is that employees require or need in their jobs (Lings, 2004). It can also be defined as "the extent to which an employee perceives that the organisation generates information via employee feedback (informal and formal)" (King & Grace, 2010, p.949). It looks at what employees are willing to give up, to get what they require from the job. It is suggested that internal research must be conducted in a manner that accommodates the different characteristics of employees, that way different employees' needs will be understood (Lings, 2004).

Generating information from employees allows an organisation to create relevant and meaningful products and services that for the internal consumer (employee) and these allow them to better fulfil their roles and responsibilities (King & Grace, 2010). Important information that can be generated through internal market research can be about the organisational climate, job attributes, the skills of employees, customer and employee satisfaction, as well as internal and external factors affecting employees (King and Grace, 2010; Lings, 2004; Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014). Internal market research allows organisations to improve procedures, systems and develop products and services that fulfil the needs of consumers (King & Grace, 2010). It is important that organisations generate this information as it allows them to combat competition from firms which are looking for employees with the same skills sets. Because of such competition, it is important that marketers are able to generate information about job offers, attributes of other jobs in the market and employees' perception of the employer's equity. Organisations can collect internal market research information through interviews, job satisfaction surveys as well as day to day interactions (Lings, 2004; Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014). If internal market research is conducted on a regular basis, marketers can then develop appropriate IBM programmes based on the needs and expectations of employees (Lings, 2004; Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014).

As highlighted in this section, internal market research can help with understanding employees and identifying opportunities for improvement in the work environment. Understanding employees can also help an organisation know what and how it should communicate with employees. In the following section, internal communication is discussed.

3.3.5 Internal Brand Communication

In the 18th century and at the beginning of the 19th century, changes took place in Europe which affected the rest of the world. These included civil wars, the Industrial Revolution and the French Revolution. Thereafter, the industrial revolution had an impact on changes in the economy, work, and the lifestyle of the population (Martinez & Hurtado, 2018). The improvement of processes in firms started gaining more importance as parameterising the work organisation started. The parameters focused on aspects such as productivity, efficiency, and competitiveness. Globalisation also caused changes in processes and that created a need for companies to adapt and apply new methods which would structure communication channels within the organisation and improve the quality in products and processes, which in turn, would lead to more competitive organisations. (Martinez & Hurtado, 2018).

Organisations all over the world have been struggling to find new ways to achieve growth, profit and remain competitive. This has become a challenging objective due to increased pressure in the global economy. Some of the strategies that can be used to achieve growth include joint ventures, mergers and acquisitions. However, achieving growth within the organisation is still a difficult goal to reach (Chmielecki, 2015). Internal communication has been receiving attention and organisations have been increasingly investing in this function (Bengaluru, 2017). Internal communication plays a role in improving business value and giving employees a sense of belonging. Through having effective communication with employees, who are an important asset for organisations, effective internal communication plays a role in reducing uncertainty, reducing rumours and influencing employees (Bengaluru, 2017).

Various researchers have defined internal communication. Internal communication refers to the manner in which information is transferred from one entity to another in order to disseminate information (King & Grace, 2010; Mazzei, 2010; Yeomans, & FitzPatrick, 2017). It can also be described as a process that involves interaction, giving meaning to events, organisational actions and roles, as well as processes (Mazzei, 2010; Yeomans, & FitzPatrick, 2017). Jacobs, Yu and Chavez (2016) define internal communication as the exchanging of information amongst members in an organisation in order to build open relationships, trust and create understanding amongst them. Kalla (2005) defined it as integrated communication which brings management, business and organisational communication together. It can happen formally or informally communication and it takes place at different levels of the organisation, with the objective of aligning all employees with the expectations of the organisation. Welch and Jackson (2007) defined it as the strategically managing relationships and interactions between different stakeholders of the organisation such as line managers, peers in a team, project peers and corporate requirements. Cornelissen (2011) defines internal communication as communication that takes place within an organisation. The author highlighted that social media has changed communication, therefore, this needs to be taken into consideration. The author went on to classify internal communication into broad themes. Management communication is communication between the manager and employee, this communication is mainly related to specific tasks that can affect the morale and belonging of the employee (Cornelissen, 2011). Upward communication gives employees a platform to raise their concerns, while corporate information communication systems allow employees to have a connection with senior leadership (Cornelissen, 2011). Verčič, Verčič & Sriramesh (2012) described internal communication as the aspiration of achieving systematic distribution of information which starts from a mission, vision and strategy.

Communication methods are steps that include sending a message from the first user's equipment and receiving of the information (Ingvarsson & Strömbäck, 2019). The communication tools are dependent on the audience that is being reached and what message is trying to be conveyed. Tools can be a telephone, face-to-face meeting, email, Facebook, etc. Studies have mainly focused on digital communication tools and in-person communication (Ingvarsson & Strömbäck, 2019). Digital communication tools are any digital communication tools such as electronic mail and videos, etc. Digital communication tools have increased communication within organisations (Ingvarsson & Strömbäck, 2019). In order to save time when using communication tools, employees need to be aware of the consequences of inappropriate or unnecessary communication then choose the best way to use the tools (Ingvarsson & Strömbäck, 2019). In person communication is face-to-face communication and meetings. These play an important role in times of uncertainty or change, and also help with communication between employees and top management (Ingvarsson & Strömbäck, 2019).

The main objective of internal communication is to inform employees about the goals and policies of the organisation, which help them have a better understanding of their roles (Jacobs, Yu & Chavez, 2016). In some organisations, internal communication is used to communicate information about the organisation's rules and legal obligations, to support major changes, to promote collaboration, promote advocacy amongst employees, encourage employees to stay and help, and inform employees of what is expected of them (Yeomans, & FitzPatrick, 2017). Good communication also plays a role in aligning employee attitudes as well as behaviours with the goals of the organisation (Yeomans, & FitzPatrick, 2017).

In organisations, internal communication is vital because if people are not communicating or prepared to communicate with each other, there will be no co-ordination between the various functions and departments that exist within an organisation (Jacobs, Yu & Chavez, 2016). Internal brand communication allows for its members and its stakeholders to be mutually beneficial. When internal communication is done well, incorporating listening and feedback, it can help with decision-making as well as building and maintaining relationships (Jacobs, Yu & Chavez, 2016). The theory of enactment highlights that every member within an organisation can enact processes which can negotiate meanings and help the organisation to operate effectively. That means that effective internal communication is a process which involves everyone in the organisation and is not limited to a few individuals (Mazzei, 2010).

It is clear that internal brand communication is vital for the different stakeholders within an organisation and can help employees gain knowledge that helps them have better clarity about their jobs. The next section discusses the concept of role clarity and why is it important.

3.3.6 Role Clarity

A role is one of the most important concepts, socially and behaviourally within organisational studies (Taghavi & Woo, 2017). In order for employees to perform well within an organisation, they need to have an understanding of their roles. Unfortunately, many employees still do not have enough knowledge about their roles, which then leads to role ambiguity. Role ambiguity can lead to physical as well as mental health problems, which include job dissatisfaction and high staff turnover (Taghavi & Woo, 2017). The theory of role dynamics describes a role as a set of information which includes responsibilities, consequences and activities that need to be understood by the employee in order to avoid role ambiguity. According to the theory, exploring a role requires an individual to know their role as well as the expectations attached to the role. The expectations can include duties, rights and responsibilities (Taghavi & Woo, 2017).

Shoemaker (1999) defines it as the extent to which an employee is sure about the job performance that is required from him/her. Mukherjee and Malhotra (2006) define role clarity as the level to which information about the expected outcomes of duties to be done is gathered by an employee, this includes specific terms. King and Grace (2010) define role clarity as the degree to which employees are clear on their roles and this can be achieved through training and sharing information with employees. According to Orgambídez and Almeida (2020, p. 2), “role clarity refers to the existence and availability of clear and precise information about the roles, responsibilities and procedures to be followed”.

A lack of role clarity causes role ambiguity, which leads to negative consequences like role conflict, a lack of commitment, job dissatisfaction, low involvement, high anxiety and high employee turnover. Role clarity produces the opposite results, and these include, better job performance and role efficiency. To achieve role clarity, it is important that employees have clear goals as well as clear processes in place (Akhtar & Zia-ur-Rehman, 2017).

This section clarified the importance of an employee understanding his/her role in an organisation however, the social exchange theory does highlight that people need motivation for their actions. Employee motivation is covered in the following section.

3.3.7 Motivation

One of the challenging tasks for management is putting together the best human and material resources to achieve the vision, mission and goals of the organisation. Management sciences states that no matter how sophisticated factors of production can be, they cannot replace human resources in an organisation (Khuong & Hoang, 2015). Based on this, managers face the task of having to figure out the best way in which they can get employees to help the organisation achieve its goals (Khuong & Hoang, 2015). Employees are conscious beings whose actions are mainly driven by their benefits and this determines their level of commitment. Employees have been found to put more energy towards an organisation when there is an incentive and this can be intrinsic or extrinsic in nature (Khuong & Hoang, 2015).

There are various theories which explain motivation and they can be put into two categories - process and content theories. Content theories outline the factors that motivate people, while process theories focus on the psychological factors that drive motivation (Bhatti, Aslam, Hassan, & Sulaiman, 2016). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is an example of a content theory and one of the most influential theories (Bhatti, Aslam, Hassan, & Sulaiman, 2016). The theory states that humans by nature want and as a result, satisfying their own needs is a motivator for their behaviour. The author proposes that humans have needs that can be categorised into five levels, with each level signifying its importance (Bhatti, Aslam, Hassan, & Sulaiman, 2016). The five levels are: physiological, safety, social, self-esteem and self-actualisation. The theory states that once a specific need is satisfied then the next level becomes important. Needs that are not satisfied will motivate a person's behaviour, with the need being the main motivator (Omollo & Oloko, 2015; Bhatti, Aslam, Hassan, & Sulaiman, 2016).

McClelland (1985) states that there are three main motivators, and these are affiliation, power and achievement. The achievement theory highlights that people behave in a way that fulfills one or a combination of the needs (Bhatti et al., 2016). Herzberg's "Two Factors Theory" identifies the factors that contribute to the dissatisfaction of individuals and these are called "hygiene factors" and factors that contribute towards the satisfaction of employees are called "motivators". The factors that lead to employee dissatisfaction include company policy, working conditions, pay, co-workers and, the relationship with the manager. The theory states that to motivate employees, the factors that are necessary are recognition, responsibility, achievement, the work and advancement. The theory emphasises that managers need to focus on both sets of factors (Omollo & Oloko, 2015; Bhatti et al., 2016).

When looking at process theories, the expectancy theory focuses on employee motivations and expectations. The theory states that people can become motivated when performance is linked to their ability to satisfy their needs (Bhatti et al., 2016). Skinner’s operant conditioning theory states that people perform actions if there are rewards associated with those actions and they stop performing if there are no rewards or punishment that comes with the actions (Safiullah, 2015; Bhatti et al., 2016). The equity theory suggests that motivation depends whether or not employees believe that they are being treated fairly. The goal setting theory argues that people can become motivated and perform well if there are specific objectives that need to be achieved. Employees will work to achieve these objectives that are complex and have a level of difficulty however, at the end they will expect rewards, feedback, and recognition for their efforts (Safiullah, 2015; Bhatti et al., 2016).

Various definitions have been used to define motivation across different disciplines. Mol (1992) describes it as voluntary involvement or the decision of a person to carry out a task. Cole (1996) argues that motivation drives a person to put in a particular amount of work or effort. Butkus and Green (1999) highlight that the word “motivation” comes from the word “motivate” which means to persuade, push or move in order to satisfy a need. Linder (2004) describes it as a psychological process which gives purpose and direction. Robbins (2005) describes it as a willingness to put in a lot of effort towards the goals of an organisation, with some individual needs being satisfied in the process. Shah and Shah (2010) highlight that motivation inspires people to work in a way that produces the best results.

Employee motivation is an important factor an organisation’s success and growth. It can be described as a set of factors that encompass internal and external factors like organisational practices, job characteristics and individual differences. Employee motivation is a combination of employees’ needs and expectation that are created from workplace factors. Each manager needs to understand an employee’s expectations, needs and requirements in order to create a motivating environment. Some of the factors that have been found to contribute towards employee motivation are the work environment, supervision, responsibilities, fairness, effort, an employee's development, rewards, and feedback. Encouraging employees when they achieve the goals of the organisation is crucial as this helps create an enjoyable work environment. Good working conditions such as productivity, respect and a friendly atmosphere that feels inclusive can lead to motivated employees. Rewards can also lead to a higher level of motivation as well as good performance (Khuong & Hoang, 2015).

There are two main types of motivation in the workplace, namely, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is focused on rewards that come with the job itself, it can be defined as an individual's need to feel competent and proud. Three psychological states need to be created in order to accomplish this kind of motivation: firstly, work needs to be meaningful, secondly, a person needs to have responsibility for their work and finally, they need to be aware of the results of the work. Extrinsic motivation is influenced by the need to attain a separate outcome from the work itself, people can be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated (Kuranchie-Mensah, & Amponsah-Tawiah, 2016).

This section explained the importance of employee motivation and ways in which organisations can achieve motivation. One of the motivating factors that was identified is rewards, which is discussed in the next section.

3.3.8 Rewards

Motivated and gratified employees are important assets for any organisation. In human resource management and IBM, employee satisfaction is important (Haider, Aamir, Hamid, & Hashim, 2015; Du Preez, Bendixen & Abratt, 2017). The majority of research highlights that job satisfaction affects productivity and performance. In order to have effective employees, managers need to find ways to motivate employees in the roles that they are in and rewards have been identified as a way of motivating employees (Haider, Aamir, Hamid, & Hashim, 2015). Reward systems need to be aligned in order to motivate employees to perform in such a way that it benefits the strategy of the organisation, attracts and retains employees who have the skills, abilities and knowledge needed to achieve the goals of the organisation (Husain & Batagoda, 2017). An effective rewards system can play a role in inducing individuals to join a firm and to perform well (Yang & Lin, 2009). Fair and competitive compensation as a form of reward is critical in helping organisations to retain and strengthen their employees. That is because good rewards can lead to committed employees who stay in the organisation (Yang & Lin, 2009). The aforementioned was proven by Barnes, Fox and Morris (2004), who conducted a study in the UK and found employees who felt that they were not being rewarded for their efforts had low morale.

There are numerous definitions for rewards. Armstrong and Stephens (2005) argue that the ultimate goal of rewards is to allow organisations to achieve their strategic goals. Shoaib, Noor, Tirmizi, and Bashir (2009) define them as policies, strategies and processes required by the organisation to protect the value of people and the contribution they make towards the achievement of organisational goals. Hussain, Khaliq, Nisar, Kamboh and Ali (2019) define rewards as anything received by a person in exchange for doing a task that is beneficial to the organisation and for good performance. The rewards can be in a form of money however, it is stressed that this might not be a good motivator in the long run.

Rewards tend to work well because employees who feel like they are part owners of an organisation or have something to gain from the organisation are more willing to work towards the organisation's success (Papasolomou, 2006). However, employers have the task of understanding which rewards are effective as they can range from income, values, happiness, working conditions, social factors, and performance, amongst others (Haider, Aamir, Hamid, & Hashim, 2015). Organisations commonly use tangible and intangible rewards in order to encourage employees to reach organisational goals. Monetary rewards are popular and can include bonuses and short-term commission. Monetary incentives are a good form of motivating employees to achieve quantitative targets (Papasolomou, 2006). Other forms of rewards include status and additional benefits, opportunities, attention from the manager and appreciation (Husain & Batagod, 2017). Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are also commonly used by organisations to motivate employees. Intrinsic rewards form part of the content of the job itself, like a challenging and interesting job, creativity, variety, opportunities to utilise one's skills and abilities, self-direction, responsibility, and feedback (Husain & Batagoda, 2017). Extrinsic rewards are outside of the job itself. These include elements like a private office, job security, fringe benefits, promotions, pay, and a great social climate. Other extrinsic benefits include competitive salaries, a pay raise, bonus and indirect payments like additional time off. These rewards are used to show that the organisation is serious about valuing an employee's contribution (Husain & Batagoda, 2017).

While rewards have been found to have numerous advantages, they have also been found to have disadvantages that include: certain employees reaching higher status than their colleagues, which can then lead to internal conflict. Rewards can also discourage team building amongst employees as they commonly reward individuals which then leads to status differences (Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006). Most industries focus on incentivising front-line staff which means that some employees will not have an equal chance of being rewarded and lastly, some employees, especially those in the services industry, can focus on increasing their commission and earnings and not pay enough effort on offering quality service in order to satisfy customers (Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006).

As discussed in this chapter, rewards are a key motivating factor in the work environment and it is clear that leaders of an organisation need to understand what is important to employees in order to best incentivise them. The next section discusses leadership.

3.3.9 Leadership

The study of leadership is considered important in organisational studies, mainly because leadership is an important for an organisation's success. An organisation's performance is highly affected by the leaders in an organisation as leaders help determine the mission, vision and how an organisation shows up in the market. It is vital for any organisation to create value in order to be competitive, without that it will struggle (May-Chiun, Mohamad, Ramayah & Chai, 2015).

The first leadership text that achieved success in its time and in subsequent centuries was *The Art of War* by Sun Tzu (400 – 320 BC). The text became compulsory reading for military leaders in China and Japan (Farris, 1999). The central message was that the martial host of a million men lies in the hands of one man. It also offers strategies and tactics for military leaders (Bryman, Collinson, Grint, Jackson & Uhl-Bien, 2011).

Over the years, more texts have been written and the definition of leadership has evolved. In the 1920s, leadership was seen as the leader’s ability to gain respect, loyalty, obedience and co-operation Ciulla, 2003. In the 1930s, leadership was defined as the process in which all the activities of people within an organisation are organized to move in a specific direction by one person. In the 1940s, leadership was seen as the ability to direct or persuade men. In the 1950s, leadership focused on a leader’s part within a role and this position happened as a result of the group members. In the 1960s, a leader was described as an individual who influences others to move in the same direction. In the 1970s, leadership focused on discretionary influence and how a leader’s behaviour can vary from individual to individual. In the 1980s, a leader was described as someone who inspires others to partake in a certain action which are determined by a leader. In the 1990s, leadership focused on how a leader influences followers to drive change that reflects their mutual purpose (Ciulla, 2003). The 1920s leadership focused on “impressing” their followers, the 1940s “persuaded”, in the 1960s, they “influenced” and in the 1990s, the leaders and followers had an influence on one another (Ciulla, 2003; Bryman et al., 2011). Leadership is defined as the opposite of management. Management is focused on maintaining stability within the organisation and executing routines. Leadership, on the other hand, is focused on giving direction and is linked to persuasion, change, as well as movement. Leadership focuses on developing strategies that have never been seen before, while management focuses mainly on strategies that have been used before (Bryman et al., 2011).

There are different types of leadership styles that have been studied over the years. Transformational leaders provide clear and concise goals in the organisation and encourage a high level of commitment. They have been found to be empowering, increase motivation and commitment. This type of leadership also leads to people in an organisation having positive perceptions of their working environment or conditions (May-Chiun, Mohamad, Ramayah & Chai, 2015). Transformational leaders are able to influence subordinates through behaviours that change their appeals, values and allow them to achieve great results in the job. This style focuses on the mutual understanding between the leader and subordinates in achieving organisational goals (May-Chiun, Mohamad, Ramayah & Chai, 2015). Transformational leaders have the ability to form emotional connections with subordinates and this leads to stronger values (May-Chiun, Mohamad, Ramayah & Chai, 2015). Transactional leadership, on the contrary, is focused on the exchange of things which are valued by the parties, this style is mainly effective when trying to maintain the status quo (Allen, Grigsby & Peters, 2015; May-Chiun, Mohamad, Ramayah & Chai, 2015).

Authentic leadership is the kind of leadership style whereby the leader does not take on the role for status, personal rewards, or honour. This kind of leadership style is driven by values or a mission that the leader wants to promote (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). These types of leaders are not only interested in becoming what they want to be, but making a difference is important to them. They do not always the use term leader to define themselves, they mainly focus on the role even when it is not official. They are self-expressive and have clearly defined their beliefs, self-knowledge and they live consistently with those beliefs (Shamir & Eilam, 2005).

Brand-oriented leaders are leaders who are key in the brand-building process and they play an important role in translating a brand's promise into action. This is done through their verbal and non-verbal communication, which happens through their interactions (Terglav, Ruzzier, Robert & Kaˇse, 2016). Some of the key behaviours in this type of leadership style include: living the values of the brand, exercising trust, and showing commitment towards a brand (Terglav, Ruzzier, Robert & Kaˇse, 2016).

Change-oriented leadership is leadership that requires change and in finding persuasive ways to communicate the change. It is focused on improving strategic decisions, adapting to change, innovating, changing processes, products or services, increasing flexibility, and gaining commitment to the changes (Khuong & Hoang, 2015). A change-oriented leader needs to understand the environment and find innovative strategies and products. This type of leadership needs a combination of environmental inputs and variations in an individual's style (Khuong & Hoang, 2015). Change-oriented leaders are giving/seeking, they make decisions, and they are good at building relationships as well as influencing others. Change-oriented leadership has been found to motivate employees and increase commitment (Khuong & Hoang, 2015).

Charismatic leadership is the kind of leadership style whereby a leader makes his/her followers believe that he/she has exceptional leadership abilities. The leaders are expressive, they have the ability to influence and mobilise others. Some of the characteristics of a charismatic leader include: having a vision and articulation, they are sensitive, risk takers and commonly have unconventional behaviours (Khuong & Hoang, 2015).

Autocratic leaders are leaders who are controlling and directive. They seldom take input from their subordinates, they are domineering, vengeful and controlling. They take control by dominating decisions and actions, they give clear instructions to their followers and force them to do things their way (Khuong & Hoang, 2015). The disadvantage with this type of leadership style is that it limits employees from being innovative and creative (Khuong & Hoang, 2015).

Ethical leadership is the type of leadership that happens through appropriate conduct that is demonstrated through personal actions and interpersonal relationships. This type of leadership style involves communication, reinforcement and decision making with employees (Khuong & Hoang, 2015). The characteristics of ethical leaders include honesty, fairness, transparency, open communication, and the promotion and rewarding of ethical conduct amongst employees (Khuong & Hoang, 2015).

System leaders are those leaders who build relationships that are based on listening, trust, networks, as well as collaboration. They do not always wait for fully developed plans as they believe that something can be done so they are the first to take a step (Senge, Hamilton & Kania, 2015). Ignorance is one of their greatest strengths as that gives them permission to ask questions which may seem obvious, but this helps them embody an openness and commitment to their on-going learning as well as growth. They are able to see the larger picture; when facing complex situations people tend to have arguments over who has the right perspective however, these leaders are able to help people see the bigger picture which results in collaboration that leads to solutions for problems faced (Senge, Hamilton & Kania, 2015). Secondly, they are able to help people reflect and generate conversations. Reflection is important in encouraging individuals in an organisation to be open to other people's points of view which may be different from their own and appreciate others. This is key in creating trust (Senge, Hamilton & Kania, 2015). Lastly, system leaders are able to move people's focus from reactive problem solving to working together to co-create the future (Senge, Hamilton & Kania, 2015). In IBM literature, brand oriented leaders and transformational leaders have often been cited as important to the IBM process (Porricelli et al., 2014; Du Preez et at., 2015; Martínez & Matute, 2020).

From the review in this section, it is clear that leadership is important for developing the vision and goals for an organisation. While leaders are crucial, managers are also important as they manage the day-to-day activities which lead to the achievement of organisational goals. The next section reviews the concept of management support and why it is important.

3.3.10 Management Support

For change to occur in organisations, there needs to be synergy between organisational structures, technology and processes, and this helps with developing a competitive advantage (Shaar, Khattab, Alkaied & Manna, 2015). The role of management is crucial in achieving synergy because management is important in the achievement of organisational goals. Management is responsible for understanding the values of employees, organisational principles, and then forming synergy between them. The reason this is important is because management is responsible for identifying opportunities, exploiting them and making decisions that add value to the organisation (Shaar, Khattab, Alkaied & Manna, 2015).

Management is the group of individuals within an organisation who are responsible for the strategic direction and decision making (Shaar, Khattab, Alkaied & Manna, 2015). "Top management provides an interface between an organisation and its environment and makes decisions likely to influence where the organisation will head to and how it gets there. Thus, top management plays a critical role in providing strategic context and guidance to organisations" (Liu, Wang & Chua, 2014, p.708). They are meant to bring unity, purpose, direction and create working conditions which allow employees to be engaged in order to achieve organisational objectives (Liu, Wang & Chua, 2014).

Management support is an important component of IBM (King & Grace, 2009) and the importance of management support within organisations has been highlighted since the 1970s (Gomes, Weerd–Nederhof, Petra, Pearson, & Fisscher, 2001). Organisations are continuously implementing various strategies, therefore, it is important that management is there to support employees because if they fail to do so, they may sabotage the success of the strategy (Cassell, Worley & Doolen, 2006).

Support is important as it allows for managers and subordinates to combine ideas and routines which are linked to giving better customer service (George, 1990). Management support is crucial for the success of any project or projects that are interdependent or cross-functional because management is needed to facilitate the decision making across different groups within an organisation (Liu, Wang & Chua, 2014). It is also important for managers to attend training courses and seminars that allow them to provide better management support (King & Grace, 2008). It has been highlighted that innovative companies have managers who are committed to innovation as well as product development. Management support in innovative organisations has been found to help with cross-functional teamwork, overcoming obstacles, and providing encouragement. Management should not only focus on demonstrating commitment and leadership, they need to work hard creating interesting work as well as communicating change to all employees in the organisation (Gomes, Weerd–Nederhof, Petra, Pearson, & Fisscher, 2001). A lack of management support may leave employees feeling discouraged, which will have a negative impact (Cassell, Worley & Doolen, 2006).

Ahmed, Rafiq and Saad (2003) conducted a study amongst manufacturing and services companies in Malaysia, and found that in internal marketing, management support, as well as inter-functional co-ordination played a key role in business performance. Kim, Song and Lee (2016) found that management support was important in internal marketing as it is linked with employee retention. The study suggested that one of the best ways for management to show support is to set up meetings with employees to allow them to share their experiences as well as ideas. Managers can then select those employees with the best ideas and reward them (Kim, Song and Lee, 2016).

Liu, Wang and Chua (2014) suggest that management support comprises three components, namely, resource provision, participation, and involvement. Resource provision refers to the allocation of resources in the workplace by management and these can include the allocation of funds, equipment for a project, and assigning personnel (Liu, Wang and Chua, 2014). Participation refers to the presence and visibility of management in order to support employees. Managers need to set goals, help with solving problems and repair organisational structures or processes that are not functioning correctly. Lastly, involvement refers to support which needs to be given by management, this needs to be public, sincere, and explicit (Liu, Wang and Chua, 2014).

The previous sections provided the different elements of IBM and why they are important in organisations. A common outcome of IBM sources that was cited in the various sections was employee satisfaction. The next section discusses employee satisfaction.

3.4 EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION AS AN OUTCOME OF INTERNAL BRAND MANAGEMENT

3.4.1 Origins and Definitions of Employee Satisfaction

Employees play an important role in ensuring that an organisation stays competitive. Therefore, it is important for organisations to retain employees and in order for employees to be retained in an organisation, they need to be satisfied (Zafar & Zafar, 2019). Employee satisfaction is affected by both internal and external factors. If an employee is happy and relaxed in the job then this will lead to satisfaction. There are various things that cause satisfaction in the workplace and these include a job that matches an employee’s education, positive feelings towards a job and motivation (Zafar & Zafar, 2019).

Becker (2004) argues that employee satisfaction affects the physical and mental well-being of an employee. The author defines it as the attitudes and interests of employees towards their jobs, tasks, and job concepts, which affect their interest in their jobs as well as their interest in the goals and values of the organisation. Kidd (2006) defines it as the feeling that an employee has in his/her job and management can impact employee satisfaction. This can be done by looking at factors that drive employees to become satisfied and this will lead to better organisational performance (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins & Gupta, 2005).

Sageer et al. (2012) describe employee satisfaction as the happiness of an employee within a job or work environment, and went on to highlight that the level of satisfaction is dependent on personal and employer variables. It can also be defined as a multidimensional concept related to one or more factors that affect a person’s feeling of enjoyment and satisfaction with their job. A person can show their level of satisfaction by emphasising various factors which include: income, social values, as well as their work environment (Taboli & Soltani, 2014). It can also be viewed as the love a person has for his or her job tasks, as well as conditions and rewards. Individuals have been found to have positive and negative factors related to their job, however, if the positive outperform the negative, that will lead to employee satisfaction (Taboli & Soltani, 2014).

Satisfied employees go work hard to achieve the goals of the organisation and maintain healthy relationships with members of the organisation (Taboli & Soltani, 2014). Employee satisfaction can affect employee's adherence and commitment. It can also affect an employee's life directly or indirectly through impacting their behaviour and relationships with other individuals (Taboli & Soltani, 2014; Koh & Boo, 2004).

From the discussion in this section, it is clear that employee satisfaction has to do with how an employee feels about his/her work and that the satisfaction is important for the success of an organisation. The next section looks what the sources of employee satisfaction are.

3.4.2 The Determinants of Employee Satisfaction

Various researchers have looked at factors that lead to employee satisfaction. Channar and Shah (2017) found that rewards led to employee satisfaction. Chang and Lee (2007) found that a learning culture within an organisation positively affects job satisfaction. Bhatti and Shahzad (2008) found that high quality of work and high commitment led to the satisfaction employees and consequently decreased the desire to leave the organisation. King et al. (2010) found that role clarity and brand commitment affect employee satisfaction. Antocic and Antocic (2011) found that multiple factors led to employee satisfaction and these include working conditions, work time, the reputation of the organisation, the relationship with management, the organisational culture, benefits, remuneration, salary, promotion, education, culture and praise.

Minhajul (2012) conducted a study which found that employee satisfaction is positively affected by employee empowerment. Bendaravičienė and Bakanauskienė (2012) conducted a study amongst employees working at a university and found that rewards have an impact on whether or not an employee is satisfied. Huang et al. (2014) found that IM factors like training employees, internal communication and internal research have a positive impact on the satisfaction of employees. Hatane's (2015) study found that a learning organisation is positively linked to employee satisfaction. In a study by Creek, Kuhn and Sahaym (2017), it was found that factors like innovative giving programmes, work-life balance and profit-sharing led to a high level of employee satisfaction. Zafar and Zafar (2019) found that induction training, organisational culture and motivation led to employee satisfaction.

This section provided empirically tested factors that lead to the satisfaction of employees. The next section looks at some of the outcomes of having satisfied employees.

3.4.3 Various Outcomes of Employee Satisfaction

Chi and Gursoy (2009) found that employee satisfaction is a determinant of customer satisfaction and the financial performance of an organisation. Customer satisfaction leads to loyalty and word of mouth, while saving an organisation the high costs of acquisition. Minhajul (2012) conducted a study in the services industry, where high service quality has been found to be a concern, and found that employee satisfaction led to high service quality. Hatane (2015) found that job satisfaction led to increased organisational performance. Mohammad, Quoquad, Halimah and Thurasamy's (2019) study found that employee satisfaction leads to the productivity of employees and this aligns with the social exchange theory, which states that individuals who believe that the organisation for which they work put effort into making them happy, will be satisfied and want to reciprocate by increasing their productivity. Bataineh, Alfalah, Falah and Idris (2017) found that employee satisfaction leads to organisational citizenship behaviour. Du Preez et al. (2017) found that IBM leads to job satisfaction which in turn, leads to brand commitment, brand citizenship behaviour and the intention to stay in an organisation.

3.5 CONCLUSION

From this chapter, it is clear that organisations need to invest in their employees as they are an important organisational assets. One of the ways to do so is through IBM activities, therefore, the chapter gave an overview of IBM, followed by a discussion of the various sources of IBM; their definitions and why they are important. Through the review of the various elements, it was clear that employee satisfaction was an outcome of many of these IBM activities. The chapter ended off with a review of employee satisfaction, which included the identification of some of the sources and outcomes. The next chapter reviews some of the outcomes of IBM and employee satisfaction.

CHAPTER 4: SOURCES AND OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYEE-BASED BRAND EQUITY - EMPLOYEE BRAND COMMITMENT AS AN OUTCOME

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, IBM, its sources, and one of its outcomes, employee satisfaction, were discussed. This chapter discusses brand equity, the different perspectives, the benefits, and limitations of brand equity measurement. Thereafter, focus is given to EBBE, which is a newer perspective that can result from IBM activities. The chapter explores the benefits of EBBE, and then discusses the interrelation between EBBE and brand commitment.

4.2 BRAND EQUITY

This section discusses the concept of brand equity, the definitions, and types of brand equity as well as the views of some of the prominent brand equity authors.

4.2.1 Definitions of a Brand and Brand Equity

A brand is a combination of designs, symbols, signs, and names that are used by customers to identify offerings provided by a particular organisation and this also helps to differentiate the offerings from what competitors offer. A brand has both emotional and functional values that are unique to it and can create a pleasant experience for customers (Karamian, Nadoushan & Nadoushan, 2015). Brands are no different to other intangible assets but they are commonly treated like tangible assets because they possess characteristics that make it possible for them to be managed both as intangible and tangible assets (El-Tawy & Tollington, 2008). Brands are valuable legal entities, which have the ability to influence how consumers behave, they can be bought or sold, as well as provide security for future income to the owner (Keller & Brexendorf, 2019).

A brand that is successful is valuable as it helps marketers and organisations gain a competitive advantage, helps combat competition, makes it easier to introduce brand extensions, it is not heavily affected by competitor promotions, and creates barriers to entry (Karamian et al., 2015). The value of a brand, which is linked to the benefits of a brand, is called brand equity (Christodoulides, Cadogan & Veloutsou, 2015; Keller & Brexendorf, 2019). The value and power of a brand is highly dependent on what is in the minds of consumers, their thoughts on a brand, their experiences of a brand and the knowledge they have gained about a brand over time (Keller & Brexendorf, 2019).

It is an important concept for marketers and an important asset for organisations. It can be defined as “the marketing effects, or the value added to the product, specifically attributable to the brand” (Karamian et al., 2015, p.362). It is the difference between the utility of the product attributes and the total brand utility. Aaker (1991, p. 15) views brand equity as “a set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to an organisation and/or that organisation’s customers”. Brand equity combines customer-based strength, employee-based strength as well as financial-based strength (Karamian et al., 2015). CBBE is defined as “the differential effect that brand knowledge has on consumer response to the marketing of that brand” (Keller, 2013, p.69). EBBE is “the added meaning that employees receive from the brand over and above their job and the firm’s reputation, resulting in positive or negative behaviour towards the firm” (Berger-Remy & Michel, 2015, p.33). FBBE is “the financial value brand equity generated to the business” (Tran, 2020, p.3).

There are various ways in which value can be created for a brand and various ways in which brand equity can benefit an organisation. For a brand to be used for strategic functions and help in guiding decisions, marketing professionals need to be aware of what the sources of brand equity are, how they change and how they affect the outcomes of a brand such as sales. Once an organisation is aware of the sources of brand equity, it helps with interpreting marketing strategies as well as valuing the brand. For managers, understanding the sources helps them understand what drives brand equity, and how and where a brand adds value (Keller & Brexendorf, 2019). The next section looks at some of the possible sources of brand equity and the different perspectives of brand equity.

4.2.2 Brand Equity Perspectives, its Sources and Benefits

4.2.2.1 Customer-Based Brand Equity

Aaker’s (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity focused on consumers. Aaker’s brand equity model suggests that value is created for the organisation as well as the consumer. The author identified brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, brand loyalty and other assets as the dimensions of brand equity (Ding & Tseng, 2015). The fifth asset is often not mentioned.

Keller (1993) is another author of CBBE. The author's work focuses on brand knowledge and identifies two elements of brand equity: brand awareness (brand recognition and recall) and brand image (the associations linked to the brand) (Keller & Brexendorf, 2019). Brand knowledge is key in Keller's conceptualisation of CBBE because it is suggested that CBBE only happens when a consumer is aware of a brand and has created strong or favourable associations. This is because brand power is affected by the feelings, thoughts, beliefs, images, attitudes, and the diverse experiences of consumers (Davcik et al., 2015). Brand knowledge also has an impact on a consumer's reaction to products, their prices, channels, communication, and other marketing activities that can either increase or decrease brand value (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003). Therefore, brand equity is ultimately determined by consumers because consumers decide on what they do and do not purchase. It is proposed that an organisation can enhance brand equity through creating a favourable response to advertising, promotional activity, pricing, and distribution. This can also be applied to licencing as it can affect the image of a brand (Davcik et al., 2015).

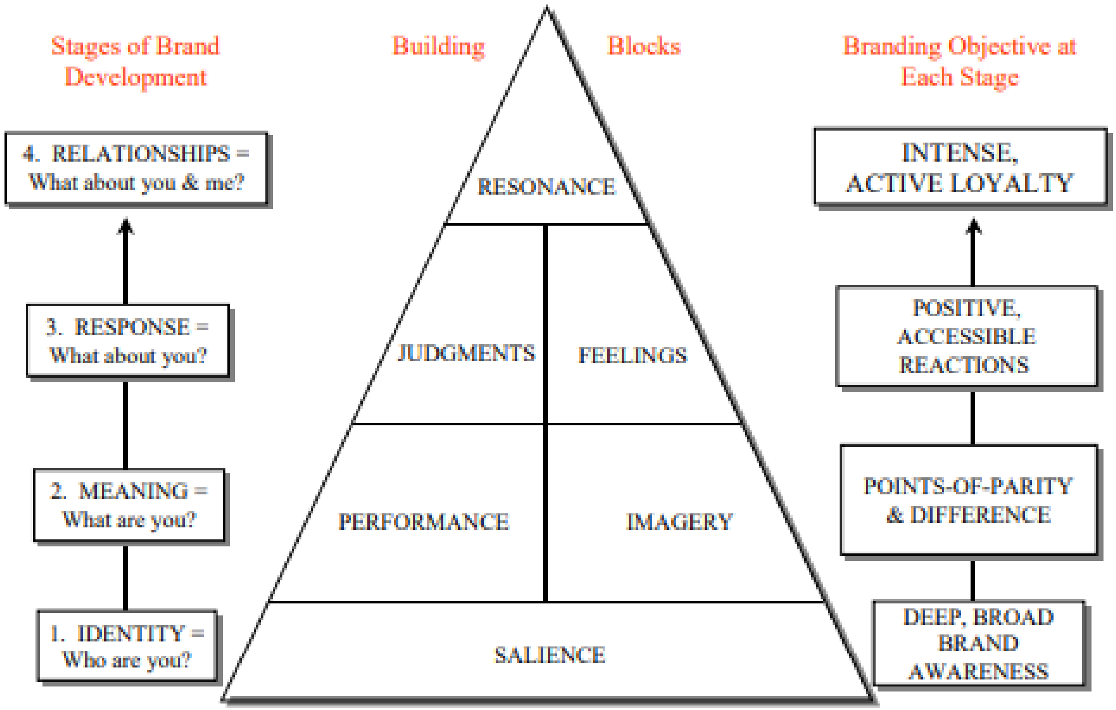
Kamakura and Russell (1993) propose measures based on consumer behaviours for brand valuation and these rely on how consumers make decisions as well as their consumption choices in the market. The authors point out that brand equity is the value that a brand gives to consumers and it can be derived through using probability choice modelling and using different situational factors like advertising, price, and perceived quality (Davcik et al., 2015).

Yoo et al. (2000) looked at the relationship between some marketing mix elements and the development of brand equity. The authors propose a model that assumes that the elements have an effect on brand equity. Amongst the elements that were looked at were price, promotions, advertising spend, store image and special deals (Davcik et al., 2015; Ding & Tseng, 2015). The authors propose that the marketing elements enhance a brand's awareness, perceived quality, and brand loyalty (Ding & Tseng, 2015).

Keller (2001) proposes a CBBE pyramid to address how brands can develop brand equity through knowledge structures. The model proposes four steps that can be followed to develop CBBE. The first step is ensuring that consumers know a brand, able to identify it and build associations with the brand, which are linked to the product class and consumer needs. The second step is establishing brand meaning that can be present in consumers' minds and this can be done through brand associations that are tangible and intangible. The third step involves evoking consumers in order to understand their brand judgements and feelings about a brand. The last step involves building brand loyalty through converting the brand responses (Keller, 2001; Keller, 2009; Jooste, Strydom, Berndt & du Plessis, 2012; Keller, 2013; Adeyemi, Boolaky & Gungaphul, 2017). Using the four steps in the model requires six building blocks on a pyramid, which are presented in figure 4.1. The left-hand side of the pyramid represents rationale, while the right hand side represents the emotions. In order to build brand equity, a brand needs to reach the top of the brand resonance pyramid and this will only be possible if the building blocks on the right hand side are in place (Keller, 2001; 2009; 2013; 2020).

The six building blocks on the pyramid are: brand salience, performance, imagery, judgements, feelings, and brand resonance (Keller, 2009). Brand salience refers to the frequency in which a consumer thinks of a brand during different times of purchase and consumption (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013). Brand performance refers to the degree to which a brand's service or product satisfies the utility needs of consumers (Keller, 2013). Brand imagery refers to the properties of a service or product that are outside of the functionality, such as the level to which a brand satisfies a consumer's social or psychological needs (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013). Brand judgements are consumer evaluations or views about a brand. Brand feelings are the brand reactions and responses from consumers which are emotional. Lastly, brand resonance refers to consumer relationships with brands and the level to which they are in synchronisation with a brand (Keller, 2001; Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013; Adeyemi, Boolaky & Gungaphul, 2017; Keller, 2020).

Figure 4.1: Keller's CBBE pyramid



Source: Keller (2009, p.144)

Srinivasan, Park and Chang (2005) propose that brand equity is measured from an increase in monetary contribution and that is determined by a customer's probability of selecting a brand. They suggest that brand awareness, non-attribute preferences and attribute perception biases are the sources of brand equity (Davcik et al., 2015).

As mentioned in the preceding discussions, Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) identified various sources of CBBE and some of these sources are discussed in the next section.

4.2.2.2 Sources of CBBE

Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is one of the assets of a brand as it contributes towards enhancing a brand's value. It is associated with information in the memory of a consumer or the ability to be able to identify a brand under different conditions (Keller, 2013). Aaker (1996) describes it as the salience of a brand and Keller (2013) proposes brand recognition and recall as elements of brand awareness. Brand recognition is a consumer's ability to remember his/her past experiences with a brand and brand recall is the consumer's ability to spontaneously remember a brand (Keller, 2013). Strong brand awareness makes consumers include a brand as one of the alternatives that can be considered for future purchases and it also affects a consumer's decision making when choosing which brand to purchase. It creates associations about a brand and is recognised as one of the most important factors that affect the knowledge of a consumer about a brand (Jooste et al., 2012; Chinomona & Maziriri, 2017; Oppong & Phiri, 2018).

Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty refers to the attachment between a consumer and a brand (Christodoulides & Cadogan, 2015; Chinomona & Maziriri, 2017). It is "a positively biased emotive, evaluative and/or behavioural response tendency toward a branded, labelled or graded alternative or choice by an individual in his capacity as the user, the choice maker, and/or the purchasing agent" (Said, 2014, p.69). It is a deep consumer commitment to repurchasing a brand in the future, irrespective of influences like personal situations or marketing activities that may cause a consumer to change behaviour. Brand loyalty is reflected when a consumer chooses a certain brand as first choice over time (Chinomona & Maziriri, 2017; Sadek, Elwy & Eldallal, 2018). Brand loyalty gives a brand a competitive advantage because it builds switching costs, which make it difficult for a consumer to try new brands (Jooste et al., 2012; Keller, 2013. Advertising has been found to encourage consumers to be loyal to brands of which they are already aware of. Advertising can reinforce associations and attitudes towards a brand (Sadek, Elwy & Eldallal, 2018).

Brand Associations

Brand associations refer to anything that a consumer links to the brand in their mind. Brand associations are made up of benefits, attributes, and attitudes (Jooste et al., 2012). Perceived value, organisational associations, and brand personality have been identified as the elements of brand associations (Aaker, 1996; Jooste et al., 2012; Oppong & Phiri, 2018). Perceived value refers to the functional benefits that a brand gives its consumers; it is the evaluation of the performance of a product. Organisational associations refer to elements linked to the organisation that the brand belongs to and these can include the employees, values and programmes that are linked to the brand and differentiate a brand in the market. Brand personality refers to the human characteristics that a brand has and these affect the feelings and emotions that a brand evokes. Brand personality can give a brand self-expressive and symbolic benefits, which can lead to a brand's differentiation and relationships with customers (Oppong & Phiri, 2018). "For example, if a brand wants to be seen as fun and playful, it can use a comedic actor or actress in advertising and/or sponsor a comedy festival. If the brand wants to be seen as sincere and competent, it can instead use a dramatic actor or actress, perhaps known for playing roles as a political leader or CEO and/or sponsor more civic-minded events or organizations" (Keller, 2020, p.465). Product related features offer consumers practical functions while extrinsic product features contribute towards building the brand's personality (Oppong & Phiri, 2018). Brand associations can benefit a brand through differentiating it, positioning the brand, developing brand extensions and play a role in the consumer decision making process (Keller, 2020).

Perceived Quality

Perceived quality is the subjective judgements consumers make about the excellence of a product, with regards to what it was meant to do. Perceived quality comes as a result of a consumer's consumption experience as well as impersonal communication, which happens through channels like advertising or personal channels like word of mouth (Dens & Pelsmacker 2016). It varies for different customers due to the fact that their needs, preferences and personalities are different, therefore, personal perceptions affect perceived quality. It is different from consumer satisfaction or a consumer's attitude due to the fact that a consumer could have low expectations (Gunnarsson, Folkestad & Postnikova, 2018). The perceived quality of a brand affects the price that a consumer is willing to pay and it is different from the actual quality of a product or service (Jooste et al., 2012). There are various factors that can affect perceived brand quality, firstly, a consumer may have an existing image of a product or service being of poor quality, and even if the quality improves, they might not be open to believing or changing their perception (Aaker, 1996; Gunnarsson, Folkestad & Postnikova, 2018). Secondly, a customer may not be able to take notice of the changes which were done to improve quality or those changes might not be important to them. Thirdly, a consumer might lack the motivation to evaluate all the aspects of a product or service quality and only look at a few. It is therefore important to understand which aspects are important to a customer. Lastly, a customer may be looking at the wrong aspects of a product or service and that in turn, affects their perceived quality therefore, it is important to be able to be able to separate between the actual quality of a product or service versus perceived quality (Aaker, 1996; Gunnarsson, Folkestad & Postnikova, 2018).

Other Proprietary Brand Assets

Brand assets are patents, trademarks and channel relationships that give a brand a competitive advantage (Jooste et al, 2012; Farjam & Hongyi, 2015). Trademarks protect the names, symbols, and packages of a brand, which help build their brand equity (Jooste et al, 2012; Farjam & Hongyi, 2015). The protection of these assets is necessary as competitors may try to use them in order to confuse consumers through using similar packages, names or symbols (Jooste et al, 2012; Farjam & Hongyi, 2015). Patents protect a brand from direct competition; if the patent features play a key role in consumers purchasing a product. Brands can indirectly affect channels if consumers expect a product to be available at a specific channel therefore, these relationships are crucial (Farjam & Hongyi, 2015).

Benefits and limitations of the focus on customer-based brand equity

Brands with high CBBE have been found to have the following benefits:

- Greater loyalty – brands with high brand equity usually have more loyal consumers because they have positive brand associations linked to the brands and people are more familiar with the brands (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).
- Less vulnerability to marketing activities of competitors and a crisis – the brands have been found to be less vulnerable to competitor activity due to consumers being loyal to them. They have also been found to be able to survive a crisis better because most brands with high brand equity have a positive brand image (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).
- Larger margins – brands which are valued by consumers have been found to be able to command higher margins due to fact they can charge price premia (Keller, 2009; 2013).
- Inelastic consumers – these brands have been found to be less affected when they increase prices, but have elastic responses when prices are decreased. This is because loyal consumers have been found to be fairly inelastic when

there are price increases but they increase their purchases when prices of their favourite brands decrease (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).

- Trade co-operation and support – brands that have a positive brand image have been found to have better trade co-operation from retailers, wholesalers, and other distributor channels (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013). These brands are more likely to receive support from the trade partners; who are willing to run promotions, decrease listing fees, give more shelf space, etc. (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).
- Effective marketing communication – brands with high brand equity are more familiar to consumers therefore, their communication is easily recognisable to consumers and as a result, they are able to form more favourable opinions about them (Keller, 2013). These brands are less vulnerable to competitor advertising and less vulnerable to negative responses from consumers when seeing the advertisements multiple times. Brands with higher brand equity have also been found to require less advertising, which can result in cost saving for an organisation (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).
- Licencing opportunities – brands with high brand equity often have favourable brand associations and these give the brands an opportunity to licence products with their trademarks, brand names or logos. Research has found that consumers would be more likely to pay premium prices for licenced products than other brand names with which they are less familiar (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).
- Brand extension opportunities – research has found that the brand extensions of brands with high brand equity have more likelihood of success due to consumers having associations linked to the brands (Keller, 2009; Keller, 2013).

Tavassoli, Sorescu and Chandy (2014) argue that when organisations focus on just CBBE, which is important, it can ignore other important sources of brand value for an organisation. The consumer-based drivers of brand equity are often predicted to lead to financial outcomes. The next section discusses FBBE.

4.2.3 Financial-Based Brand Equity (FBBE)

FBBE focuses on valuing a brand financially and it is often seen as an outcome of CBBE (Christodoulides, Cadogan & Veloutsou, 2015). Simon and Sullivan (1993) describe FBBE as "a price or revenue compared to a benchmark competitor and a stock premium respectively" (John, Kilumile & Tundui, 2019, p.102). The authors developed a brand equity model which focuses on market-based measures and these include the performance of the brand and look at the characteristics of a brand which lead to increased revenues (John, Kilumile & Tundui, 2019). Ailawadi et al. (2003) conducted a study on revenue-premium brand equity and suggested that sales which are generated by an organisation through working on the marketing mix and being aware of the presence of competitors in the market affect the brand equity. The authors suggested that "equity is created by the organisation's previously existing strength from its corporate image, product line, R&D, and other capabilities" (Davcik et al., 2015, p.11). Raggio and Leone (2009) describe brand value as the price for replacing a brand and the value is dependent on who the owner is (Davcik et al., 2015).

Although FBBE is important, the majority of literature still focuses on CBBE because the competitive advantage that generates FBBE is reflected in consumers' response to a brand. Employees also bring about a competitive advantage for the firm. Therefore, focus also needs to be given to other forms of brand value, such as EBBE. The next section discusses EBBE.

4.3 EMPLOYEE-BASED BRAND EQUITY (EBBE)

The sections that follow discuss EBBE, its origins, definitions, why it is important and the outcomes of EBBE.

4.3.1 Origins and Definitions of Employee-Based Brand Equity (EBBE)

It has become apparent that brands and human capital are some of the most important assets which organisations have. Consequently, organisations are recognising the need to develop these intangible assets (Wilden, Gudergan & Lings, 2010). The task of developing brands as well as human capital is one that marketers and human resource practitioners are taking more responsibility for and this has resulted in various strategies being implemented for staff members in organisations (Wilden, Gudergan

& Lings, 2010; Anselmsson, Bondesson & Melin, 2016). When evaluating the success of a brand or organisation, a vast amount of research has examined it from the consumer or financial perspective (Erkmen, 2018). However, not a lot of research has been conducted to examine the role that branding plays in attracting and retaining employees who can develop and effectively deliver products and services of an organisation. Consequently, there has been a growing interest in how employees evaluate brands or organisations (Wilden, Gudergan & Lings, 2010).

The limited research on the employees' perspective on brand equity has led to the growing interest of EBBE. Mangold and Miles (2007, p. 424) define an employee brand as "the image presented to an organisation's customers and other stakeholders through its employees". The strength of the employee brand is impacted by the level of consistency in which the brand promise is delivered (Kashive & Khanna, 2017). King et al. (2009, p. 130) introduced and defined EBBE as "the differential effect that the brand knowledge has on an employee's response to their work environment". Tavassoli, Sorescu, and Chandy (2014, p. 676) defined it as "the value that a brand provides to a firm through its effects on the attitudes and behaviours of its employees". Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010, p. 1250) defined it as "the incremental effect of branding on employee behaviour". To build EBBE, there are two important things that must be provided to employees, firstly, they must know and understand the brand image of an organisation because EBBE requires the translation of brand equity in a way that has meaning to the employee, particularly related to his/her role and responsibilities. Secondly, employees must be able to behave in such a way that delivers the brand image. EBBE doesn't focus on the creation of an employer's brand identity, but rather reflects the existing brand knowledge of the employee. How the brand image is delivered by the employee is also largely dependent on the psychological contracts in the employee's mind (Kashive & Khanna, 2017). EBBE can produce a number of benefits and the next section discusses its importance.

4.3.2 The Importance of Employee-Based Brand Equity

EBBE can affect the performance of employees in an organisation and it can give an organisation a competitive advantage. Employees are largely responsible for showcasing work-related attitudes and behaviours, which deliver the brand promise to consumers and other stakeholders of the organisation. Therefore, the management or influence of these employee behaviours is important for any brand (Altaf, Mokhtar & Ghani, 2017). When organisations are aware of the importance of EBBE, it gives managers the opportunity to create tools that are useful in influencing desired behaviours (Poulis & Wisker, 2016). In the services sector, the experiences that consumers have with a brand are largely related to interactions with employees and they can affect the perceptions of a customer. Consequently, even if a brand markets itself well, if a consumer's experience with an employee is not great, it can affect the brand and its relationship with consumers (King & Grace, 2007; King & Grace, 2008). In the goods sector, employees must be able to deliver value to consumers and that is driven by their understanding of the brand meaning and their understanding of how to the deliver value to consumers. When employees know how to deliver value to consumers, they are able to exhibit behaviours which are consistent with the brand or organisational expectations or translate it to consumers in the desired manner (King & Grace, 2007). However, if they lack direction, then they will struggle and not know what to do in their jobs (King & Grace, 2007). Employees who are well informed about the value of their organisation tend to be proud and this drives EBBE (Duh & Uford, 2019). It all starts with organisations that treat their staff like customers and help them understand their roles within the organisation, enabling them to deliver the brand promise to external customers (King et al., 2009; Etim & Uford, 2019).

4.3.3 Sources of Employee-Based Brand Equity

Various studies have identified different sources of EBBE. Supornpraditchai et al. (2007) suggest that Erdem and Swait's (1998) CBBE approach, which proposes using the signalling theory and asymmetrical and imperfect information to develop CBBE should be applied to the development of EBBE. The authors suggest that if an organisational brand defines its brand personality and signals its credibility and quality, then employees are more likely to remain working in the organisation. King et al. (2009; 2010) found that internal brand management activities effect brand knowledge effects: role clarity and brand commitment, which in turn, lead to EBBE benefits. The authors argue that EBBE happens as a result of an employee's knowledge. The findings were consistent with Nogueira, Santarém and Gomes (2020), who tested the same model amongst volunteers in the NPO space and found that role clarity and brand commitment influenced EBBE. Kashive et al. (2017) also found that internal brand management affected EBBE positively. Kwon (2013) found that worksite environment and culture for supporting health had an influence on EBBE.

Erkmen (2018) conducted a study in the hospitality industry, that found that internal and external communication were important for building EBBE. The study suggests that internal communication helps employees understand their roles and that helps them better deliver the brand promise. While external communication is often targeted at consumers, the author argues that employees are also exposed to external communication therefore, that affects their perceptions of the brand too. The author suggests that when organisations develop external communication, they should have consumers and employees in mind (Erkmen, 2018). Altaf et al. (2017, p. 2) found that brand psychological ownership, which is “employee psychological experience that produces positive brand attitude and cognition, such as a feeling of possession towards a corporate brand that leads towards selfless spirit towards brand-related activities” has a positive effect on EBBE. Etim and Uford (2019) conducted a study in Nigeria’s banking industry and found that role clarity and brand commitment have a positive impact on EBBE. Wisker and Kwiatek (2019, p. 407) studied the hotel industry and found that environmental orientation, which is “recognition of the importance of environmental issue facing the firm and the integration of those issues into the firm’s strategic plan” has a positive impact on EBBE. Boukis and Christodoulides (2020) conducted a study in the services sector and found that brand identification, brand leadership and brand knowledge have a positive effect on EBBE.

Summarily, the cited sources of EBBE are IBM; role clarity; brand knowledge; worksite environment and culture for supporting health; internal and external brand communication; brand psychological ownership; environmental orientation; brand identification; and brand leadership, etc. The next section discusses some of the outcomes of EBBE.

4.4 OUTCOMES OF EBBE

EBBE outcomes are benefits derived from IBM activities and they contribute towards CBBE and FBBE (King et al., 2010). King et al. (2010) and Poulis et al., (2016) suggest that some EBBE outcomes are brand citizenship behaviour, brand endorsement and brand allegiance. These outcomes have all been cited as benefits of EBBE and are discussed in the following subsection.

4.4.1 Brand Citizenship Behaviour, its Dimensions, Sources and Outcomes

4.4.1.1 What is brand citizenship behaviour? (BCB)

Employees who are satisfied with their jobs often exhibit behaviours which are more than what is required in their job descriptions. Nevertheless, the behaviours are often in line with the values of the brand or organisation, and benefit the organisation (Kashive et al., 2017). All employees in an organisation can help the brand through brand citizenship behaviours (BCB), whether or not they are in direct contact with consumers (Piehler et al., 2016). This is because most employees have some influence on the promise delivered to consumers, be it from direct contact, supporting employees who are in direct contact with consumers or setting parameters for how consumers should be interacted with (Piehler et al., 2016).

Burmann and Zeplin (2005) suggest that there are differences between brand citizenship behaviour (BCB) and organisational citizenship behaviour. However, King and Grace (2012) suggest that they should be regarded as synonyms therefore, this study regards them as synonyms. Organisational citizenship behaviour is “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Burmann et al. (2005) define BCB as aggregated individual behaviours which help with the enhancement of a brand. Various other authors define BCB as an individual’s voluntary brand related behaviour, which is outside of the role and expectations that have been spelt out for the individual (King & Grace, 2012; Chiang, Chang, & Han, 2012; Xie, Peng & Huan, 2014; Poulis et al., 2016).

4.4.1.2 Dimensions of BCB

There are several types of behaviours that can be exhibited which represent brand citizenship behaviours: helping behaviour, brand advancement, brand endorsement, brand sportsmanship, brand enthusiasm, brand consideration and brand development. These behaviours all play a key role in strengthening the overall identity of a brand (Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2012; Melewar, Gotsi, Andriopoulos, Chang, Chiang, & Han, 2012; Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2015). Helping behaviour is linked to an employee having a positive attitude, being friendly, helpful and having empathy towards customers as well as colleagues. Employees with helping behaviour tend to take on responsibility for work outside of their scope when needed (Melewar et al., 2012; Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2015). Brand consideration is an employee's willingness to adhere to behavioural guidelines which are a reflection of the organisation. These guidelines are considered before taking action or communicating (Melewar et al., 2012). Brand enthusiasm is when an employee is able to take extra initiatives while doing their job (Melewar et al., 2012). Sportsmanship refers to employees who do not complain even when the brand causes challenges. They are always willing to communicate with a brand even at an opportunity cost (Melewar et al., 2012). Brand advancement is an employee's willingness to contribute towards the adapting of a brand's identity in order to cater for needs in the market and competencies needed by the organisation (Melewar et al., 2012; Shaari, Salleh & Hussin, 2015).

4.4.1.3 Sources and outcomes of BCB

Various studies have looked at the sources and outcomes of BCB. Berman et al. (2009) did a study that found that in-house branding in an organisation can improve the brand commitment of employees as well as BCB and this leads to the organisation having better relations with consumers (Jandaghi, Bahamin & Abaei, 2015). King et al. (2010) found that role clarity and brand commitment led to EBBE benefits such as BCB. Chiang, Chang and Han (2012) found that BCB can be influenced by the social and psychological work environment, this then has an impact on overall organisational performance. Shaari and Hussin (2015) conducted a study on leadership and found that transformational leaders have a bigger impact on BCB than transactional leaders. Nouri, Mousavi and Soltani (2016) conducted a study in the banking industry which found that an employee's commitment leads to BCB. The same study also found that the BCB of employees lead to the customer satisfaction of the bank's customers. A study by Nyadzayo, Matanda and Ewing (2016), which was conducted in the franchising industry, found that brand relationship quality led to BCB and BCB led to franchisee perceived relationship value, franchisee perceived brand loyalty and franchisee perceived brand image.

From the review in this section, it is evident that BCB has to do with employee behaviours that are outside of their job descriptions but are beneficial to the organisation. The next section also looks at another form of behaviour that is not often stipulated in the job description, yet it can be beneficial to an organisation. Brand endorsements from employees and are discussed next.

4.4.2 Brand Endorsement or Word-of-Mouth

It is widely accepted that word-of-mouth is important in shaping the attitudes and behaviours of consumers (Harrison-Walker, 2001). Word-of-mouth was found to be seven times more effective than other forms of media platforms like magazines and newspapers, and four times more effective than direct marketing tools, such as personal selling, and had double the impact that radio advertisements have (Cengiz & Yayla, 2007). Word-of-mouth has also been found to be nine times more effective than advertising at changing negative or neutral attitudes into positive ones (Cengiz & Yayla, 2007). Word-of-mouth can be the ultimate success factor for brands. This is because personal sources of information are seen as more trustworthy than other forms of communication. Satisfied customers tend to be the ones to spread the word about the brand and they are most likely to tell five people who have the potential of also passing on the message (Harrison-Walker, 2001).

Similarly, employee satisfaction has been found to have a positive impact on positive employee word-of-mouth, which is beneficial to organisations as employees who are satisfied with their jobs will spread positive feedback to other employees in the organisation as well as customers (King et al., 2009). In external branding, brand endorsements happen when a customer endorses a brand through a testimonial or promoting it to others. In internal branding, the same applies for employees who are intrinsically and extrinsically motivated as they begin to say positive things to the external market (Poulis et al., 2016). External communication of a brand from an employee has been found to be an important aspect of branding support. Ghani and Rahman (2017) describe it as making brand recommendations to people even when an employee is not in a work environment.

Kashive et al. (2017) state that employee brand endorsement is when an employee says positive things about their organisation and are willing to recommend it to others. The authors suggest that employees who feel like they belong in an organisation and have an emotional bond with the organisation tend to spread positive word-of-mouth. These personal recommendations from the employee help reduce the cost of employment, they result in more knowledgeable employees and improve performance within an organisation (Kashive et al., 2017). Employee brand endorsement can also attract new business for an organisation or improve and grow existing relationships (Haghighikhah, Khadang & Arabi, 2016). Although the relationships with customers are important, the long-term relationships with employees are also important. Another outcome of EBBE is brand allegiance. This outcome and its importance is discussed in the next section.

4.4.3 Brand Allegiance or Intention to Stay in an Organisation

Brand allegiance refers to an "employee's intention to keep working in his/her present organisation (brand)" (Kashive et al., 2017, p.209). Employees who have similar values as the organisations for which they work often perform well in their jobs. The recognition of the value these employees offer has brought about the need for organisations to retain them. One of the best ways to determine whether employees will remain in an organisation or not is to explore their intentions to stay (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003).

The theory of reasoned actioned suggests that behaviour can be predicted by assessing the intention to act. The intention to stay in an organisation is important to organisations because there is a big economic impact which is caused by losing employees who have knowledge (Kashive et al., 2017). Employees who identify with the mission of the organisation are likely to have the intention to stay. This is because those employees recognise their role in the fulfilment of the mission (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Poulis et al., 2016). Satisfaction is also an indicator of intention to stay. An employee's satisfaction can be expressed by the employee through their attitude towards their work and salary. Other factors that have been found to affect employee satisfaction which in turn, affect brand allegiance include an employee's age, the length of time they have been with the organisation, and whether their job is full time or part time (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Poulis et al., 2016).

The advantage of understanding the intention to stay is that an organisation is able to develop crucial employees to have the skills and knowledge needed in order to create a competitive advantage that an organisation needs to increase productivity (Kashive et al., 2017). Brand allegiance is similar to brand loyalty because when customers are happy and satisfied with a brand, they are likely to remain loyal to the brand and say positive things about it to others. Similar to the consumer context, employees that are satisfied with their jobs are likely to have intentions to stay in an organisation, become loyal to an organisation and effectively deliver the brand promise to consumers (Poulis et al., 2016). Brand allegiance has been found to have a relationship with brand commitment, it can lead to employee behavioural loyalty and it can also affect the performance of an organisation (King et al., 2010; Poulis et al., 2016). As noted, brand commitment has a relationship with EBBE benefits; the next section discusses brand commitment.

4.5 BRAND COMMITMENT

This section discusses brand commitment in terms of its definitions, benefits, and types. The section starts off by discussing consumer brand commitment then moves on to employee brand commitment. Discussing both the employee and customer perspectives showcases the similarities and differences between both types of brand commitment.

4.5.1 Definitions and Origins of Brand Commitment

Brand commitment refers to the desire to remain in a relationship with a brand or organisation (Chang & Wu, 2014). Li et al. (2014) describe it as the relationship that forms between a customer and brand. Commitment is emotional and can be seen through emotional and psychological attachments. In a consumer context, this can be seen through consumers who are so attached to a brand that they do not consider other second choices (Chang & Wu, 2014; Kao, 2016). These attachments are vital as they determine whether or not one will remain loyal to an organisation or brand (Chang & Wu, 2014).

Although brand commitment can be seen as loyalty, it is different because brand loyalty can happen as a result of one’s need to reduce effort in the decision making process. Individuals who are loyal to a brand are most likely to switch brands in the absence of their preferred brand, whereas committed individuals will not. Committed individuals are willing to make an effort to continue a relationship (Chang & Wu, 2014). Brand commitment is often not good for new competitors in the market as they find a harder time getting consumers to switch to their brands due to the consumers' willingness to continue the relationship with the brand to which they are committed (Kao, 2016).

As do consumers, employees can also be committed to a brand. Employees who are brand committed become brand advocates. Trust has been identified as one of the key factors in commitment because individuals tend to be more committed when they have confidence in an organisation's or brand's reliability and integrity (Erkmen & Hancer, 2015).

Brand commitment, like most things, has its benefits and limitations and these are covered in the next section.

4.5.2 Benefits and limitations of Brand Commitment

When looking at the benefits of commitment, it has been found to play an important role in enhancing a variety of relationships, these include the employer and employee relationship, relationship between a manufacturer and distributor as well as romantic relationships (Chang & Wu, 2014). Consumers who are committed to a brand tend to have a biased attitude towards the brand and when evaluating competitor brands, they view them as less favourable. They have also been found to defend their favourite brands and this remains unchanged even when undesirable information about their favourite brands comes to their attention. When presented with evidence that their favourite brands are different and superior, they are more likely to believe that information (Kang & Fiore, 2015). Committed consumers have also been found to be more resistant to switching brands even when competitors are offering lower prices. Because their favourite brand becomes a habitual brand that they use, they have also been found to be more trusting and they spread positive word-of-mouth (Amine, 1998).

Various authors have looked at ways in which brands can have consumers who remain committed to them. Knox and Harrison-Walker (2001) and East et al. (2008) state that customers might not remain committed to a brand even if the brand satisfies their needs. The authors suggest that brands need to continuously evolve because consumer preferences and choice sets are forever changing. Trends and competitor brands offering the latest products can cause consumers to switch and not remain committed to a brand. Abdel and Majid (1998) argue that long-term relationships between brands and their customers are necessary for building loyalty and commitment. However, brands need to continually invest in understanding consumer needs in order to gain commitment. Brands need to understand what knowledge consumers have about their brands as this has an impact on their commitment and the best way to do this is through communication (Hassan, Rafi & Kazmi, 2015).

4.5.3 Types of Brand Commitment

Affective or emotional commitment refers to an individual's desire to continue a valued relationship with a brand (Alkhawaldeh, Al-Salaymeh, Alshare, & Eneizan, 2017). Mbango (2018, p.3) describes it as "the passionate connection with the brand that represents strong logic of personal identifications". The emotional attachment to a brand happens when an individual identifies with a brand. Individuals with this type of commitment tend to like a brand more, identify with it and have an emotional attachment to it. They are also more likely to trust a brand more than individuals who are not committed to it (Evanschitzky et al., 2006).

Continuance or economic commitment refers to a functional relationship between an individual and a brand. This happens when an individual remains committed to a brand because of a lack of alternatives or high switching costs (Evanschitzky et al., 2006; Alkhawaldeh, Al-Salaymeh, Alshare, & Eneizan, 2017).

Normative commitment refers to a sense of responsibility towards a brand or organisation. Individuals are influenced by their social environments and as a result, they act in such a way that gains them social acceptance and this is part of the reason why they associate themselves with a brand (Alkhawaldeh et al., 2017).

For a brand to have consumers that have any of the types of brand commitments mentioned, it would be beneficial because ultimately it would mean that consumers would continue to use their products or services. While the preceding sections discussed the concept of brand commitment mainly focusing on consumers, the next sections discuss employee brand commitment.

4.6 EMPLOYEE BRAND COMMITMENT

4.6.1 Definitions of Employee Brand Commitment

Handayani, Herwany and Handayani (2019) define employee brand commitment as the psychological attachment of employees to the brand of their company. For corporate brands, especially the financial and services brands, employee brand commitment is viewed as a synonym of organisational commitment (Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015; Handayani, Herwany & Handayani, 2019). When looking back at brand commitment, Mowday, Porter and Steer (1982, p. 27) developed one of the most widely accepted definitions of organisational commitment. They defined it as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation and can be characterized by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation". Zafar and Ali (2016) highlight that Allen et al*. (*1990) and O' Reilly et al*. (*1986) touched on psychology and described employee attachment as a psychological attachment between an employee and their workplace. Commitment happens when employees start identifying and becoming involved in their workplace tasks (Zafar & Ali, 2016). Meyer et al. *(*2001) define it as the state in which an employee has adopted certain actions in order to achieve a desired target. Burmann et al. (2005, p. 284) define it as "the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert extra effort toward reaching the brand goals, in other words, to exert brand citizenship behaviours". Hanaysha (2016, p.290) defines it as "a psychological attitude that attaches an employee to an organisation in a manner that reduces his or her turnover intention".

There are three types of commitment that employees can have, namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment (Nayak & Sahoo, 2015; Zafar & Imran Ali, 2016; Piehler et al., 2016). Affective commitment is a state in which an employee wishes to remain in an organisation (Zafar & Imran Ali, 2016). It can also be defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (Shipton, Sanders, Atkinson & Frenkel, 2016, p.30). Employees with this type of commitment tend to be emotionally attached to an organisation, they enjoy being a part of the organisation and they feel a sense of belonging (Sheikh & Aghaz, 2019). Continuance commitment happens as a result of an employee looking at the potential costs of leaving an organisation, these costs can include lack of work opportunities or penalties. An employee remains in the organisation because they have no other alternatives. Normative commitment happens as a result of an employee feeling an obligation to remain in an organisation. The three types of commitment mentioned are not mutually exclusive, however, they can exist one at a time or at the same time in varying degrees (Zafar & Imran Ali, 2016; Sheikh & Aghaz, 2019).

The definitions and classifications of employee brand commitment indicate that brand commitment is important for an organisation as employees form attachments with the organisational brand. The next section looks at the benefits of employees being committed to a brand.

4.6.2 Benefits of Employee Brand Commitment

Literature has documented the importance of employee brand commitment and highlighted various benefits of having committed employees. Some of these benefits include lower employee turnover, increased brand citizenship behaviour, motivated employees, organisational support, loyalty, and employees are not being a financial liability to an organisation as they are more productive (Nayak & Sahoo, 2015; Hanaysha, 2016; Piehler et al., 2016). Committed employees have also been found to work hard in order to achieve the goals of the organisation and they are more open to accepting the values of an organisation. Other benefits are employee behaviours which have been found to happen as a result of commitment such as quality work, flexibility, engagement and the willingness to make sacrifices in order to enhance the image of the organisation (Hanaysha, 2016). Brand commitment has also been found to lead to organisational competitiveness, which increases the engagement and motivation of employees (Hanaysha, 2016). While King et al. (2010) suggest that employee brand commitment leads to brand citizenship behaviour, employee satisfaction, employee intention to stay in the organization, and willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth, Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) found that employee satisfaction is rather the predictor of brand commitment.

4.7 CONCLUSION

Brand equity has been widely researched over the past few decades due to the importance of brands to organisations. The majority of research has looked at CBBE and FBBE, which are important for an organisation. However, when looking at the literature review it is evident that little work has looked at EBBE, which is equally as important as organisations need employees who are committed to their brands in order to help them achieve their goals. Consequently, organisations need to know how to build EBBE and brand commitment. Chapter 5 discusses theories and models that can explain brand commitment and develops the conceptual model and hypotheses for this study from these theories and models.

CHAPTER 5: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters, the sources and importance of brand equity were discussed. It is evident that strong brand equity leads to the success of a brand. Employees are critical in the development of strong brand equity as they hold the responsibility to deliver the brand promise to consumers. Without their commitment and buy-in, that would be challenging. What drives employees' brand commitment needs to be examined. This chapter reviews theories and models/frameworks that would aid in answering this question and which would underpin this study and guide the development of a conceptual model and hypotheses.

5.2 PRINCIPAL THEORIES RELEVANT TO THIS STUDY

This section reviews three theories which underpin the study: the resource-based view theory, the social exchange theory and the social identity theory.

5.2.1 Resource-Based View Theory (RBV)

According to Jacobsen (2013), the resource-based view (RBV) can be traced back to the theoretical works of Robinson (1933) as well as Penrose (1959), who argued that the growth of an organisation is dependent on how it uses its resources. The theory is deeply rooted in the competency-based theory (Freiling, 2007; Williamson, Bhadury, Dobie, Ofori-Boadu, Troy & Yeboah, 2012; Jacobsen, 2013; Panda & Reddy, 2016). The RBV approach focuses on the need for management to move away from focusing on products, but to start focusing on resources and developing resources, one of those resources are employees (Vomberg, Homburg & Bournemann, 2015). Wernerfelt (1984, p. 172) defines resources as "those (tangible and intangible) assets which are tied semi-permanently to the firm". While traditional organisations focus on analysing the competitive environment, the RBV focuses on analysing the various resources that an organisation has (Das & Teng, 2000; Vomberg et al., 2015). Organisations need to focus on finding the fit between the external environment (opportunities and threats) as well as their internal characteristics (strengths and weaknesses). The theory suggests that an organisation must give more attention to its internal resources than the competitive environment (Das & Teng, 2000; Vomberg et al., 2015). Rumelt (1984,

p. 557) highlights that “a firm’s competitive position is defined by a bundle of unique resources and relationships”, which give an organisation a balance (Das & Teng, 2000). Through this, the focus is not on how customers can be offered more products and services but more on how more value can be created for customers through the utilisation of resources within the organisation. This does not suggest that companies should stop developing products, but suggests that in order to sustainably develop good products, a company needs good knowledge capabilities, and adequate management of resources used for the product development (Andersen, 2010; Panda & Reddy, 2016; Vomberg et al., 2015).

The theory has encouraged researchers to understand how resources affect the performance of an organisation as well as understanding why growth strategies of one firm may not be applicable to the next (Panda & Reddy, 2016). This is because most resources (e.g., employees’ inputs and commitments) in an organisation are specific to that organisation and not easy imitable (Das & Teng, 2000). Intangibles are generally more difficult to imitate and as a result, that makes them more valuable. The reason these may be difficult to imitate is because they usually result from social complexity or causal ambiguity, which is different from tangible resources. Socially complex resources often happen from relationships which are costly and difficult to imitate and as a result of this these types of relationships and processes, intangible resources give an organisation value (Clarke & MacDonald, 2019).

The understanding of the RBV is continually evolving; in the beginning two categories of resources were identified, namely, human capital and physical resources. The physical resources include raw materials, facilities, equipment, technology and natural resources, while human capital consists of the skills that employees possess (Vomberg et al., 2015). Organisational and financial resources have been included in the later versions of the RBV. Financial resources refer to the retained earnings or equity of an organisation and organisational resources are reporting systems, relationships, reputation, culture in the organisation and environment that an organisation benefits from (Chen, Zhao, Wang, Huang & Lee, 2017; Clarke & MacDonald, 2019).

In this study, the RBV is useful in recognising and studying the importance of employees, who are intangible resources, then understanding their attitudes and behaviours such as employee satisfaction, brand allegiance, endorsement, brand citizenship and ultimate brand commitment. How these resources are developed from the input the organisation provides is highlighted by the social exchange theory.

5.2.2 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The social exchange theory (SET) may be traced back as one of the oldest social behaviour theories (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001). It basically claims that interactions between people are an exchange of resources (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001). The SET assumes that relationships are maintained when parties expect that they will be rewarded for doing so (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001). Blau (1964) was one of the first to use the term "theory of social exchange" in explaining his concept "of social interaction as an exchange process" (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001, p.4). Thibaut and Kelley (1959) have been cited in literature on SET because they developed a concept that explains how different parties in a relationship weigh in on the benefits of the exchange relationship and this leads to them determining their commitment to a relationship. A study found that interdependence is important in a social exchange relationship because power imbalances cause instability in relationships (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001).

The SET can be used to explain workplace behaviour. One of the basic fundamentals of the SET is that with time, relationships evolve, leading to trust, loyalty and commitments. However, in order for those results to happen, there must be rules of exchange, to which parties abide (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, Chiniara, Bentein, Gebert, Heinitz & Buengeler, 2016). According to the SET, healthy relationships happen when they are viewed as fair, which results in employees feeling obligated to reciprocate through their behaviour (Roch, Shannon, Martin, Swiderski, Agosta & Shanock, 2019). Reciprocity can happen in multiple ways such as a transactional exchange between interdependent parties or beliefs and moral norms. Negotiated rules are explicit rules which are outlined by both parties; these include duties and obligations. These usually happen in the form of an economic exchange, e.g. when one accepts a job, they may feel the need to negotiate a salary while the employer may negotiate the tasks (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Chiniara, Bentein, Gebert, Heinitz & Buengeler, 2016).

Resources that are exchanged can be tangible or intangible. Tangible resources may be money/salaries or goods and intangible resources may be friendships or social amenities. While monetary rewards are important, social rewards like spiritual values, emotional satisfaction, the pursuit of personal advantage, and humanitarian ideals have been found to be valued more (Lambe et al., 2001).

In this study, it is proposed that IBM can be used to provide employees with brand related information (internal brand communication), conduct research on their needs and their work environment (internal market research), to give employees clarity on their roles, and management can play a role by supporting these employees. In return, an organisation aims to have employees who are satisfied and reciprocate through their behaviours, which help deliver the brand promise (EBBE benefits) and ultimately become committed to the organisation. This type of exchange can be explained by the social exchange theory, as organisations invest in IBM with the aim of getting outputs that help them achieve their goals. Employees also invest in the organisations, with the aim of receiving from the organisation.

5.2.3 Social Identity Theory

The social identity theory helps with explaining how people perceive themselves when they are part of a social group and the impact that those perceptions have on their opinions (Mangum & Block, 2017). According to the theory, people put themselves into groups or categories and believe the positive aspects of being part of that particular group. There are three components that are entailed in the theory and they are: social identification, social categorisation, and social comparison (Mangum & Block, 2017). An individual’s belief that they are part of a particular group comes as a result of comparing themselves to people in that particular group and those who are in other groups. Social identity involves a belief that one belongs to a particular group, behaving in similar ways to group members and the adoption of the views of the group (Mangum & Block, 2017). When looking at employees, the social identity theory helps with understanding how organisational identification influences employees to behave in ways that are aligned to a brand’s values (Buil et al., 2016). Organisational identification impacts how employees perform, their citizenship behaviours and their intentions to stay or leave an organisation (Lohndorf & Diamantopoulos, 2014). “Internal brand management is a key driver of employees' degree of identification with the employer by reflecting their perceptions of oneness" (Buil et al., 2016, p. 258). Therefore, organisations should use IBM to create work environments in which employees can identify with the organisation and actively partake in branding activities (Buil et al., 2016).

In summary, the RBV helps explain the importance of organisations effectively using all their resources, which include employees. Employees are resources and will contribute to the building of brand equity, provided that their contributions are regularly recognised and rewarded as suggested by the social exchange theory. The social exchange theory explains why it is important for employment relationships to have rules of exchange, which are mutually beneficial. If employees understand and get the expected benefits from their services, they would identify with the organizations they work for as suggested by the social identity theory. The theory explains the importance of employees being able to identify with an organisation and IBM can help create an environment that helps employees identify with the organisation. They will as a result, participate in activities that help build the organisation's brand. Considering the context of this study, which was the food service industry, only elements relevant to the context were selected from the three theories to achieve this study's objectives.

The next section discusses the models and frameworks that underpin this study.

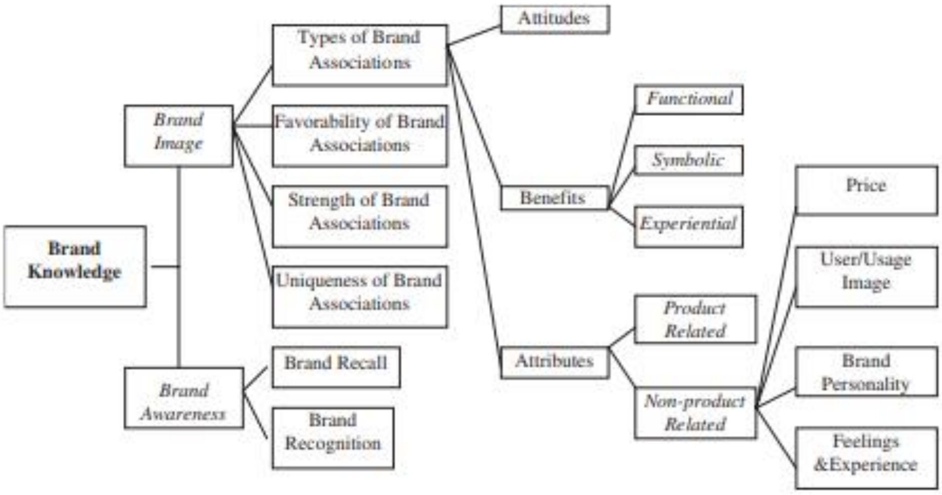
5.3 MODELS AND FRAMEWORKS UNDERPINNING THE STUDY

This section discusses the models and frameworks that guided the conceptual model of this study. Various models guided the conceptualisation, with the aim of better understanding EBBE and brand commitment. The models included King and Grace's (2009; 2010) EBBE models, Du Preez (2015) IBM model and Keller's (2013; 2020) brand resonance pyramid.

5.3.1 Keller's Customer-Based Brand Equity Framework

Keller (1993, p. 2) defines CBBE as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand". The main components of this are: "differential effect, brand knowledge and consumer response". Brand equity comes from what consumers have heard, seen, learned, and felt about a brand over time and this results in "brand knowledge" which then causes different responses from consumers. How consumers respond to the marketing activities reflects their differential response and that essentially is what makes up brand equity (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008). Keller (1998) proposes a brand equity model which is focused on brand knowledge. The model is presented in figure 5.1 and has two main components: brand awareness and brand image (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008, Jooste et al., 2012; Keller, 2013).

Figure 5.1: Keller's brand equity framework



Source: Kaynak, Salman and Tatoglu (2008, p.341)

Brand awareness is made up of brand recognition and brand recall, which both happen as a result of marketing activities. Brand recognition refers to the consumer's ability to remember a brand from prior exposure when they are given brand cues. Brand recall refers to consumers' ability to retrieve a brand from their memory when they are exposed to the product category or have to make a consumption or purchase decision in that particular category (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008; Jooste et al., 2012; Keller, 2013). Brand image comes as a result of the strength, favourability, uniqueness as well as the types of associations the consumer has in their mind related to a brand (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008). The strength of brand associations refers to when a consumer thinks deeply about product information then links it back to existing brand knowledge. Brand associations become strong when the information is relevant to a consumer and the information is presented consistently over time. The favourability of associations happens when consumers are convinced that a brand has important or relevant benefits (functional, symbolic or experiential) and attributes (product or non-product related) which can fulfil their needs and as a result, they form positive judgements about the brand. The uniqueness of brand associations refers to the compelling reason that a brand gives consumers to purchase it, this is their unique selling proposition or competitive advantage (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008; Keller, 2013). "For example, the brand may be linked to certain source factors, such as the company, countries or other geographical regions, and channels of distribution, as well as to other brands, characters, spokespeople, sporting or cultural events, causes, or some other third party sources (through awards or reviews). All of these different entities could have a myriad of different kinds of associations of potential value to leverage" (Keller, 2020, p.449). Most brands are likely to share some associations with other brands unless they have no competition (Keller, 2013).

Although CBBE is important, literature has highlighted the importance of a balanced approach towards marketing, which is an approach that focuses internally (employees) and externally (consumers). However, brand management and brand equity is still dominated by the consumer perspective, which is externally focused (King & Grace, 2010) yet "employees are crucial to building and maintaining brand–customer relationships, so managing employee behaviour is central to successful brand management" (Piehler et al., 2016, p.1576). Therefore, this study shifts the focus to EBBE but uses the CBBE approach of using brand knowledge to build brand equity, as suggested by Keller (1998).

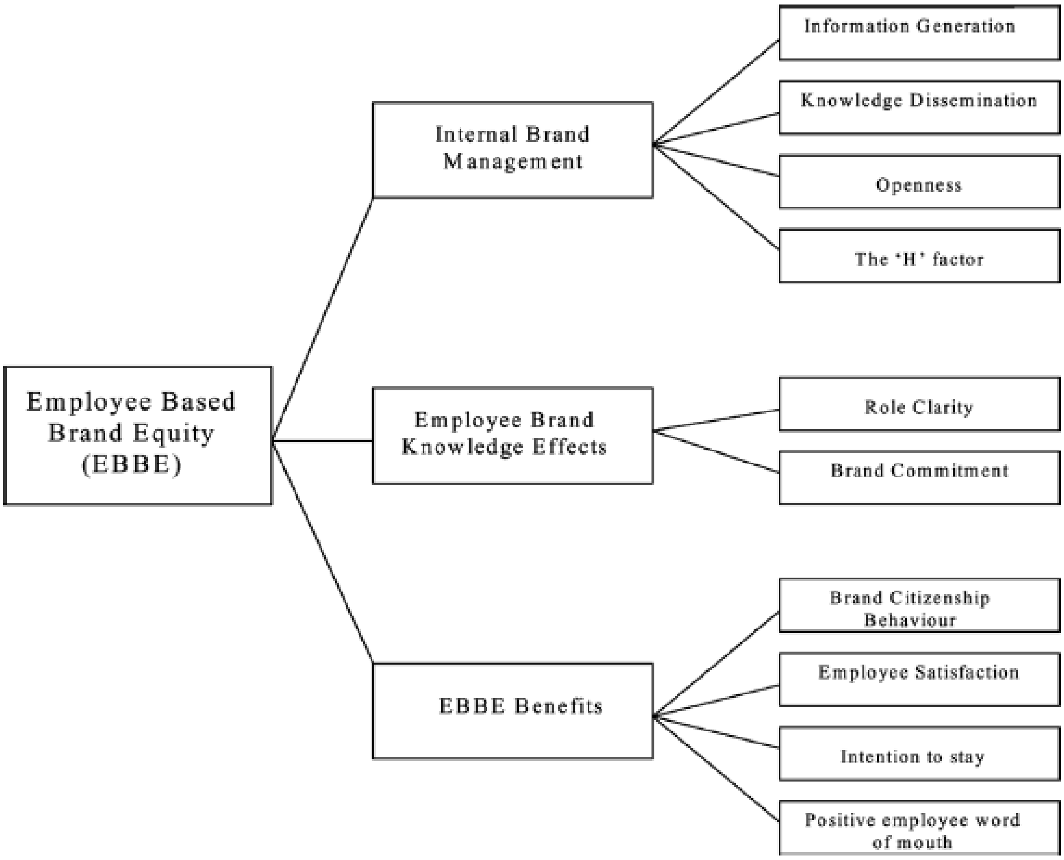
5.3.2 King and Grace's (2009; 2010) EBBE Models

Similar to how Keller (1993) defines CBBE, King and Grace (2009, p. 130) define EBBE as "the differential effect that brand knowledge has on an employee's response to their work environment". The authors propose that IBM leads to the enhancement of an employee's knowledge about a brand which results in the employee brand knowledge effects and these then lead to EBBE benefits (King et al., 2010). Figure 5.2 posits that the sources and benefits of EBBE can be understood from three core areas: IBM practices, brand knowledge effects and EBBE benefits (King et al., 2010). The EBBE sources are IBM practices such as openness, information generation, the human "H" factor and knowledge dissemination, all which lead to another set of sources called brand knowledge effects. The brand knowledge effects comprise employee of role clarity and employee brand commitment. When these are achieved, the EBBE benefits can be gained. The benefits include brand citizenship behaviour, brand endorsement, brand allegiance, and willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth by employees about the organisational brand (King et al., 2009; 2010).

Knowledge generation refers to the collection of information from employees. Knowledge dissemination allows employees to understand a brand's strategy and the rationale behind decisions made by management relating to consumers, service delivery and employees. This reduces their role ambiguity. The authors suggest that when employees have enough knowledge about their roles, they are then able to execute the role, which then leads to an employee's commitment to the organisation (King et al., 2010). Openness refers to the extent to which employees are receptive to dialogue from the organisation and happens through organisational specialisation, management support, employee involvement and attitudes towards their jobs. The "H" Factor refers to "the extent to which an employee perceives that the organisation treats them like a human being (e.g. with respect, is cooperative, communicates well, encourages working towards a common goal)" (King et al., 2010, p.949).

The strongest way in which employees affirm that they have a connection with a brand is through engagement and this engagement can be seen as one of EBBE benefits that an organisation gains through IBM activities, which enhance employee knowledge (King et al., 2009; 2010). King et al. (2010, p. 947) define the EBBE benefits as "employee exhibition of brand consistent intentions and actions, which incorporates brand citizenship behaviour, employee satisfaction, employee intention to stay and positive employee word-of-mouth about the organisation". The sources and benefits of EBBE are presented in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: King and Grace's (2009) EBBE model



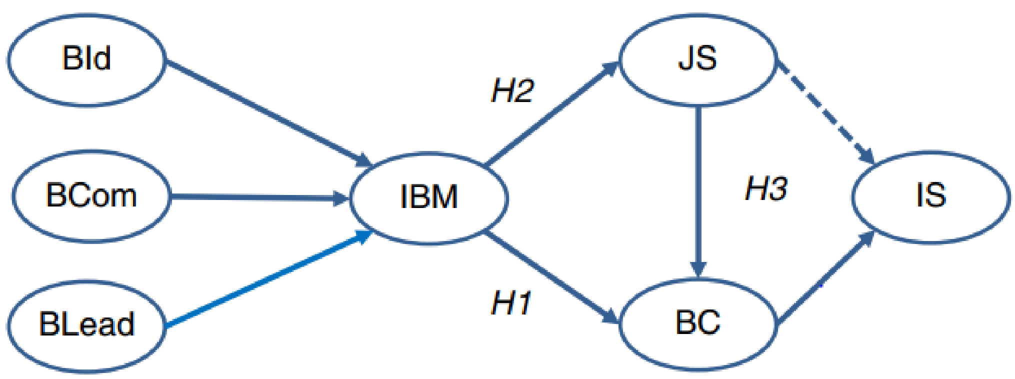
Source: King and Grace (2009, p.136)

Even though King and Grace's (2009; 2010) models are comprehensive, provide various sources and benefits of EBBE, from which the current study derives EBBE sources and benefits, they failed to consider that employees have to be satisfied first before the EBBE benefits can be gained. The studies by King and Grace (2009; 2010) propose employee satisfaction is a benefit of EBBE however, Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) suggest that employee satisfaction is a direct outcome of IBM activities. Bataineh et al., (2017) also argue that brand knowledge effects and EBBE benefits like citizenship behaviours should first lead to job satisfaction because it is only when employees are satisfied with their jobs that it will be harder for them to leave their place of employment (brand allegiance) and they will exhibit citizenship behaviours. This study therefore proposed that IBM will lead to employee satisfaction first, then lead to EBBE benefits.

5.3.3 Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) IBM model

Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) developed a model (figure 5.3) that measures the effect of IBM on job satisfaction, and the effect of job satisfaction on employee intention to stay. The model identifies the IBM practices as communicating brand related information to employees (internal brand communication), brand leadership and brand identity. The model suggests that once an organisation partakes in these IBM practices, it will lead to job satisfaction and brand commitment, which will then lead to employees' intention to stay in an organisation. Employee satisfaction is important because it leads to employees who are more productive and exhibit attitudes and behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation (Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014). Organisations that do not implement internal branding practices are found to struggle to satisfy employees because they are "less successful in shaping the necessary climate that enhances employee satisfaction" (Kanyurhi & Akonkwa, 2016, p.783). It should be noted that Du Preez and Bendixen (2015, p. 87) state that their "research was conducted in a single financial services firm in a single geographic location. In order to generalise the findings, further studies are required in different firms and different locations". Hence, this study borrowed Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) model and examined the extent to which IBM impacts employee satisfaction, brand commitment and brand allegiance in the food service industry of South Africa. However, the model only shows how employee satisfaction leads to one EBBE benefit (intention to stay/brand allegiance) and there are other EBBE benefits, the idea of these other relationships were sourced from King and Grace's (2009; 2010) model.

Figure 5.3: Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) IBM model



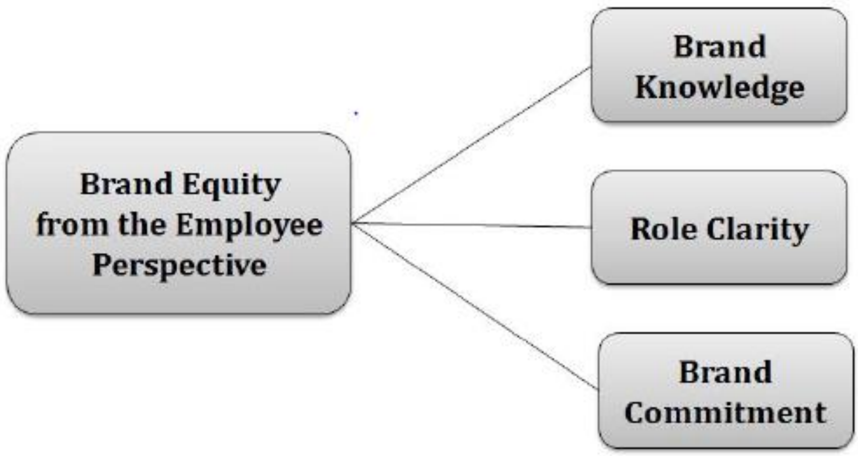
BId – Brand identity; BCom – Internal brand communication; Blead – Brand leadership

Source: Du Preez and Bendixen (2015, p.83)

5.3.4 Kwon's EBBE Model

Kwon (2013) adopted from King et al. (2010) and proposes a simplified model for EBBE, which identifies brand knowledge, brand commitment and role clarity as sources of EBBE. Brand knowledge plays a key role in creating brand equity as it creates the differential effect which leads to brand equity (Anantadjaya, Nawangwulan, Pramesty & Gunawan, 2015). Role clarity ensures that employees do not have role ambiguity (King & Grace, 2010; Anantadjaya et al., 2015). Brand commitment is attitudinal and shows the strength of the brand and this is often evident in an employee's psychological attachment to an organisation or brand (Anantadjaya et al., 2015). Kwon (2013) suggests that EBBE drives satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours. Kwon's (2013) EBBE sources are presented in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Kwon's (2013) EBBE model



Source: Kwon (2013, p.60)

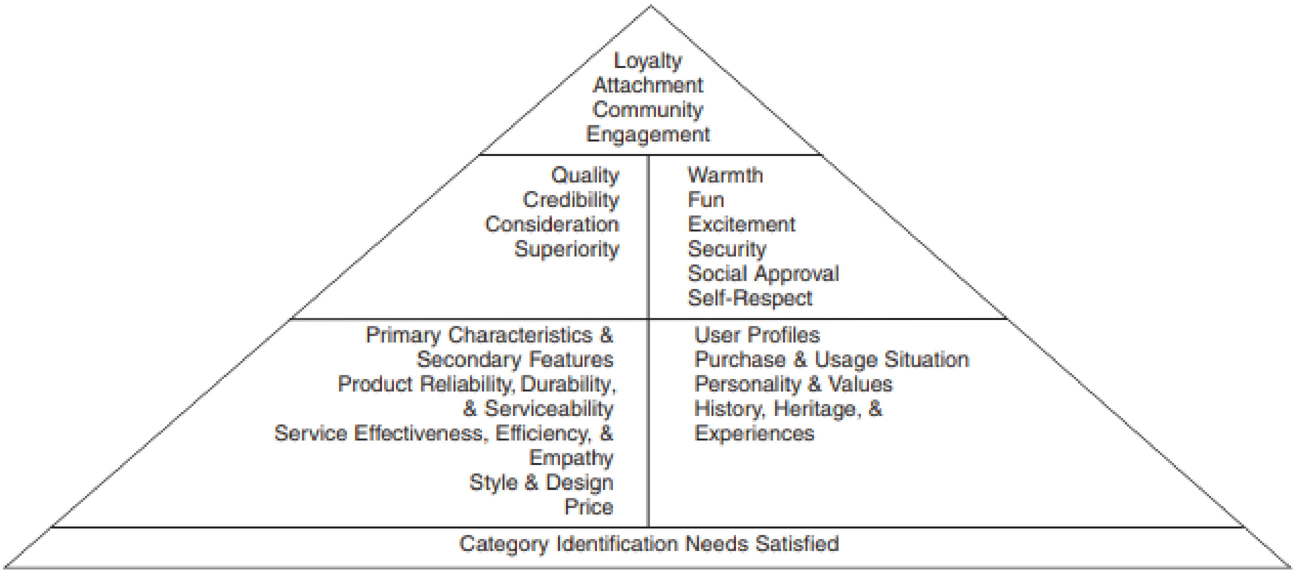
While Kwon (2013) views brand commitment as a source of EBBE, this current study considers brand commitment as an outcome of EBBE because it emerges after there is brand knowledge and role clarity. Keller (2013) also suggests that a brand needs to evoke consumer responses like feelings before they can resonate with a brand and become attached (commitment) to it. In the work context, employee satisfaction can be considered as a feeling because Dhaliwal and Rani (2020, p. 164) describe employee satisfaction as "the feeling of pleasure and achievement that the person experience in their job when he/she know that his/her work is worth doing, or the degree to which their work gives them this feeling".

5.3.5 Brand Resonance Pyramid

As presented in chapter 4, the brand resonance model proposes steps that can be followed to build a brand and each step is dependent on the achievement of objectives in the previous step (Keller, 2013). “The Brand Resonance Model is a structured model aimed at managing the brand equity value through steps formed by the six blocks of the Brand Resonance, helping marketers to make better decisions” (Moura, Ferreira, de Oliveira & da Silveira Cunha, 2019, p.10). The model, which is presented in figure 5.5, is based on the attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs of consumers in measuring the strength of a brand. Each step requires managers to decide on the knowledge that they would like to impart to consumers (Keller, 2013). The first step involves creating identification related to the product. The second step involves creating brand meaning by linking a brand to intangible and tangible associations. This will result in the third step, which is consumers responding to a brand through judgements and feelings about a brand. The final step is brand resonance, which is the relationship that a brand forms with consumers and results from the brand responses. Consumers show their resonance through their loyalty, attachment (commitment) to the brand, sense of community and actively engaging with the brand (Keller, 2001; Keller, 2013; Moura et al., 2019).

Although the resonance pyramid proposes steps for building CBBE and not EBBE, this study uses ideas from the pyramid and proposes organisational brand commitment as an outcome of EBBE as the brand resonance model suggests that loyalty and attachments form at the end of the brand building process.

Figure 5.5: Sub-dimensions of Keller's CBBE pyramid

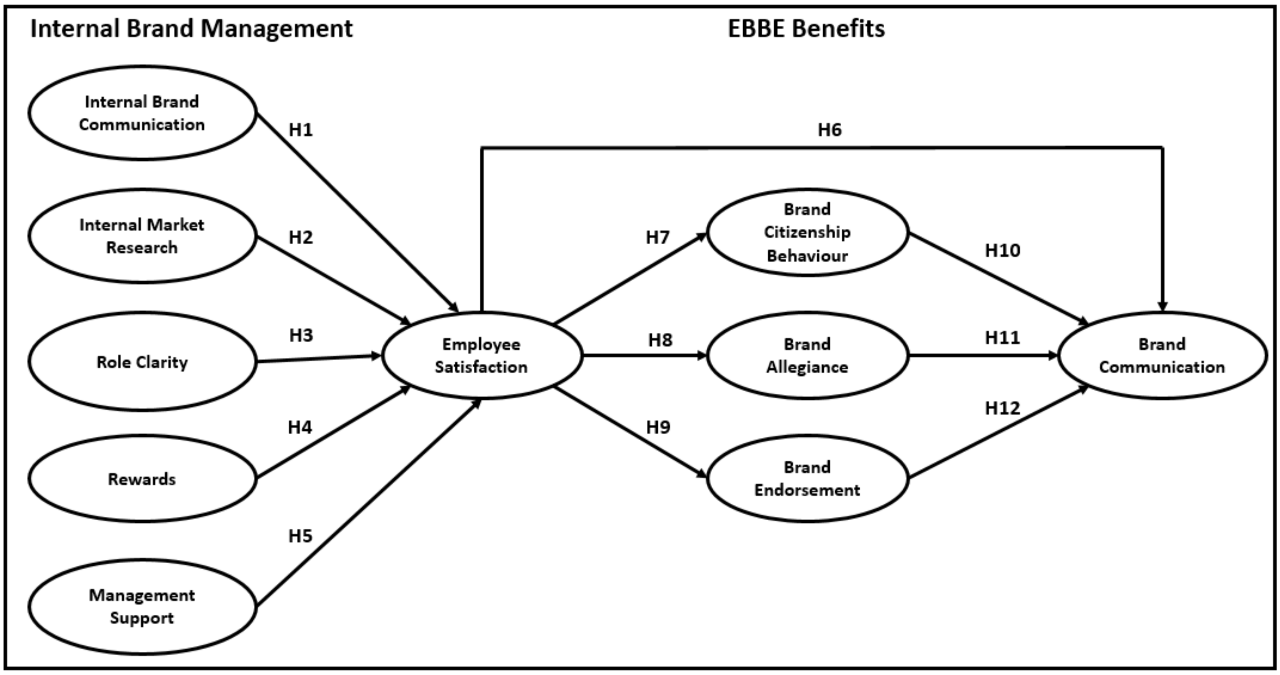


Source: Keller (2001, p.8)

5.4 DEVELOPMENT OF THIS STUDY'S CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

This study integrated ideas and aspects of the models from King and Grace (2009; 2010), Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) and the brand resonance model to develop its conceptual model. Many of the IBM and EBBE constructs adopted in this study were adopted from King and Grace (2009; 2010). Employee satisfaction was proposed as an outcome of IBM and predictor of brand commitment and EBBE benefits. Additionally, brand commitment was proposed as an outcome of EBBE benefits. The conceptual model is shown in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: The conceptual model for this study



Source: compiled by researcher and guided by ideas from King and Grace (2009; 2010) and Du Preez and Bendixen (2015).

Figure 5.6, which is the conceptual model, proposes that IBM elements: internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards and management support will positively impact employee satisfaction. Employee satisfaction will then impact brand commitment and EBBE benefits: brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement. The EBBE benefits will then result in brand commitment. From these proposals, the following hypotheses were formulated:

5.4.1 The relationship between internal brand communication and employee satisfaction

Traditional marketing tools such as personal selling and advertising are commonly used to communicate with customers. The same communication can also be directed to organisational employees (King et al., 2009; Du Preez et al., 2015. Internal brand communication is commonly used in IBM (King et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2015; Du Preez et al., 2015; Kim, Song & Lee, 2016; Haider & Akbar, 2017) and has been found as the most important contributor in IBM (Du Preez et al., 2015).

Internal brand communication aims to give employees information about the goals and policies of the organisation as well as their merits. Internal communication can happen between the different parties in the organisation, including teams, project groups, individual employees, as well as line managers. Internal communication creates effectiveness in the organisation by allowing information to be transferred between the different members of the organisation and this creates organisational effectiveness (King et al., 2010). When communication is open, it includes listening and providing feedback and as a result, facilitates decision-making, it builds, as well as maintains relationships, and it allows employees to express their opinions freely and also provides adequate information, which can lead to employee satisfaction (Jacobs, Wantao & Chavez, 2015; Kim, Song & Lee, 2016; Haider & Akbar, 2017). Rafiq and Ahmed (2000) highlight that managers need to communicate strategies and objectives to employees in order for them to understand their roles and the importance of implementing organisational strategies. The role of communication can also assist in any difficulties faced by employees in their tasks as employees know to whom to report (Alshurideh, Alhadeed & Barween, 2015).

Although internal communication has been highlighted as important to employees and their satisfaction, employees are commonly treated as receivers of information when they should also be senders and active in the communication process. Management research has shown that employees at all levels should be informed about key issues as this will enable them to contribute towards the success of the organisation, increase their productivity and lead to employee satisfaction (Jacobs, Wantao & Chavez, 2015). Men (2014) found that transformational leaders were good at internal communication because they focus on listening, being open, providing feedback and participating in relationships with employees. They are open to receiving feedback, they allow employees to take part in decision making, they care about the well-being of employees and they interact with employees in order to understand their needs. This type of communication was found to have an impact on employee behaviours and attitudes, organisational commitment, loyalty, task performance, satisfaction with the leader and employee satisfaction (Men, 2014). In the airline industry, and among Chinese flight attendants, Huang et al., (2019) also found that internal communication positively impacted employee satisfaction.

Based on the discussed findings, it is hypothesised that:

H1 – There is a positive relationship between internal brand communication and employee satisfaction.

5.4.2 The relationship between internal market research and employee satisfaction

Business market research represents an important tool which is used to understand customer needs, their wants and the different customers which exist. Internal market research plays a similar role, the only difference is that it is used to understand employees and factors that affect their relationships with the organisation (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003; King & Grace, 2009; Huang et al., 2019). Organisations need to be aware of the different employees which exist in their organisations and their needs, in order to be able to produce messages which have meaning for the employees (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003; Huang et al., 2019). This can result in satisfied employees (Lings, 2004). Internal market research can assist with understanding how to implement marketing and human resource management strategies (Ahmed et al., 2003; Lings, 2004). Internal market research can address issues on how inter-functional co-ordination can be achieved, the need of relationship marketing and develop organisational competencies (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003).

Huang et al. (2014) study looked at the impact of internal marketing factors: internal communication, training and internal market research, and the study found that internal market research leads to employee satisfaction. This is because when internal marketing research is conducted regularly, organisations can then develop marketing programmes which help address the demands and expectations of employees (Huang et al., 2014; King & Grace, 2009). These would lead to their satisfaction as Huang et al. (2019) also found. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H2 – There is a positive relationship between internal market research and employee satisfaction.

5.4.3 The relationship between role clarity and employee satisfaction

Role clarity refers to the level of clarity that employees have as a result of having knowledge (King et al., 2010). Role clarity is important in any organisation as it is a predictor of outputs such as turnover, employee commitment and employee satisfaction. When an employee has role clarity, he/she is able to do their tasks because he/she has high quality knowledge and information needed to fulfil their tasks (Bataineh et al., 2017). When employees experience role ambiguity, it can lead to negative outcomes like stress, tension and anxiety (Bataineh et al., 2017; Green & Rossler, 2019). This then leads to a lack of: satisfaction, performance, job interest and commitment (Bataineh et al., 2017).

Various studies have looked at the impact of role clarity on employee satisfaction. According to Akhtar and Zia-ur-Rehman (2017), a study by Barbakus et al. (1999) found that role ambiguity and conflict leads to employee dissatisfaction and high employee turnover. Green and Rossler (2014) conducted a study which found that when crime analysts have role clarity, it leads to employee satisfaction, especially when their patrol officer colleagues understand what the role of a crime analyst is. Bataineh et al*.* (2017) conducted a study amongst academic employees and found that role clarity leads to their satisfaction, which then leads to organisational citizenship behaviours.

From these discussions, it is hypothesised that:

H3 – Role clarity will positively impact employee satisfaction.

5.4.4 The relationship between rewards and employee satisfaction

Compensation/rewards refer to a strategy which organisations use in order to motivate employees. These rewards are mainly linked to behaviours desired by the organisation (Kim, Song & Lee, 2016; Rony & Suki, 2017). Rewards can include benefits, pay, location of the company and good working conditions. These rewards can result in employee motivation, engagement in the workplace, productivity, employee satisfaction and intentions to stay, which are outcomes of good internal marketing programmes (Rony & Suki, 2017). Rewards can help with bringing about positive change in an organisation and improving the performance of employees. For employees to be satisfied, managers need to understand their needs and desires and then offer them rewards which will lead to their satisfaction. Employees who are rewarded are committed, highly engaged, and satisfied with their work environment (Akbar, Riaz, Arif & Hayat, 2017).

Bayissa and Zewdie (2010) conducted a study in the education sector, which looked at different kinds of rewards and how they affect employee satisfaction. The study found that rewards like recognition, participation in decision making, and job freedom, affect employee satisfaction. Ahmad et al. (2010) looked at monetary and non-monetary rewards and their outcomes. The study found that non-monetary rewards had a significant relationship with job satisfaction. Rast and Tourani's (2012) study found that relationships, pay, supervision, the job itself and promotion opportunities had a positive relationship with employee satisfaction. Tausif's (2012) study also found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and non-financial rewards. The positive relationship between rewards and satisfaction was also found among older employees (Akbar, Riaz, Arif & Hayat, 2017). Based on the discussed findings, it is hypothesised that:

H4 – The relationship between rewards and employee satisfaction will be positive.

5.4.5 The relationship between management support and employee satisfaction

Management support is important in the relationship between employees and organisations. It is the appreciation of the work produced by employees as well as concerns about employee well-being (Li, Kim & Zhao, 2017). Better relationships with employees happen through management support because employees have good perceptions about the organisation's support and they form more attachments with the organisation. These can lead them to perform better, become satisfied with their jobs and remain in the organisation (Kim, Leong & Lee, 2005). Li, Kim and Zhao (2017) highlight that employees who perceive management to support them are often more committed to an organisation and are more satisfied with their jobs. Employees have high levels of satisfaction when management provides them with opportunities to develop new skills, continuously gives them opportunities to learn and coaches them. Recognizing employees and responding to their needs and aspirations are also forms of management support, which lead to employee satisfaction (Park & Kim, 2018). From these discussions, it is hypothesised that:

H5 – There is a positive relationship between management support and employee satisfaction.

5.4.6 The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment

Employee attitudes like trust, job satisfaction and commitment are important constructs in organisational behaviour. These constructs play a role in the way employees are motivated, perform their tasks, and think critically. They also help with understanding organisational outcomes such as, productivity, the quality of work delivered, employee effectiveness and performance management (Gider, Akdere & Mehmet, 2019).

Brand commitment has been found to have a link with employee satisfaction; this is because committed employees are willing to put in extra effort, and they have a strong belief in the goals and values of the organisation and commonly have the desire to stay in the organisation (Porter, Steers & Mowday, 1974; Fu, Deshpande & Zhao, 2011; Taboli & Soltani, 2014; Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017). Committed employees are present, arrive at work on time, stay employed by an organisation and engage in behaviours which benefit the organisation. However, when employees become dissatisfied because they perceive their needs are not met, they reduce their commitment and become attracted to other organisations (Ocen, Francis & Angundaru, 2017). Employees who are satisfied with their organisation commonly view the organisational brand as fair. This tends to lead them to become committed to the brand (Jahangir, Akbar & Begum, 2006). The advantage of this is that employees who are satisfied with their organisational brands are unwilling to change organisations, which then provides the organisation with a competitive advantage (Koh & Boo, 2004).

De Menezes (2012) found a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and employee commitment. A study by Eleswed and Mohammed (2013) also found that satisfied employees become committed to an organisation. Fu and Deshpande (2014) conducted a study, which found that supportive work environments have a positive impact on employee satisfaction, which then leads to employee commitment. Fabi, Lacoursière and Raymond (2015) have also proven that employee satisfaction has an impact on employee commitment and intention to leave or stay in an organisation. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H6 – Employee satisfaction will positively impact employee brand commitment.

5.4.7 The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand citizenship behaviour

Managers are constantly looking for ways to provide consumers with reassuring messages about their brands. Brand citizenship behaviours have been identified as a source of the reassurance and the satisfaction of customers. Through BCB, employees make voluntary decisions which are not part of the job description and these include an employee's willingness to help, focus on future development as well as brand enthusiasm (Nouri, Mousavi & Soltani, 2016). It is important for organisations to focus on motivating and satisfying employees as this plays a key role in attracting, retaining and developing employees' BCB (Jayampathi & Dissanayake, 2018).

According to the SET, employees who perceive an organisation to be caring and supportive exhibit BCB. Therefore, if organisations support and take care of their employees, this will lead to their satisfaction, which will then have an impact on their BCB (Chang et al., 2012). Satisfaction can be seen through employees displaying positive feelings and a good mood in the work environment (Ghenaatgar & Jalali, 2016). Ghenaatgar and Jalali (2016) found that satisfaction leads to BCB. Handayani, Herwany and Handayani (2019) conducted a study amongst bank employees, which also found that employee satisfaction leads to BCB.

Based on the discussed findings, it is hypothesised that:

H7 – There is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and brand citizenship behaviour.

5.4.8 The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand allegiance

Brand allegiance is "the future intention of employees to remain with the organisation (brand)" (Kashive et al., 2017, p.217). Brand allegiance is important for organisations because employees who have a high level of loyalty towards the organisation are willing to work hard to ensure that an organisation succeeds (Poulis et al., 2016). Multiple factors have been identified as factors that affect an employee's intention to stay in an organisation, these include an employee's commitment, organisational values, investment, goodness of fit and the organisation's turnover. Additionally, the decision to stay in an organisation is influenced by employee satisfaction, which is driven by compensation, supervision and the relationship with co-workers (Brown &

Yoshioka, 2003). The higher an employee's satisfaction with the job, the higher their intention to stay will be (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Fullerton, 2005). This was also highlighted by Fauzi and Hashim (2017), who argued that an employee's intention to stay reflects their loyalty towards an organisation and this is influenced by the employee's satisfaction and commitment. Organisations need to improve employees' satisfaction through good employment practices in order to retain those employees (Fauzi & Hashim, 2017).

Du Preez et al. (2015) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and an employee's intention to stay in an organisation. Asgarnezhad, Ebrahimpour and Feizi (2017) conducted a study at a university and found that internal branding (internal communication and training) has a positive relationship to employee satisfaction, which then leads to an employee's intention to stay in an organisation. Amongst nurses, Andresen, Hansen and Grov (2017) found that satisfaction had an impact on their intention to stay or leave the job. Zamir (2019) conducted a study in the financial services industry of Bangladesh and found that there is a positive relationship between an employee's satisfaction and their intention to stay. Considering the willingness to stay will contribute to supporting the organisation's brand, it is hypothesised that:

H8 – Employee satisfaction has a positive impact on brand allegiance.

5.4.9 The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand endorsement

Brand endorsement refers to the extent to which employees are willing to say good things about an organisation (brand) (Poulis et al., 2016). A positive view of an organisation often comes as a result of feeling an emotional bond with the organisation and a sense of belonging. Employee brand endorsements benefit an organisation by decreasing recruitment costs and increasing performance (Kashive et al., 2017). Employees who are satisfied with an organisation show their loyalty and satisfaction by sharing positive word-of-mouth. These employees will paint the organisation in a positive light and are likely to recommend the offerings of the organisation and spread positive information to their colleagues, family and friends (King & Grace, 2010; Haghighikhah et al., 2016). Based these discussions, it is hypothesised that:

H9 – There is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and brand endorsement.

5.4.10 The relationship between brand citizenship behaviour and brand commitment

Employees who are committed to their organisational brand tend to have the desire to reciprocate through supporting the organisation and exhibiting behaviours which are beyond their specified job requirements. Such behaviours include BCB (King et al., 2012).These types of behaviours cannot be overlooked as they are essential for organisational productivity and organisations cannot always predict all the behaviours that are necessary for a brand's success. Employees who are committed to a brand are most likely to be the ones to engage in BCB, which are critical as they lead to employees offering superior service and gaining the trust of consumers (King et al., 2012; Wallace, Chernatony & Buil, 2013). Chinomona (2016) suggests that when employees feel that the organisation is fair towards them, they are likely to reciprocate by exhibiting citizenship behaviours, which lead to their commitment to the organisation. The author conducted a study which found that citizenship behaviours of employees led to their commitment. The findings support a study by Kumaran and Sivasubramanian (2013), which found citizenship behaviours to have a positive relationship with the commitment of employees. Thus, it can be hypothesised that:

H10 – There is a positive relationship between brand citizenship behaviour and brand commitment.

5.4.11 The relationship between brand allegiance and brand commitment

Brand commitment affects the way in which an employee identifies with an organisation and their involvement in the organisation. Brand allegiance and brand commitment have an effect on each other (Ekhsan, 2019). Studies that have looked at the relationship between commitment and retention have mainly found a positive link. This is because individuals who feel attached to a brand tend to be committed to the brand which then affects their intention to stay (Fullerton, 2005). Du Preez and Bendixen (2015) highlight that brand commitment has a positive relationship with employee intention to stay in an organisation. The intention not to stay in an organisation is largely influenced by the lack of commitment and the feelings of stress by the employee. When an employee has positive feelings such as liking and pleasure when interacting with an organisational brand, this will lead to them intending to stay, which then results in commitment (Evanschitzky, Iyer, Plassmann, Niessing, & Meffert, 2006). Keller (2013) states that individuals need to understand the meaning of a brand, as then, that will affect their responses to a brand and ultimately lead to loyalty or attachment; based on this, it is hypothesised that:

H11 – There is a positive relationship between brand allegiance and brand commitment

5.4.12 The relationship between brand endorsement and brand commitment

Brand commitment has been found to play a key role in relationship marketing because individuals who are committed to a brand are more willing to recommend the brand to others or reassure others about the brand (Okazaki, 2008). Endorsements are particularly important in the services sector because there is a degree of perceived risk as people often cannot test a service before using it (Markovic, Iglesias, Singh & Sierra, 2018). Endorsements play a role in spreading information from one person to the next and have been found to be an important form of marketing. When individuals perceive a brand in a positive light, they participate in positive feedback because they believe in the brand and are connected to the brand; this is also reflected in their attitudes and behaviours. (East, Hammond, & Lomax, 2008; Tuškej, Golob & Podnar, 2013). When employees advocate for a brand, they tend to focus on all the positive aspects of the brand and subconsciously ignore the negative elements. This drives the employee to have a positive attitude towards the brand/organisation (Sun, Ayoun & Calhoun, 2013). Based on these discussions, it is hypothesised that:

H12 - There is a positive relationship between employee brand endorsements and brand commitment.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed theories and frameworks that were useful in developing the conceptual model for this study. Some of the models and frameworks which guided the development of the conceptual model and hypotheses in this study included those of King and Grace (2009; 2010), Keller's brand resonance model and Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) IBM model. In the next chapter, the research design and methodology which was used to test the conceptual model and hypotheses is discussed.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the methods used to collect and analyse the data that was collected to test the conceptual model and hypotheses proposed in chapter 5. The research philosophy and approach is discussed first. This is followed by a discussion and justification of the research strategy. Thereafter, the data collection and analysis methods are discussed.

6.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

A research philosophy is a system of assumptions and beliefs about the development of knowledge. It refers to what one does when one embarks on research and developing knowledge in a field (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). It is used to represent the norms, standards, value judgements, frame of reference, ideologies, theories, myths, perspectives as well as procedures which govern the thinking and actions of a researcher (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). A philosophy represents the way in which a researcher sees the world and how they go about investigating the world. It "encompasses a theoretical structure comprised of a network of conceptual, theoretical and instrumental commitments" (Tien, 2009, 243).

Throughout a research study, the researcher makes assumptions which can be conscious or unconscious and "these include (but are not limited to) assumptions about the realities you encounter in your research (ontological assumptions), about human knowledge (epistemological assumptions), and about the extent and ways your own values influence your research process (axiological assumptions)" (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007, p.130). The different assumptions affect how a researcher understands research questions, the methods chosen and how the findings are interpreted. The more well thought out and consistent the assumptions are, the more credible a research philosophy will be (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Table 6.1 presents four paradigms and their assumptions. These include positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism and the critical theory Tien, 2009).

Table 6.1: Philosophical assumptions

	Positivism	Post-positivism	Interpretivism	Critical theory
Ontology: What is the nature of reality?	Reality is static and fixed The world is ordered according to an overarching objective truth		Reality is subjective and changing There is no one ultimate truth	Reality may be objective but truth is continually contested by competing groups
Epistemology: What is the nature of knowledge?	Objective, generalisable theory can be developed to accurately describe the world Knowledge can be neutral or value-free	Objective knowledge of the world is not necessarily fully accessible Seeks to establish 'probable' truth	Knowledge is subjective There are multiple, diverse interpretations of reality There is no one ultimate or 'correct' way of knowing	Knowledge is co-constructed between individuals and groups Knowledge is mediated by power relations and therefore continuously under revision
Methodology: What is the nature of the approach to research?	The aim is to discover what exists through prediction and control Theory is established deductively Uses scientific method to develop abstract laws to describe and predict patterns Looks for causality and fundamental laws	Seeks to develop knowledge through the falsification of hypotheses Emphasis on well-defined concepts and variables, controlled conditions, precise instrumentation and empirical testing	Focus on understanding Uses inductive reasoning Meaning is constructed in the researcher–participant interaction in the natural environment Gathers diverse interpretations (e.g. grounded theory, ethnography)	Focus on emancipation Research is used to envision how things could change for the better Seeks representation of diverse and under-represented views Characterised by continual redefinition of problems and cooperative interaction (e.g. action research)
Methods: What techniques can be used to gather this information?	Tends to use quantitative methods, often including statistical testing of hypotheses (e.g. randomised controlled trials, questionnaires)	Quantitative and qualitative methods: systematically gathered and analysed data from representative samples (e.g. surveys, interviews, focus groups)	Tends to use qualitative methods to capture various interpretations of a phenomenon (e.g. naturalistic observation, interviews, use of narrative)	May use both quantitative and qualitative methods, usually in a participatory way Often uses iterative research design (e.g. case studies, focus groups, participant observation)

Source: Bunniss and Kelly (2010, p.44)

Paradigms are often discussed in terms of two philosophies: interpretivism and positivism. They both use their own ways to look at social reality and they use different strategies for investigating the world, both these are valid and valuable (Tien, 2009).

6.2.1 Positivism

In many sociological studies, especially those related to business and management, the word "positivist" is often used to emphasise an objective epistemology which seeks to predict and explain the events of the social world through looking for regularities and causal relationships between constituent elements. This paradigm assumes that the phenomenon that is being studied and the investigator have an independent relationship and knowledge is gained through verified hypotheses (Su, 2018). Positivism is a research strategy that is rooted on the ontological principle and doctrine that reality and truth is independent of the observer (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). The positivism approach is often used in quantitative research and it emphasises that real and factual events can be studied and observed scientifically and can be elucidated by investigation and analysis (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). The positivist paradigm uses scientific and empirical studies and observations in order to understand factual, real and genuine happenings (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). Although the results come from scientific methods and experiments, they give important knowledge and insights into the world of truth or realism (Tien, 2009; Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014).

6.2.2 Interpretivism

The interpretivist paradigm concerns intersubjectivity and subjectivity. The ontology reflects cultural influence, lived experienced and meaning, while it acknowledges that there is potential for various realities (Kelly, Dowling & Millar, 2018). Some of the methods and methodologies used within this paradigm include hermeneutics, phenomenology and interactionism and within these methods, there are various methods that can be used (Kelly, Dowling & Millar, 2018). Ryan (2018) highlights that the values and beliefs of a researcher can never be completely separate for a study and as a result, this has an impact on how data is collected, interpreted and analysed.

This paradigm is "informed by a concern to understand the world as it is, to understand the fundamental nature of the social world at the level of subjective experience" (Tien, 2009, p.245). The interpretivist paradigm focuses on understanding the meaning behind something. With this approach, the researcher uses his or her skills to understand the world, and the knowledge is constructed through mutual negotiation (O'Donoghue, 2018). The approach essentially reflects "subjective understanding and the need to interpret it" (Hovorka & Lee, 2010, p 4). The researcher's role is to interpret the subjective stance and what is inherent is that the researcher's experiences has the potential to shape the interpretations (Hovorka & Lee, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, the positivist paradigm was adopted as the "positivist focus on strictly scientific empiricist method designed to yield pure data and facts uninfluenced by human interpretation or bias" (Saunders, 2007, p.144). This approach allows for a researcher to state hypotheses then the relationship between independent and dependent variables can be tested. The research is objective, it can be generalisable and quantitative results can be gained (Bunniss & Kelly, 2010). The next section discusses the research approach adopted in this study.

6.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

The majority of researchers use deductive or inductive reasoning when they conduct research. Deductive reasoning is used to deduce from hypotheses while inductive reasoning is used to search for patterns in particular data (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). The inductive approach moves from a specific topic to the general, while the deductive approach starts as general then becomes more specific (Ormerod, 2010). In an inductive research approach, the arguments are based on observation or experience, while in a deductive research approach the arguments are based on rules, laws or other principles (Ormerod, 2010). It has been argued that deductive researchers work from top down as they start from theory then move to hypotheses then empirical data, while inductive researchers start from bottom up. They use the views of participants to build broad themes and build theory through these interconnecting themes. The two main types of analyses used in these approaches are quantitative (deductive) and qualitative (inductive) (Ormerod, 2010). Table 6.2 gives a comparison of qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

Table 6.2: Quantitative and Qualitative approaches

Orientation	Quantitative Approach	Qualitative Approach
Paradigm/Worldview (assumption about world)	Positivism/Realism	Interpretivism/Idealism
Research Purpose (rationale)	Numerical description Causal explanation Prediction	Subjective description Empathetic understanding Exploration
Ontology (nature of reality)		
Epistemology (theory of knowledge)	Dualist/Objectivist	Subjectivist
Methodology (aims of scientific investigation)	Experimental/Manipulative	Hermeneutical/Dialectical
Research Methods (techniques and tools)	Empirical examination Measurement Hypothesis testing Randomization Blinding Structured protocols Questionnaires	Ethnographies Case studies Narrative research Interviews Focus group discussion Observations Field notes Recordings & Filmings
Scientific Method (role of theory)	Deductive approach, testing of theory	Inductive approach, generation of theory
Nature of Data Instruments	Variables Structured and Validated-data collection instruments	Words, images, categories In-depth interviews, participant observation, field notes, and open-ended questions
Data Analysis	Identify statistical relationships among variables	Use descriptive data, search for patterns, themes ad holistic features and appreciate variations
Results	Generalizable findings	Particularistic findings; provision of insider viewpoint
Final Report	Formal statistical report with: • Correlations • Comparisons of means • Reporting of statistical significance of findings	Informal narrative report

Source: Antwi and Hamza (2015, p.222)

As presented in Table 6.2, there are two main types of methods for data collection: quantitative and qualitative methods. In a quantitative research, a researcher knows what he/she is looking for prior to collecting the data and the different aspects of the study are designed before the data is collected. The researchers are generally objective, separated from the study and it is assumed that reality is observed (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). The researchers try to always remain neutral and to avoid bias when undertaking a quantitative study (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). The tools which are used to collect quantitative data include standardised questionnaires, which is the equipment used to collect data which comes in a form of statistics or numbers or quantitative measuring tools (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). In quantitative research, it is often important to state the hypotheses then test them with empirical data in order to see if they are supported or not (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). While quantitative data allows for the testing of hypotheses, it can have limited contextual detail (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015).

Qualitative research aims to understand aspects of social life and the methods used are generally through generating words rather than numbers for data analysis. It aims to understand the attitudes as well as the experiences of individuals (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). The personality of the researcher as well as his/her integrity is important in qualitative research, which is contrary to quantitative research because it is the researcher's responsibility to ensure the quality of the process and then be responsible for the interpretation (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Qualitative researchers usually conduct their studies in natural settings or they attempt to interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning which is brought about by people. They use a variety of ways to collect data and these include case studies, interviews, observations, artefacts, personal experiences, introspection, life stories, cultural texts and productions as well as historical, interactional and visual texts (Mertens, 2014).

The third approach is the mixed method approach. Creswell, Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003, p. 165) define the mixed method study as a study that "… involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research". This approach allows researchers to answer exploratory and confirmatory questions and the different perspectives which are produced by the qualitative and quantitative data help give a complete picture in a research study. In a mixed approach it is possible for the outcomes from the qualitative and quantitative research to be different and this gives an opportunity for introspection or further research (Lund, 2012).

The methodologies which are frequently used when adopting positivism include: confirmatory analysis, nomothetic experiments, laboratory experiments, quantitative analysis and deduction (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). For the purpose of this study, the deductive approach was used, because it assessed the explanatory capabilities of theories and models, derived hypotheses from them, and tested the hypotheses as recommended by Woiceshyn and Daellenbach (2018). With a deductive approach, "authors are expected to start their papers with substantial introductions, justifying their theoretical starting points and the hypotheses they have deduced" (Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018, p.186). This study followed Woiceshyn and Daellenbach's (2018) recommendation by first justifying the use of the theories and models applied before developing hypotheses. Considering that this study uses a deductive approach whereby relationships between constructs were to be tested, and a dependent construct needed to be predicted, a quantitative method of data collection was deemed appropriate for this study. The next section discusses the research design adopted.

6.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a framework for the activities in a marketing research process. It indicates the data that is required, the plan for sampling and methods that will be used for the collection and analysis of data (Wiid & Diggins, 2015). Blaikie (2009, p. 15) defines it as "…an integrated statement of, and justification for, the technical decisions involved in planning a research project". Design and planning plays a role in helping eliminate mistakes and inaccuracies. The research designs help structure a research study in order to increase the validity of the findings from the research. It is an essential step in a research project because it outlines the procedures that need to be followed by the researcher in order to achieve the objectives of the research and solve the problem that the research project aims to solve (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). There are different types of research designs that can be used and these include: exploratory, descriptive, and causal studies. Table 6.3 is a comparison of the different research designs.

Table 6.3: Research designs

Design	Uses	Type
Exploratory	• Formulate problems more precisely • Develop hypothesis • Establish research priorities • Eliminate impractical ideas • Clarify concept	• Secondary data analysis • Experience Survey • Pilot studies • Case studies
Descriptive	• Describe characteristics of certain groups • Estimate proportion of people in a population who behave a certain way • Make specific predictions	• Longitudinal studies • Cross-sectional studies
Causal	Provide evidence about the causal relationship between variables by means of: • Concomitant variation • Time order in which variable occurs • Eliminations of other possible explanations	• Laboratory experiments • Field experiments

Source: Wiid and Diggins (2010, p.57)

Exploratory studies explore areas which are not well known. Exploratory research "consists of an attempt to discover something new and interesting, by working your way through a topic" (Ralyté & Léonard, 2020, p.17). This type of research is necessary when there is more information that is required to understand a phenomenon or there is an opportunity, especially if the collection of data will contribute to meaningful research questions (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). The studies are commonly conducted when there is a topic that has not been previously researched or new ideas need to be explored about an existing topic (Ralyté & Léonard, 2020). The main objective of exploratory research is to get insights and develop an understanding, rather than replicate or collect accurate data (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). However, this type of research can be risky because the researcher cannot know in advance if anything ground-breaking will come out of it (Ralyté & Léonard, 2020). Exploratory studies commonly involve conducting in-depth interviews, using sources and analysing case studies. The methods which are used to conduct exploratory research include secondary data (using existing relevant data), experience research (interviewing people with experience of a problem), pilot studies (focus groups, interactive media, projective techniques, online research and interviews) and case studies (Wiid & Diggins, 2010).

Descriptive studies are conducted when knowledge on a particular subject is vague or there is no clarity on the nature of competition (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). This type of research attempts to describe the characteristics of a sample and their relationship with an event, situation, or phenomenon (Thyer, 2009). Descriptive studies can help with describing threats and opportunities as well as answer questions like: who, what, when, where and why. Descriptive research relies on some previous understanding of a problem but a lack of conclusive evidence that can help answer questions which will lead to a solution or course of action (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). Descriptive research is objective and does not aim to develop theory or hypotheses, but to test them. On rare occasions where there are hypotheses developed, they address associations and correlations and not causal relationships (Lans & Van Der Voordt, 2002; Thyer, 2009). The findings are often presented using graphs or charts that show percentages, means, proportions or frequencies. Additionally, descriptive research involves analysis which assesses whether there are patterns or relationships amongst variables (Thyer, 2009). The methods which are used in descriptive studies are longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. Longitudinal studies which are also referred to as time-series studies, involve measuring the same sample of elements repetitively over time. Data is collected at specific points in time in order to allow for the analysis of changes that happen over time (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). There are two types of longitudinal studies: true panels and omnibus panels. True panels are reliant on the repeated measurement of the same variables. The panel members are continuously measured on the same aspect or characteristic over time. Omnibus panels measure members in a panel differently. Each member is measured on a different aspect or characteristic each time (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). Cross-sectional studies involve the collection of data from a sample of the population once. It gives a snapshot of the variables concerned at a point in time and the sample represents a target population (Wiid & Diggins, 2010; Sedgwick, 2014).

Causal studies show causality between variables. They are done to reveal the cause and effect of independent and dependent variables. While descriptive studies often show the possible correlations between certain variables, these types of studies confirm or describe relationships (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). The researcher seeks not just to show a link but to show the direction of the link. They can be carried out through laboratory experiments or field experiments (Wiid & Diggins, 2010).

Seeing that the aim of the study is to assess the relationship between IBM, employee satisfaction, EBBE benefits and in the process, predict brand commitment, a descriptive study was conducted. This is because descriptive studies involve using analysis which can help assess the relationship between variables (Wiid & Diggins, 2010). The type of descriptive study that was adopted was a cross-sectional study, whereby data was collected at a single point in time and allowed the researcher to have a snapshot of the concerned variables and sample (Sedgwick, 2014. The advantage of cross-sectional studies is that they are less time consuming as data is collected once from the sample and they can be fairly affordable to conduct because there are no follow up costs like there would be with longitudinal studies (Wiid & Diggins, 2010; Sedgwick, 2014).

6.4.1 Research Strategy

A research strategy is the direction which is followed to conduct research. There are various factors that need to be considered before selecting a strategy, these can range from the research questions, the amount of control that the researcher has over the event and the level of focus on the contemporary event (Amaratunga, Haigh & Ingirige, 2015). A research strategy is dependent on the philosophical stances on human nature, methodology, axiology, epistemology, and ontology. The amount of knowledge that exists, time availability and resources available can also affect the research strategy (Amaratunga, Haigh & Ingirige, 2015). The common types of research strategies that are used in business and management research are experiments, surveys, ethnography, action research and case studies (Amaratunga, Haigh & Ingirige, 2015).

Positivists commonly use experiments and surveys. Experiments are mainly used for natural science research, studies that test hypotheses, theory and there is involvement of law. In an experiment, one input variable is controlled and all others remain constant then the effect on the output variable is measured (Amaratunga, Haigh & Ingirige, 2015). Considering that the testing of the relationships between IBM factors, employee satisfaction, EBBE benefits and brand commitment involves many constructs, it can be difficult to manipulate all of the independent constructs to see their effects of the dependent constructs in a laboratory. Therefore, the experimental method would not be appropriate for this study.

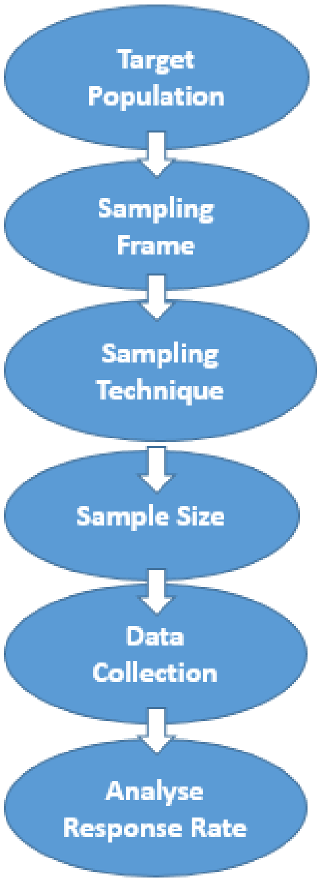
A survey is a systematic method that is used to collect information in order to generate knowledge and help with decision making. The two main characteristics of a survey are that it involves a sample of the population and it uses a systematic instrument (Lavrakas, 2008). It is used to collect information about a population that is well-defined. A population can include individuals, households, schools, companies, and farms, amongst others. A survey typically collects information through asking questions to a sample in the population and to do this, consistent questions are asked through a structured questionnaire (Lavrakas, 2008; Bethlehem, 2009). The advantage of surveys over experimental methods of data collection is that surveys allow for the collection of data from a larger number of respondents. Surveys are reliant on individuals to report on their knowledge, behaviour or attitudes (Mertens, 2014). Therefore, the validity of the information is reliant on the honesty of the respondents (Mertens, 2014). The results of a survey are enhanced when the analysis plan is generated before the data is collected. This will lead to the interpretation of results being more likely to reflect patterns (Amaratunga, Haigh & Ingirige, 2015). Considering that a large number of respondents are needed to test the multivariate conceptual model and the data had to be collected quickly, a survey data collection method was deemed appropriate for this study.

After determining what kind of data was needed in this study and what method would be used to obtain the data, the next thing that needed to be looked at was how and from whom the data would be collected. The next section discusses the data collection approach.

6.5 DATA COLLECTION APPROACH

The data collection approach includes the target population, sampling, data collection methods, ethical considerations and the measurement instrument. Figure 6.1 outlines the sequential steps followed.

Figure 6.1: Data collection approach followed in this study



Sourced from Wilson (2014)

6.5.1 Target Population

A target population is a group of people, cases, objects, or events that a researcher has interest in. e.g. English women under 25 or children with a certain disease (Polgar & Thomas, 2011). Defining a population is largely dependent on the research questions and the context of the study. A researcher needs to define a target population e.g. firms, households, individuals, etc. (Wilson, 2014). It is important for a researcher to draw a sample from a population because it is often impossible or costly to study an entire population (Polgar & Thomas, 2011). However, in some instances, the size of the population is small enough for the entire population to be studied e.g. if the target population are large aircraft manufacturers and the population consists of two manufacturers, it would be possible to target the entire population (Wilson, 2014). Therefore, researchers identify a sample within a target population then try to generalise the findings based on the sample that was studied (Polgar & Thomas, 2011).

The population targeted in this study were Famous Brands employees over the age of 18 years, across all their departments in all provinces of South Africa. Famous Brands is the largest food franchisor in Africa however, the majority of their staff members are in South Africa and their headquarters are also located in South Africa (Schaefer, 2009; Famous Brands, 2020). This is why South Africa was chosen as the location for the study. Also, it would be more cost efficient to target employees in South Africa, considering that the researcher resides in South Africa. While Famous Brands is in the food services industry, it is vertically integrated therefore, it is important to understand how IBM affects employee satisfaction, EBBE benefits and brand commitment of employees across the different departments. While South Africa's legal working age is 15 years (Statistics South Africa, 2013), it is unethical to survey respondents below the age of 18 years in South Africa without the permission of the parents. This is why this study targets employees who are 18 years and above. The next section discusses the sampling frame of this study.

6.5.2 Sampling Frame

A sample frame is a list of cases from which a sample can be drawn, e.g. a telephone directory which provides company details. It is important that a sample frame represents the population, however, it can be challenging to determine when a sample is not representative and should not be used (Wilson, 2014). What is important to consider about a sample frame is how a list can be located. In some instances, researchers are unable to locate a sampling frame, and in those instances, a researcher needs to develop their own sampling frame (Wilson, 2014). The sampling frame for this study are male and female permanent employees of Famous Brands of all races who are located in South Africa. Due to the company restrictions on disclosing employee information, it was impossible to locate a list of all employees and that had an implication on the sampling technique used in this study.

6.5.3 *Sampling Technique*

There are two types of sampling techniques, probability and non-probability sampling (Wilson, 2014).

Probability sampling happens when the units of the population have equal probabilities for inclusion. Probability sampling uses randomisation instead of arbitrary or purposive sampling (Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016). Randomisation is the process which is similar to how the lottery is drawn and this happens where units are selected according to their probabilities of inclusion or using some specified criteria (Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016). Probability sampling has the least bias but can be costly in terms of energy and time (Wilson, 2014). The types of techniques used in probability sampling include simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, systematic sampling and multi-stage sampling.

In simple random sampling, every unit of the population has an equal chance of being included in a sample and in order for that to be possible, a list of all units of the population is needed (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013; Wilson, 2014). The disadvantage of this type of sampling is that it can be very costly to study all units of the sample if they are scattered geographically and the standard errors from the estimators can be high (Wilson, 2014). Stratified random sampling is a method whereby a sample is divided into mutually exclusive and exhaustive strata, then random sampling is performed in each stratum (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013). Systematic sampling is the type of sampling technique whereby every *n*th case is selected after a random start (Wilson, 2014). Cluster sampling happens when a population is divided into clusters then a random sample is selected from the clusters (Wilson, 2014). Multi-stage sampling is a method whereby the sample starts off as broad then becomes narrow through using a step-by-step process (Wilson, 2014).

In **non-probability sampling**, the units that are included in a study are included without known probabilities. A sample of individuals or cases does not always need to be representative or random, but it is important that there is a clear rationale for the selection of those units (Wilson, 2014). There are different types of methods used in this type of sampling and these include purposive sampling, snowball sampling, judgement sampling, convenience sampling and quota sampling (Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016).

Purposive or judgmental sampling involves the selection of a sample by using the judgement of the researcher based on the idea of what the researcher is looking for (Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016). The individuals, settings or events are deliberately selected to provide information which cannot be obtained from other choices. The researcher includes these units based on his or her judgement because he or she believes that they are important for the study, therefore, their inclusion is warranted (Wilson, 2014). Convenience sampling involves the selection of units that are available to the researcher and this can be based on opportunity, availability, accidentally or haphazardly (Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016). Convenience sampling is not costly and is relatively easier compared to other sampling techniques. It can also help overcome limitations that are often associated with research (Wilson, 2014). Quota sampling is a technique that chooses a sample based on predetermined characteristics. The challenge with quota sampling is that it can be difficult to gain information on those characteristics (Wilson, 2014). Snowball sampling, also known as network sampling, is a form of sampling that starts with an initial sample then that sample encourages others to take part in a study and as a result, this increases the sample size (Dattalo, 2008; Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016; Wilson, 2014). This technique is best suited for target populations that are difficult to access (Wilson, 2014).

Due to the fact that the researcher in this study did not have access to the details or lists of all Famous Brands employees for random selection in probability sampling, due to confidentiality, non-probability sampling was used in this study. Wilson (2014) states that a sample of individuals or cases does not always need to be random but it is important that there is a clear rationale for the selection of those units. This study ensured that all the individuals who were part of the sample were permanent Famous Brands employees over the age of 18 years by using screening questions. Convenience sampling was used as this method allows for the selection of individuals that are available to the researcher and it is less costly than other sampling methods (Wilson, 2014; Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016).

6.5.4 Sample Size

Generally, it has been found that a larger sample size decreases sampling errors and this will result in validity and the representation of a target population. However, the relationship between the sample size and sampling errors is not proportionate nor simple. Limited resources can also affect the number of individuals who can be sampled. Sampling therefore enables the extrapolation from a sample to a target population (Dattalo, 2008). Four methods can be used to determine a sample size: a sample calculation based on the entire population, the sample size used by related previous studies, the type of data analyses to be conducted and the rule of thumb methods (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Riley et al., 2020). With the rule of thumb, for every variable that is analysed, there should be five times as many observations (Hair et al., 2010). Based on the above suggestion, this study had 57 measurement items therefore, a sample size of 285 (57x5) would be adequate. Kline (2016) suggests that when structural equation modelling (SEM) is to be used for data analyses, a sample of between 200 and 400, or above, can be efficient. With the additional consideration of rule of thumb recommendation, this study sampled a total of 1200 respondents and 404 usable responses were used for the analyses.

Once the sample size was determined, the next thing that needed to be considered was how data would be collected. The following section provides an overview of the data collection method employed.

6.5.5 Data Collection Method

Data are usually collected with fieldwork, which refers to the collection of information about any observational units. When using a survey to collect data, fieldwork assists with the administration of a questionnaire to get information from the respondents (Wilson, 2014; Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016). Fieldwork can be conducted face-to-face, at the office, home, by mail, telephonically or through the internet via a web or online survey (Wilson, 2014; Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016). There are two common methods which are used to collect data through surveys, structured interviews, and self-administered questionnaires (De Leeuw, 2008. Structured interviews happen with the presence of the interviewer while self-administered questionnaires are filled in by the respondent and this can happen without the field worker or researcher present to help with filling in the survey. A field worker can be present during a self-administered questionnaire when sensitive questions are being asked. The respondent fills out the questions privately and the field worker remains at a distance to allow for privacy or non-interference in responses. However, should the respondent have questions or need assistance, the field worker is available to assist (De Leeuw, 2008). In research, the self-administered questionnaires are common, be it in a paper form where respondents are given a pen and paper to fill in or electronically, where respondents are sent the questionnaire to fill in online through a computer or other electronic devices (De Leeuw, 2008. The advantage of self-administered questionnaires is that they are less intrusive, respondents are able to fill them in when they have time, respondents feel free to give honest answers to topics that are sensitive, they are less costly than face-to-face interviews and a large number of questionairres can be collected (De Leeuw, 2008).

Based on the aforementioned merits of self-administered questionnaires, this study used this method to survey the respondents. A paper based questionnaire as well as online surveys were used due to the fact that some employees had access to computers and the internet, while others did not. For example, many employees in departments like manufacturing and logistics did not have access to a computer and internet.

Using a mailing group and not names for confidentiality, the researcher received access to a mailing group with 1000 Famous Brands employees based in South Africa. The online questionnaires were emailed to the 1000 employees. Pen-and-pencil questionnaires were handed out to 200 employees in the logistics and manufacturing departments. This was handed out at the different manufacturing plants, like the meat plant and sauce plant, as well as the different distribution centres in Johannesburg. Of the 1200 surveys which were distributed, the researcher received 404 questionairres that were fully completed, with the majority being online surveys. This gave a response rate of 33.7%. This low response rate is partially due to the poor response rate associated with online questionnaires (Hair et al., 2010) and partialy from Baruch and Holtom's (2009) observation that organisational employees are reluctant to partipate in research studies.

In their research conducted with employees, Baruch and Holtom (2009) found that the average response rate for studies conducted in organisations was 35.2%. This is lower than the 52% average response rate of research conducted with customers (Baruch & Holtom, 2009). Some of the reasons which were found for individuals in organisations having a lower response were: individuals in organisations are often fatigued and are not interested in reponsing to questionnaires they percieve as non-essential, they are busy, flooded with questionnaires and some organisations do not allow employees to complete questionnaires (Baruch & Holtom, 2009). These can help explain why the response rate in this study was below 50%.

The next section gives an overview of some of the ethical consideratons which were taken into account before the study was conducted.

6.5.6 Ethical Considerations

To ensure that the study was ethical, strict ethical procedures were followed. Firstly, ethical clearance was received from the University of the Witwatersrand's Human Research Ethics Committee for non-medical research. Gray (2019) highlights that when conducting research in organisations, two stages need to be followed. Firstly, it is important to gain consent from senior management, then once consent has been gained from the organisation, it is important to gain consent from individual respondents (Gray, 2019). In this study, a consent letter was gained from an executive at Famous Brands who gave permission to conduct research with the employees. It is suggested that information should be given to respondents to reflect the level of risk involved in partaking in a study (Gray, 2019). In a survey questionnaire, a cover letter can help provide information to the respondents. The information that can be included is the aim of the research; the target population; details on the type of information that will be needed from respondents; time required for respondents to complete the questionnaire; details on who will be able access to the data once the information is collected; and details of how the identity or anonymity of respondents will be protected (Gray, 2019). It should also be mentioned that participation is voluntary (Gray, 2019). All of the aforementioned information was included in a cover letter, which accompanied the questionnaire. Additionally, the research topic, name of the researcher, the name of institution, supervisor's contact details and contact details of the University of the Witwatersrand's Human Research Ethics Committee were included on the cover letter.

The next section presents the data collection instrument which was used in this study.

6.5.7 Questionnaire Design and Measurement Instrument

When designing a questionnaire, attention needs to be given to its format, flow and length. The first step in developing a questionnaire is to review literature and previously validated scales that have been used in similar studies. The validated scales can then be used as the measurement instruments to measure the focal constructs (Kazi & Khalid, 2012). This study therefore used validated scales used by previous studies to develop the measurement instrument for this study. This included dependent and independent variables.

An independent variable is a variable that can be observed in a natural setting or manipulated in an experiment in order to get an impact on a dependent variable (Myers, Well & Lorch, 2010; Salkind, 2010). An independent variable complements the dependent variable and the dependent variable changes in response to the independent variable (Salkind, 2010). A dependent variable, also referred to as an outcome variable, is a variable that is explained by the independent variable. In other words, the actions of the independent variables affect the dependent variable (Lavrakas, 2008; Salkind, 2010).

A Likert scale is used to measure attitudes and this can include opinions, preferences, and mental dispositions (Göb, McCollin & Ramalhoto, 2007). A Likert scale is a psychometric scale that is commonly used in questionnaires to assess the respondent's level of agreement or disagreement for a series of statements (Barua, 2013). Typically, researchers apply a scale that gives respondents options like "strongly agree, somewhat agree, not sure/undecided, somewhat disagree, and strongly disagree" (Awang, Afthanorhan & Mamat, 2016). For this study therefore, and following the scales of previous studies, the items were rated using a 5-point Likert scale whereby 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. A nominal scale was used to capture the demographic characteristics of the respondents like age, gender, level of education and an ordinal scale was used to capture the attitude of the respondents for each of the statements that were provided. Respondents needed to indicate the level they agreed or disagreed with each statement measuring the constructs. Table 6.4 presents the measurement items of this study.

Table 6.4: Measurement instrument

Construct	Coding	Item	Source
Internal Brand Communication	BC1	I feel I am well informed by our headquarters about our brand/organisation	(Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015)
	BC2	I feel I am well informed by my direct manager about our brand/organisation	
	BC3	I often discuss the importance of our brand/organisation with my colleagues	
	BC4	In our company there are stories/anecdotes circulating that express what our brand/organisation stands for	
	BC5	We are constantly reminded of maintaining the image of our brand/organisation	
Role Clarity	RC1	I know how to behave at my workplace	(King & Grace, 2010)
	RC2	I know how to handle unusual problems	
	RC3	I know what performance is expected from me	
	RC4	I understand what is expected of me because of the information they give us about maintaining our brand/organisational image	
	RC5	I know how to make decisions because of the brand/organisational information I have received	
	RC6	I understand what is expected of me because of the information they give us about maintaining our brand/organisational image	
Internal Market Research	IR1	My brand/organisation gathers employees' opinions about issues	(Billy & To, 2013; Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014)
	IR2	My brand/organisation regularly seeks employee suggestions	
	IR3	My brand/organisation collects data on employees' complaints	

	IR4	My brand/organisation does a lot of internal market research	
	IR5	My brand/organisation talks with me to identify issues that I may have	
	IR6	My brand/organisation surveys employees at least once a year to assess their level of satisfaction and the quality of their performance	
Rewards	RW1	This brand/organisation fairly rewards an employee's performance	(Kim, Song & Lee, 2016)
	RW2	This brand/organisation establishes my pay linked to my performance	
	RW3	In this brand/organisation, those employees who develop a close relationship with customers are rewarded for their efforts	
	RW4	My brand/organisation cares about rewarding efforts put to improve performance	
Management Support	MS1	Management shares the brand's/organisation's values	(King & Grace, 2010)
	MS2	Management often considers my goals and values	
	MS3	Management often provides me with help	
	MS4	Management tries to make my job interesting	
	MS5	Management is willing to help me to perform the best I can	
	MS6	Management understands my problems	
	MS7	Management acknowledges my efforts	
Employee Satisfaction	ES1	I am satisfied with my fringe benefits	(Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015)
	ES2	I am satisfied with the pay I receive for my job	
	ES3	I am satisfied with the recognition that I get when I have done a good job	

	ES4	I am satisfied with the freedom I have to do the best I can at my job	
	ES5	I am satisfied with my opportunities for career advancement	
	ES6	I am satisfied with the type of work I do	
	ES7	I am satisfied with the support I get at work	
Brand Citizenship Behaviour	BCB1	I sometimes do tasks outside of my own area to satisfy customers	(King & Grace, 2010)
	BCB2	I do things that will consistently keep the brand image of my brand/organisation	
	BCB3	I consider my impact on the brand/organisation before acting	
	BCB4	I put in extra initiative to maintain the brand/organisational image	
	BCB5	I regularly recommend my brand/organisation to customers and other employees	
	BCB6	I am always willing to pass on brand/organisational knowledge to new employees	
	BCB7	I am interested to learn more about my brand/organisation	
Brand Allegiance	BA1	I plan to work for this company for a while	(King & Grace, 2010)
	BA2	I plan to work in this company in five years' time	
	BA3	I would turn down another company's offer since I am okay with my current company	
	BA4	I have planned to stay in this company	
Brand Endorsement	BE1	I say positive things about my brand/organisation	(King & Grace, 2010)
	BE2	I often recommend my brand/organisation to others	
	BE3	I enjoy talking about my brand/organisation and what we stand for	
	BE4	I talk positively about my brand/organisation and its brand name	

	BE5	I am willing the protect the image of my brand/organisation's name	
Brand Commitment	BCM1	I will work harder than I am expected in order to make my brand/organisation successful	(Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015)
	BCM2	I am proud to work for my brand/organisation	
	BCM3	I feel loyal to my brand/organisation	
	BCM4	I talk about my brand/organisation to my friends as a great brand/organisation to work for	
	BCM5	I really care about the future of my brand/organisation	
	BCM6	I am committed to my brand/organisation because I feel like I fit in	

6.5.7.1 Pre-testing (Piloting) the Instrument

A pilot study or pre-testing refers to a pre-test of a research instrument. Pilot studies should ideally be conducted using respondents who resemble the target population. Pilot studies are valuable when little is known about a research topic or when a research instrument is executed. The objective of a pilot study is to discover any possible problems before conducting the main research study, that way the researcher can pick up the problems then make improvements to increase the success of the main research study (Salkind, 2010).

In this study, a pre-test was conducted amongst seven members of the Wimpy team, who are Famous Brands employees, in order to ascertain face validity. The team gave feedback on the questionnaire, then minor changes were made. Once the changes were made, a pilot study was conducted amongst 30 employees in the Famous Brands marketing and group operations team. The objective of the pilot study was to evaluate respondents' understanding of the language, instructions, and format. There were a few questions which were raised on wording. After consultation with the research supervisor, some of the words were amended. The amended questionnaire was administered to the main respondents.

The preceding sections discussed the data collection methods that were employed in this study. The following section discusses the data analysis methods used in this study.

6.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Once questionnaires are completed, they must go through a process of editing, coding, and processed by using a computer then analysed (Vriens, 2006). Once the data collection process was complete, the data was coded using Excel. The data was also checked for any missing data or errors. The Excel data was transferred to SPSS, where descriptive statistics were generated. The main method used to analyse the data was structural equation modelling (SEM) using AMOS version 26. SEM was conducted by starting with the structural model, whereby confirmatory factor analysis was used to check for reliability validity and model fits. After obtaining good model fit indices, path modelling was conducted to test the relationship between the variables in the study.

6.6.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics involve organising, describing and summarising data. In descriptive statistics, data is described using graphs, tables, and numerical indices. Descriptive statistics can also include commentary about data structure and emerging patterns (Frey, 2018). Descriptive statistics are generally easily understood, simple and commonly encountered. These statistics are encountered in daily life, like in newspapers, magazines, internet, radio and television (Salkind, 2010). Descriptive statistics can be used to describe characteristics of the population like average income of a particular group, or the number of people who display certain behaviour, amongst others (Gayle, 2000). In this study, demographic profiles of the respondents, such as age, gender, race, educational level and their employment details were captured. The descriptive statistics also included the means of the constructs.

6.6.2 Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a tool that is used for the analysis of multivariate data. “Structural equation modeling (SEM) is an important statistical tool for evaluating complex relations in several research areas” (Amorim, Fiaccone, Santos, Santos, de Moraes, Oliveira, N. F & Barreto, 2010, p. 2251). For a long time, it has been well known in marketing, especially for testing theories. SEM is different from ordinary regression models because it incorporates multiple independent and dependent variables and hypothetical latent constructs that can be represented by clusters of observed variables (Vriens, 2006). SEM allows for the testing of specified sets of relationships between observed and latent variables. It also allows for the testing of theories even when experiments are not possible (Vriens, 2006). In SEM, a statistical technique that allows for obtaining path values for the model as well as testing the overall fit of the model can be utilised and this statistical technique is called path analysis. The objective of using path analysis is to see how well a proposed model, which has specified relationships amongst variables, contributes to the observed relationships among the variables (Vriens, 2006). SEM gives a framework for dealing with measurement error as well as specifying systems of equations that go hand-in-hand with theory (Bauldry, 2020). SEM analysis has five steps. Firstly, a structure of a model is decided on after reviewing theory. The second step is the identification of an assessment model, then the third step involves the estimation of parameters and this involves the use of estimators which are available for SEM. The fourth step involves analysing the model fit, then in the final step, re-specification of alternative models can be considered if there is poor model fit (Bauldry, 2020).

Frey (2018) outlines some of the features of SEM and these include the fact that complex relationships between variables can be estimated. Second, hypothesised models which are based on prior empirical studies as well as theory can be tested. Third, measurement error is taken into account and this gives unbiased parameter estimates. Last, it gives multiple fit indices of model fit then gives suggestions on how a model can be altered.

6.6.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

When using an existing measure, it is important to determine whether it is appropriate for the target population of the study and CFA can help determine that. CFA is used to develop new measures and evaluate new and existing measures. It can also be used for construct validation and to evaluate whether a measure remains constant even when the population changes (Harrington, 2009). Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao (2003, p. 169) define CFA as “a statistical procedure for testing hypotheses about the commonality among variables. As a multivariate procedure, CFA is used to simultaneously test multiple hypotheses that collectively constitute a measurement model". CFA is driven by theory and it is also a confirmatory technique. The analysis is driven by the theoretical relationships between observed and unobserved variables (Hafiz & Shaari, 2013).

6.6.4 Reliability and Validity Tests of Measurement Scales

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to test the reliability and validity of the measurement scale in this study. This section gives an overview of the measurements that were used to test validity and reliability.

6.6.4.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to how consistent a measurement instrument is irrespective of who uses it and that certain conditions remain constant (Payne & Payne, 2004; Hafiz & Shaari, 2013). According to Kimberlin, and Winterstein (2008, p. 2276) "Reliability estimates evaluate the stability of measures, internal consistency of measurement instruments, and interrater reliability of instrument scores". The coefficients of reliability range between 0 and 1, and the higher the value, the higher the reliability. Below are the measures that were used to test reliability in this study.

Cronbach's Alpha (α)

The Cronbach's alpha is commonly described as an important and pervasive statistic in research and it is an internal consistency coefficient. It is a reliability test used to test whether the scales and tests in research are fit for purpose (Ritter, 2010; Taber, 2017). An acceptable range for the Cronbach's alpha value is 0.6 and above (Munir, 2018). A lower value could be an indication that there were not enough questions, the items were not interrelated and if this happens, some of the items need to be discarded or revised (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Composite Reliability

Internal reliability is evaluated through examining the composite reliability (CR) index. A CR value of 0.7 or higher is considered acceptable (Munir, 2018).

The Composite reliability (CR) index formula for calculation is as follows:

$CR\eta = (\Sigma\gamma yi)\ 2 / [(\Sigma\gamma yi)\ 2 + \Sigma\varepsilon i]$

Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings)/ {(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

6.6.4.2 Validity

Validity gives an indication of whether a measurement or any other instrument measures what it is meant to measure under certain circumstances and for a target population, objects, or subjects (Nadal, 2017; Mohajan, 2017). While reliability focuses on the accuracy and stability of a measure, validity looks at how appropriate a measure is to measure what it is intended to measure (Nadal, 2017; Mohajan, 2017). This study assessed convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent Validity

Alarcón and Sánchez (2015, p. 3) define convergent validity as "the degree of confidence we have that a trait is well measured by its indicators". Convergent validity assesses whether the measures of the same concept are correlated and if they are, that indicates convergent validity (Harrington, 2009). Carlson and Hedman (2012, p. 18) also state that "convergent validity reflects the extent to which two measures capture a common construct". Studies have suggested that when convergent validity is 0.28 or lower, that indicates convergence between the measures and convergent validity of 0.75 or higher gives an indication that the measures are different. Low convergent validity is represented by values that near zero, while values that near 1 indicate convergent validity (Carlson & Hedman, 2012).

Average Value Extracted (AVE)

According to Alarcón, Sánchez and De Olavide (2015, p. 5) "AVE measures the level of variance captured by a construct versus the level due to measurement error, values above 0.7 are considered very good, whereas, the level of 0.5 is acceptable".

The AVE formula is:

Vη=Σλyi2/(Σλyi2+Σεi)

AVE **=** {(summation of the squared of factor loadings)/ {(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances).

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity measures the distinctiveness between constructs and is represented by a high level of distinctiveness. When construct correlations are between 0.85 or higher that indicates poor discriminant validity (Harrington, 2009). In this study, the inter-construct correlation matrix was evaluated. The inter-construct correlation matrix is used to test for the discriminant validity of constructs. Correlations between latent variables are evaluated and it is recommended that correlations between latent constructs should be below 1.0 in order for discriminant validity to be confirmed (Morar, Venter & Chuchu, 2015).

6.6.5 Model Fit Assessment

This section presents the model fit indices which are used in this study to measure model fit. The model fit indices are: Chi-square; Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Goodness of Fit Index (GFI); Incremental Fit Index (IFI); Normed Fit Index (NFI) Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Chi-square (CMIN). The sections that follow provide a brief discussion of each index, together with the acceptable values for model fit confirmation for each of them.

6.6.5.1 Chi-square

"The chi-square (χ^2) is a nonparametric statistical test used for data analysis when one or more variables are nominal or categorical in nature" (Allen, 2017, p.128). The test helps determine whether the differences that are observed between variables are by chance or statistically significant (Lavrakas, 20080. The test tests categorical variables and their significance. The test of significance lets the researcher know what the probability of the sample representing the population is. This value can be used to test goodness-of-fit, in univariate analysis, or to test independence, in bivariate analysis and this is commonly used (Lavrakas, 2008). Nonparametric tests should be used when nominal or ordinal variable measurements are used, there are unequal sample sizes in the study group or originally the data was measured at ratio or interval level (McHugh, 2013). Frequencies that are 5 or less are considered acceptable (Preacher, 2001). In this study, a chi-square of <3 was used as an indicator of goodness of fit.

6.6.5.2 Comparative fit index (CFI)

The CFI compares the fit of a target model to an independent model where there is an assumption that the variables are uncorrelated. The CFI is a representation of how much better the target model is compared to the independent model (Moss, 2016). The CFI index ranges between 0 and 1, and the higher the value the better the fit. An index of 0.97 represents a good fit, while values that are higher than 0.95 are considered acceptable. When compared to the NNFI, this index is less sensitive to sample size (Schermelleh-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003).

6.6.5.3 Random measure of standard error approximation (RMSEA)

The RMSEA "is a measure of approximate fit in the population and is therefore concerned with the discrepancy due to approximation" (Schermelleh-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003, p.36). The RMSEA is an absolute fit index that is used to assess a perfect model and the hypothesised model and the difference between them. The RMSEA is considered not to be dependent on sample size and to favour parsimonious models (Schermelleh-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003). It is suggested that a RMSEA must have a value of <0.05 to represent close fit and if the value is < 0.08 that is an indication of reasonable model-data fit (Xia & Yang, 2018).

6.6.5.4 Goodness of fit Index (GFI)

"The Goodness-of-Fit-Index measures the relative amount of the variances and covariances in the empirical covariance matrix **S** that is predicted by the model-implied covariance matrixˆ Σ(θ)" (Schermelleh-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003, p.42). GFI values range between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating a good fit. Values that are higher than 0.90 represent an acceptable fit, while values that are 0.95 and above represent a good fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

6.6.5.5 Incremental fit Index (IFI)

The IFI index compares the fit of a model that is substantial to a model that is null (Widaman & Thompson, 2003). The null model is the worst possible model and what is conventional is to allow variation in the model but not correlation (Kenny, 2015).
The IFI is an index that is not dependent on sample size. This index can be higher than 1 however, values that are higher than 0.9 are considered acceptable (Moss, 2016).

6.6.5.6 Normed fit Index (NFI)

The NFI is an incremental fit index that assesses the fit of a model that has been tested with a null model where the observed variables are presumed to be uncorrelated (Smith & McMillan, 2001). The NFI value ranges between 0 and 1, and the higher the value the better the fit. Values that are higher than 0.9 represent an acceptable fit and values that are above 0.95 represent a good fit. The disadvantage of this index is that sample size affects it, however, the TLI helps take care of that problem (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

6.6.5.7 Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)

The TLI compares the fit between the hypothesised model and the baseline model (Xia & Yang, 2018). The TLI is similar to the NFI (Moss, 2016). The TLI is dependent on the average size of data correlations. The lower the correlation between the variables, the lower the TLI will be (Kenny, 2015). A TLI value of 0.9 or higher indicates an acceptable fit, while a fit of 0.95 or higher indicates good fit (Xia & Yang, 2018).

6.6.6 Testing the Mediating Effect

The term statistical mediation "refers to a causal chain In which it is assumed that the effect of one or more independent variables is transmitted to one or more dependent variables through a third variable" (Pardo & Román, 2013, p.614). A mediator is helpful when trying to understand the process in which an independent variable (X) has an effect on a dependent variable (Y) (Pardo & Román, 2013). Mediation is used to examine the effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) through a mediator variable (M), X → M → Y. To test for mediation in this study, Partial Least Square (PLS) was used. This is because "PLS performs the best method in testing mediation effects because it provides an indication of relationship that is similar to the traditional regression coefficients" (Phan & Pilik, 2018). This study tested the mediating effects of employee satisfaction as well as the mediating effects of EBBE benefits.

6.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the research methodology for this study was discussed. The chapter started off with a discussion of the research philosophy and approach. This was then followed by the research strategy and the justification for the strategy chosen, then followed by the data collection and analysis techniques which were adopted. The next chapter presents the results of this study.

CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 presents the findings of the study, which was aimed at examining the impact of IBM on employee satisfaction, EBBE benefits and brand commitment. Descriptive statistics are presented first, which include the demographics of respondents and the means and standard deviations for each of the constructs. Thereafter, there is a presentation and brief discussion of the reliability and validity measurement results, followed by the model fit assessment results. Lastly, the hypotheses results are presented.

7.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

In this section, the demographic profiles of the respondents are presented. These include: age, gender, population group and highest qualification. This is then followed by employment details such as the number of years they have been employed by Famous Brands, the departments they work in and the brand/s they work for.

7.2.1 Demographic Profile

Table 7.1 presents the results that were generated about respondents' characteristics. Respondents were asked to fill in their demographic details by providing their age, gender, population group (race) and highest qualification.

Table 7.1: Demographic profile of the respondents

Demographic		Frequency	Percentage
Age	18 – 25 years	37	9.2%
	26 – 35 years	180	44.6%
	36 – 45 years	112	27.7%
	46 – 55 years	53	13.1%
	56 years or older	22	5.4%
Total		**404**	**100%**
Gender	Female	209	51.7%

	Male	195	48.3%
Total		**404**	**100%**
Population Group	Black	240	59.4%
	Coloured	24	5.9%
	Asian/Indian	25	6.2%
	White	115	28.5%
Total		**404**	**100%**
Highest Qualification	High School	118	29.2%
	Diploma	111	27.5%
	Degree	90	22.3%
	Postgraduate degree	57	14.1%
	Other	28	6.9%
Total		**404**	**100%**

As presented in Table 7.1, 9.2% (37) of the respondents were between the ages of 18 – 25 years, 44.6% (180) of them were between the ages of 26 – 35 years, 27.7% (112) were between the ages of 36 – 45 years, 13.1% (53) were between the ages of 46 – 55 years and 5.4% (22) were 56 years or older. These figures could be explained by a study from Statistics South Africa (2019), which looked at the ages of individuals who are employed in South Africa and found that the majority of those employed in South Africa are aged 25 – 54 years (83%). In this study, individuals between the ages of 26 – 55 years (85.4%) were also the majority of the respondents. Individuals aged 18 – 25 years and 56 years or older were the least. Statistics South Africa (2019) found that employed individuals between 15 – 24 years made up 7% of the employment market, and in this study, respondents aged 18 – 25 years made up 9.2 % of the respondents. According to Statistics South Africa (2019), employed individuals between the ages of 55 – 64 years made up 10% of the employed market in South Africa, however, in this study the number was lower as only 5.4% of respondents who were 56 years or older. This could be an indication that Famous Brands has a younger age skew or that younger employees were more willing to participate in the study.

The study found that 51.7% (209) of the respondents were female, while 48.3% (195) were males. These figures are slightly different from those of the South African labour market. According to Statistics South Africa (2019), the labour market was made up of 43.9% females and 56.1% males. The numbers in this study could be an indication that Famous Brands hires a higher number of females or that the more of the employees who were willing to take part in the study were females.

When looking at the race of the respondents, 59.4% (204) were Black/African, 28.5% were White, 5.9% (24) were Coloured and 6.2% (25) were Indian/Asian. South Africa (2019) found that 75.3% of employed individuals in South Africa were Black/African, 11.3% were White, 10.2% were Coloured and 3.2% were Indian/Asian. When looking at qualifications, the study found that 29.2% selected High School (118) as their highest qualification, 27.5% (111) diploma, 22.3% (90) degree, 14.1% (57) selected postgraduate qualifications, while 6.9% chose “other”. This indicates that the majority of employees who took part in the study had some kind of tertiary education as 63.9% (258) of the respondents had either a diploma, degree or postgraduate qualification.

7.2.2 Employment Details

This section measured the areas where respondents were employed in Famous Brands. The respondents were asked to complete their employment details, which helped obtain details on the department they work in, the number of years they had been with the organisation and the brands they work for. The results are presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: Employment details

Employment Details		Frequency	Percentage
Department	Marketing or Product	118	29.2%
	Operations	83	20.5%
	Manufacturing or Logistics	44	10.9%
	Human Resources or Finance	60	14.9%
	Development	89	22%

	Other	10	2.5%
Total		**404**	**100%**
Brand	Quick Service Restaurant (QSR) Brand	41	10.1%
	Casual Dining Restaurant (CDR) Brand	16	4%
	Signature Brand	13	3.2%
	More than one brand	334	83.5%
Total		**404**	**100%**
Number of years employed by the organisation	0 - 1 year	86	21.3%
	2 - 4 years	112	27.7%
	4 - 6 years	62	15.4%
	6 years or more	144	35.6%
Total		**404**	**100%**

Looking at the departments where the respondents work in Table 7.2, 29.2% (118) work in the marketing department or product management (new product development). The higher response rate in the marketing/product management department could have been driven by the fact that these employees tend to spend more time in the office as compared to departments like operations, where they are constantly on the road visiting restaurants, or the logistics and manufacturing departments, where there is a lot of physical labour. This could have also been driven by the fact the marketers tend to work a lot with surveys therefore, the study could have been of interest to them. 20.5% (83) of the respondents work in operations, 10.9% (44) work in manufacturing or logistics. 22% (89) work in the development department, which manages the development of all new restaurants, revamps and restaurants that are relocating. 2.5% (10) work in “other” departments that were not listed on the questionnaire e.g. information technology. These results indicate that all the departments were represented, but the majority of the respondents were from the marketing and product management department.

In this study, the brands of the organisation were split between Quick Service Restaurant (QSR) brands, Casual Dining Restaurant (CDR) brands, Signature brands and other. A QSR is defined as “a type of restaurant in which cooking is done in a fast and time conscious manner, and is identified by its insignificant table service because food is mostly consumed off-site” (Marx-Pienaar, Du Rand, Fisher & Viljoen, 2020, p.59). The QSR brands at Famous Brands include South African market leaders such as Debonairs Pizza, Steers, FishAways, Wakaberry, and Milky Lane. CDR brands are restaurants that offer a full service which includes table service from a waiter or waitress and some of them sell alcoholic beverages (Dixon, Miscuraca & Koutroumanis, 2018). The CDR brands at Famous Brands are brands such as Wimpy, Fego Café and Mugg n Bean. Signature brands are brands which are joint ventures between Famous Brands and other parties. These restaurants are mainly casual dining restaurants, fine dining restaurants and coffee shops. Some of these brands include Salsa, Vovo Telo, Turn n Tender, Mythos, Lupa, Pauls, etc. Employees who selected “more than one brand” work for two or more of the above mentioned brands, this can be directly or indirectly. When looking at the respondents in this study, 10.1% (41) worked for one of the QSR brands, 4% (16) worked for one of the CDR brands, 3.2% worked for Signature brands (13) and 83.5% (334) worked for more than one brand. This is an indication that the majority of the respondents in this study service multiple brands e.g. a business intelligence manager who provides business intelligence for the different brands or an employee in manufacturing who produces products for the different brands.

Table 7.2 shows that 21.3% (86) of the respondents had been with the organisation for 0 – 1 years, 27.7% (112) had been with the organisation for 2 – 4 years, 15.4% (62) had been with the organisation for 4 – 6 years and 35.6% of them had been with the organisation for longer than 6 years. This indicates that 51% of the employees who participated in the study had been with the organisation for longer than four years, while 49% of the employees had been with the organisation for less than four years. When looking at the employees who stayed in the organisation for longer than six years (144), the majority worked in operations (41.1%), the majority of them worked for more than more than one brand (44.9%), 50% were male and 50% were female, the majority of them had a diploma qualification (36.2%) and 38.6% of them were between the ages of 36 – 45 years.

7.2.3 Mean and Standard Deviations of Constructs

In this section, the means and standard deviations for the constructs and items are presented and briefly discussed. The tables also provide the percentages of agreements and disagreements to each of the items. Ten constructs and 57 measurement items were assessed.

Table 7.3: Internal brand communication

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BC1	I feel I am well informed by our headquarters about our brand/organisation	3.73	1.03	20 5%	25 6.2%	88 21.8%	183 45.3%	88 21.8%	404 100%
BC2	I feel I am well informed by my direct manager about our brand/organisation	3.74	1.06	20 5%	36 8.9%	65 16.1%	190 47%	93 23%	404 100%
BC3	I often discuss the importance of our brand/organisation with my colleagues	3.78	1.00	15 3.7%	26 6.4%	86 21.3%	182 45%	95 23.5%	404 100%
BC4	In our company there are stories/anecdotes circulating that express what our brand/organisation stands for	3.63	0.99	17 4.2%	30 7.4%	106 26.2%	183 45.3%	68 16.8%	404 100%
BC5	We are constantly reminded of maintaining the image of our brand/organisation	3.99	0.99	13 3.2%	21 5.2%	60 14.6%	173 42.8%	137 33.9%	404 100%
Overall		**3.77**	**1.01**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Table 7.3 shows that the overall mean for internal brand communication is 3.77 and the standard deviation is 1.01. This indicates that respondents agreed that the organisation communicated fairly with them to provide information about their respective brand or the organisation. Seventy percent of the respondents indicated that they were well informed by their direct managers about what was happening in their brand or the organisation.

Table 7.4: Role clarity

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
RC1	I know how to behave at my workplace	4.51	0.72	5 1.2 %	18 4.5%	143 35.4%	237 58.7%	1 0.2%	404 100%
RC2	I know how to handle unusual problems	4.18	0.74	4 1%	6 1.5%	39 9.7%	219 54.2%	136 33.7%	404 100%
RC3	I know what performance is expected from me	4.36	0.83	7 1.7%	7 1.7%	28 6.9%	154 38.1%	208 51.5%	404 100%
RC4	I understand what is expected of me because of the information they give us about maintaining our brand/organisational image	4.33	0.82	7 1.7%	6 1.5%	30 7.4%	166 41.1%	195 48.3%	404 100%
RC5	I know how to make decisions because of the brand/organisational information I have received	3.99	0.97	14 3.5%	15 3.7%	63 15.6%	183 45.3%	129 31.9%	404 100%
RC6	I understand what is expected of me because of the information they give us about maintaining our brand/organisational image	3.90	0.95	11 2.7%	21 5.2%	77 19.1%	184 45.5%	111 27.5%	404 100%
Overall		**4.21**	**0.84**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Table 7.4 shows that the mean value for role clarity is 4.21 with a standard deviation of 0.84. This indicates that the majority of the respondents agreed that they had clarity about their roles and there was little role ambiguity. The second highest mean value for an item is RC3, where respondents had to indicate whether they were aware of the performance that was expected of them in the brand or organisation. 89% of the respondents agreed that they knew what performance was expected from them in the workplace.

Table 7.5: Internal market research

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
IR1	My brand/organisation gathers employees' opinions about issues	3.39	1.06	32 7.9%	40 9.9%	113 28%	178 44.1%	41 10.1%	404 100%
IR2	My brand/organisation regularly seeks employee suggestions	3.25	1.06	28 6.9%	65 16.1%	131 32.4%	140 34.7%	40 9.9%	404 100%
IR3	My brand/organisation collects data on employees' complaints	3.21	1.05	30 7.4%	60 14.9%	151 37.4%	122 30.2%	41 10.1%	404 100%
IR4	My brand/organisation does a lot of internal market research	3.14	1.03	26 6.4%	73 18.1%	16 40.6%	101 25%	40 9.9%	404 100%
IR5	My brand/organisation talks with me to identify issues that I may have	3.19	1.06	31 7.7%	70 17.3%	127 31.4%	142 35.1%	34 8.4%	404 100%
IR6	My brand/organisation surveys employees at least once a year to assess their level of satisfaction and the quality of their performance	4.04	1.00	17 4.2%	15 3.7%	45 11.1%	185 45.8%	142 35.1%	404 100%
Overall		**3.37**	**1.04**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

As presented in Table 7.5, the mean value for internal market research is 3.37 and the standard deviation is 1.04. The mean of 3.37 is closer to 3 (neutral). This indicates that respondents took a neutral position regarding whether or not the organisation gathered internal research from employees. The highest mean value is IR6, where 80% of respondents agreed that the organisation surveys them at least once a year to assess their level of satisfaction and the quality of their performance.

Table 7.6: Rewards

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
RW1	This brand/organisation fairly rewards an employee's performance	3.36	1.13	34 8.4%	48 11.9%	122 30.2%	139 34.4%	61 15.1%	404 100%
RW2	This brand/organisation establishes my pay linked to my performance	3.10	1.09	38 9.4%	72 17.8%	142 35.1%	116 28.6%	36 8.9%	404 100%
RW3	In this brand/organisation, those employees who develop a close relationship with customers are rewarded for their efforts	3.05	1.03	36 8.9%	72 17.8%	156 38.6%	117 29%	23 5.7%	404 100%
RW4	My brand/organisation cares about rewarding efforts put to improve performance	3.23	1.15	41 10.1%	63 15.6%	107 26.5%	147 36.4%	46 11.4%	404 100%
Overall		**3.18**	**1.10**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

The mean value for rewards in Table 7.6 is 3.18 and the standard deviation is 1.10. This indicates that the respondents took a neutral position on whether they believed the brand/organisation rewarded its employees.

Table 7.7: Management support

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
MS1	Management shares the brand's/organisation's values	3.73	1.06	23 5.7%	27 6.7%	74 18.3%	190 47%	89 22%	404 100%
MS2	Management often considers my goals and values	3.31	1.09	29 7.2%	61 15.1%	118 29.2%	147 36.4%	49 12.1%	404 100%
MS3	Management often provides me with help	3.60	1.05	23 5.7%	33 8.2%	96 23.8%	182 45%	70 17.3%	404 100%

MS4	Management tries to make my job interesting	3.43	1.04	25 6.2%	41 10.1%	126 31.2%	160 39.6%	52 12.9%	404 100%
MS5	Management is willing to help me to perform the best I can	3.64	1.02	18 4.5%	32 7.9%	108 26.7%	168 41.6%	78 19.3%	404 100%
MS6	Management understands my problems	3.39	1.07	30 7.4%	45 11.1%	116 28.7%	164 40.6	49 12.1%	404 100%
MS7	Management acknowledges my efforts	3.54	1.09	31 7.7%	32 7.9%	92 22.8%	187 46.3%	62 15.3%	404 100%
Overall		**3.52**	**1.06**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Table 7.7 presents the means and standard deviations of management support. The mean value for management support is 3.52 and the standard deviation is 1.06. This indicates that respondents fairly agreed that they receive support from management. MS1 has the highest mean value with 69% of the respondents agreeing that management shares with them the values of the organisation.

Table 7.8: Employee satisfaction

Item	**Item Description**	**Mean Value**	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**Total**
ES1	I am satisfied with my fringe benefits	3.03	1.06	39 9.7%	79 19.6%	138 34.2%	126 31.2%	22 5.4%	404 100%
ES2	I am satisfied with the pay I receive for my job	3.05	1.11	50 12.4%	67 16.6%	123 30.4%	141 34.9%	23 5.7%	404 100%
ES3	I am satisfied with the recognition that I get when I have done a good job	3.26	1.09	32 7.9%	69 17.1%	104 25.7%	162 40.1%	37 9.2%	404 100%
ES4	I am satisfied with the freedom I have to do the best I can at my job	3,64	1,03	19 4.7%	38 9.4%	84 20.8%	190 47%	73 18.1%	404 100%

ES5	I am satisfied with my opportunities for career advancement	3.23	1.18	48 11.9%	54 13.4%	106 26.2%	148 36.6%	48 11.9%	404 100%
ES6	I am satisfied with the type of work I do	3.86	0.99	17 4.2%	20 5%	68 16.8%	198 49%	101 25%	404 100%
ES7	I am satisfied with the support I get at work	3.53	1.04	22 5.4%	41 10.1%	105 26%	174 43.1%	62 15.3%	404 100%
Overall		**3.37**	**1.07**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Table 7.8 shows the means and standard deviations for employee satisfaction, with a mean value of 3.37 and standard deviation of 1.07. The respondents had a neutral standpoint when asked about how satisfied they are as employees. ES6 has the highest mean value with 74% of the respondents agreeing that they are satisfied with the type of work that they do.

Table 7.9: Brand citizenship behaviour

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BCB1	I sometimes do tasks outside of my own area to satisfy customers	3.87	1.02	20 5%	17 4.2%	70 17.3%	186 46%	111 27.5%	404 100%
BCB2	I do things that will consistently keep the brand image of my brand/organisation	4.03	0.83	8 2%	5 1.2%	69 17.1%	205 50.7%	117 29%	404 100%
BCB3	I consider my impact on the brand/organisation before acting	4.09	0.79	6 1.5%	1 0.2%	72 17.8%	198 49%	127 31.4%	404 100%
BCB4	I put in extra initiative to maintain brand/organisational image	4.10	0.83	6 1.5%	6 1.5%	67 16.6%	189 46.8%	136 33.7%	404 100%
BCB5	I regularly recommend my brand/organisation to customers and other employees	4,00	0,90	8 2%	10 2.5%	85 21%	173 42.8%	128 31.7%	404 100%
BCB6	I am always willing to pass on brand/organisational	4.16	0.86	7 1.7%	7 1.7%	60 14.9%	172 42.6%	158 39.1%	404 100%

	knowledge to new employees								
BCB7	I am interested to learn more about my brand/organisation	4.21	0.90	9 2.2%	7 1.7%	56 13.9%	150 37.1%	182 45%	404 100%
Overall		**4.06**	**0.88**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

As presented in Table 7.9, the mean value for brand citizenship behaviour is 4.06 and the standard deviation is 0.88. This indicates that the respondents agreed that they exhibited brand citizenship behaviours. BCB7 has the highest mean value, which is 4.21. 81.6% of the respondents indicated that they are interested in learning more about the organisation or brand.

Table 7.10: Brand allegiance

Item	**Item Description**	**Mean Value**	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**Total**
BA1	I plan to work for this company for a while	3.86	1.01	15 3.7%	18 4.5%	93 23%	162 40.1%	116 28.7%	404 100%
BA2	I plan to work for this company in five years' time	3.60	1.12	20 5%	42 10.4%	120 29.7%	120 29.7%	102 25.2%	404 100%
BA3	I would turn down another company's offer since I am okay with my current company	3.20	1.13	36 8.9%	56 13.9%	167 41.3%	83 20.5%	62 15.3%	404 100%
BA4	I have planned to stay in this company	3.61	1.03	17 4.2%	36 8.9%	113 28%	158 39.1%	80 19.8%	404 100%
Overall		**3.57**	**1.07**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

For brand allegiance, which is presented in table 7.10, the mean value is 3.57 and the standard deviation is 1.07. This indicates that respondents agreed that they had intentions to continue working for the organisation. When looking at the items, BA1 has the highest mean value which is 3.86. 68.8% of the respondents indicated that they plan to work for the organisation for a while.

Table 7.11: Brand endorsement

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BE1	I say positive things about my brand/organisation	4.11	0.83	7 1.7%	7 1.7%	56 13.9%	198 49%	136 33.7%	404 100%
BE2	I often recommend my brand/organisation to others	4.04	0.90	7 1.7%	14 3.5%	71 17.6%	176 43.6%	136 33.7%	404 100%
BE3	I enjoy talking about my brand/organisation and what we stand for	4.05	0.87	6 1.5%	7 1.7%	86 21.3%	167 41.3%	138 34.2%	404 100%
BE4	I talk positively about my brand/organisation and its brand name	4.10	0.87	9 2.2%	3 0.7%	70 17.3%	178 44.1%	144 35.6%	404 100%
BE5	I am willing the protect the image of my brand/organisation's name	4.23	0.83	7 1.7%	2 0.5%	54 13.4%	171 42.3%	170 42.1%	404 100%
Overall		**4.11**	**0.86**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

The mean value for brand endorsement is 4.11 and the standard deviation is 0.86, as shown in Table 7.11. This indicates that the respondents agreed that they endorse the brand/organisation. 84.4% of the respondents indicated that they are willing to protect the image of the brand/organisation and 79.7% of the respondents indicated that they talk positively about the brand/organisation. This indicates that the majority of the respondents say positive things about the organisation and endorse it when with others.

Table 7.12: Brand commitment

Item	Item Description	Mean Value	SD	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BCM1	I will work harder than I am expected in order to make my brand/organisation successful	4.16	0.87	8 2%	5 1.2%	62 15.3%	169 41.8%	160 39.6%	404 100%
BCM2	I am proud to work for my brand/organisation	4.16	0.85	7	3	69	164	161	404

				1.7%	0.7%	17.1%	40.6%	39.9%	100%
BCM3	I feel loyal to my brand/organisation	4.08	0.95	9 2.2%	14 3.5%	73 18.1%	148 36.6%	160 39.6%	404 100%
BCM4	I talk about my brand/organisation to my friends as a great brand/organisation to work for	3.94	0.94	11 2.7%	7 1.7%	104 25.7%	154 38.1%	128 31.7%	404 100%
BCM5	I really care about the future of my company	4.20	0.86	9 2.2%	2 0.5%	56 13.9%	171 42.3%	166 41.1%	404 100%
BCM6	I am committed to my company because I feel like I fit in	3.97	0.91	10 2.5%	8 2%	88 21.8%	175 43.3%	123 30.4%	404 100%
Overall		**4.08**	**0.90**						

SD = Standard deviation, 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Table 7.12 presents the means and standard deviations of brand commitment. The mean value generated is 4.08 and the standard deviation is 0.90. The mean value shows that the respondents agreed that they were committed to the brand/organisation. 83% of the respondents indicated that they cared about the future of the brand/organisation and 80% of the respondents indicated that they were proud to work for the brand/organisation.

7.3 MEASUREMENT MODEL ASSESSMENT

The measurement model provides statistics from tests of constructs accuracies in terms of reliability and validity. As discussed in chapter 6, all the constructs that were used were adapted from other studies. The constructs which are assessed are: internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, internal market research, management support, employee satisfaction, brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance, brand endorsement and brand commitment. The results of the accuracy tests are presented in Table 7.13.

Table 7.13: Accuracy analysis statistics

Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	AVE Value	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item – total	α value			
BC	BC1	3,728	3,775	1,028	1,014	0,678	0,841	0,843	0,707	0,748
	BC2	3,743		1,063		0,694				0,784
	BC3	3,782		0,997		0,575				0,648
	BC4	3,631		0,986		0,593				0,660
	BC5	3,990		0,994		0,688				0,752
RC	RC1	4,515	4,211	0,720	0,838	0,656	0,894	0,897	0,781	0,691
	RC2	4,181		0,742		0,714				0,740
	RC3	4,359		0,826		0,751				0,803
	RC4	4,327		0,817		0,764				0,814
	RC5	3,985		0,968		0,737				0,798
	RC6	3,899		0,954		0,711				0,770
IR	IR1	3,386	3,368	1,056	1,044	0,758	0,876	0,881	0,811	0,832
	IR2	3,245		1,060		0,782				0,850
	IR3	3,208		1,055		0,747				0,804
	IR4	3,139		1,033		0,625				0,659
	IR5	3,193		1,065		0,704				0,764
	IR6	4,040		0,995		0,475				0,520
RW	RW1	3,359	3,184	1,130	1,100	0,784	0,895	0,896	0,825	0,854
	RW2	3,099		1,091		0,750				0,807
	RW3	3,047		1,026		0,721				0,758
	RW4	3,233		1,153		0,819				0,881
BE	BE1	4,111	4,105	0,831	0,858	0,824	0,941	0,948	0,872	0,851
	BE2	4,040		0,899		0,856				0,876
	BE3	4,050		0,870		0,866				0,903
	BE4	4,101		0,867		0,903				0,926
	BE5	4,225		0,825		0,827				0,870
BA	BA1	3,856	3,566	1,006	1,072	0,795	0,901	0,905	0,813	0,876
	BA2	3,599		1,119		0,797				0,843
	BA3	3,196		1,131		0,698				0,746
	BA4	3,614		1,033		0,839				0,887
MS	MS1	3,732	3,520	1,057	1,060	0,727	0,944	0,945	0,856	0,760
	MS2	3,313		1,093		0,837				0,865
	MS3	3,603		1,047		0,851				0,870
	MS4	3,429		1,040		0,814				0,846
	MS5	3,635		1,024		0,843				0,880

	MS6	3,390		1,074		0,812				0,828
	MS7	3,538		1,086		0,811				0,841
ES	ES1	3,032	3,371	1,055	1,072	0,615	0,892	0,894	0,764	0,642
	ES2	3,050		1,113		0,619				0,631
	ES3	3,255		1,092		0,778				0,814
	ES4	3,644		1,031		0,704				0,749
	ES5	3,233		1,183		0,731				0,793
	ES6	3,856		0,988		0,619				0,682
	ES7	3,527		1,043		0,766				0,842
BCB	BCB1	3,869	4,064	1,023	0,877	0,592	0,921	0,927	0,763	0,604
	BCB2	4,035		0,830		0,844				0,865
	BCB3	4,087		0,794		0,820				0,868
	BCB4	4,097		0,829		0,820				0,861
	BCB5	3,998		0,898		0,748				0,804
	BCB6	4,156		0,862		0,764				0,789
	BCB7	4,210		0,904		0,743				0,804
BCM	BCM1	4,158	4,085	0,868	0,898	0,813	0,949	0,950	0,870	0,841
	BCM2	4,161		0,855		0,846				0,871
	BCM3	4,079		0,955		0,865				0,892
	BCM4	3,943		0,942		0,822				0,854
	BCM5	4,196		0,856		0,888				0,912
	BCM6	3,973		0,909		0,836				0,862

BC- Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

7.3.1 Reliability

To measure the reliability of the measurement instrument, the Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) values were evaluated. This section presents the results of the methods that were used to test for reliability.

According to Munir (2018), an acceptable range for the Cronbach's alpha is 0.6 and above. Table 7.13 shows that the Cronbach's alpha values for each construct are as follows: BC – 0.841, RC – 0.894, IR – 0.876, RW – 0.895, BE – 0.941, BA – 0.901, MS – 0.944, ES – 0.892, BCB – 0.921 and BCM – 0.949. All the values exceeded the recommended minimum threshold of 0.6, therefore, reliability is confirmed.

Munir (2018) suggests that a composite reliability (CR) value should be 0.7 or higher in order for it to be considered acceptable and to show that there is internal reliability.

As shown in Table 7.14, the CR values are as follows: BC – 0.843, RC – 0.897, IR – 0.881, RW – 0.896, BE – 0.948, BA – 0.905, MS – 0.945, ES – 0.894, BCB – 0.927 and BCM – 0.950. All the values exceed the minimum recommended value of 0.7 and this indicates reliability for each of the constructs. Table 7.14 presents the CR estimates.

Table 7.14: Composite Reliability estimates

				Composite reliability (CR)			
					summation of error terms		**CRη=(Σλyi)2/[(Σλyi)2+(Σεi)]**
			Estimate	**$(\sum \lambda Y_i)^2$**	**΄Ei**	**∑έi**	**CR**
BC	<---	BC1	0,748	12,902	0,440	2,405	0,843
	<---	BC2	0,784		0,385		
	<---	BC3	0,648		0,580		
	<---	BC4	0,660		0,564		
	<---	BC5	0,752		0,434		
RC	<---	RC1	0,691	21,307	0,523	2,438	0,897
	<---	RC2	0,740		0,452		
	<---	RC3	0,803		0,355		
	<---	RC4	0,814		0,337		
	<---	RC5	0,798		0,363		
	<---	RC6	0,770		0,407		
IR	<---	IR1	0,832	19,616	0,308	2,650	0,881
	<---	IR2	0,850		0,278		
	<---	IR3	0,804		0,354		
	<---	IR4	0,659		0,566		
	<---	IR5	0,764		0,416		
	<---	IR6	0,520		0,730		
MS	<---	MS1	0,760	34,692	0,422	2,021	0,945
	<---	MS2	0,865		0,252		
	<---	MS3	0,870		0,243		
	<---	MS4	0,846		0,271		
	<---	MS5	0,880		0,226		
	<---	MS6	0,828		0,314		
	<---	MS7	0,841		0,293		
RW	<---	RW1	0,854	10,890	0,271	1,269	0,896
	<---	RW2	0,807		0,349		
	<---	RW3	0,758		0,425		
	<---	RW4	0,881		0,224		
ES	<---	ES1	0,642	26,553	0,588	3,163	0,894
	<---	ES2	0,631		0,602		
	<---	ES3	0,814		0,337		
	<---	ES4	0,749		0,439		

	<---	ES5	0,793		0,371		
	<---	ES6	0,682		0,535		
	<---	ES7	0,842		0,291		
BCB	<---	BCB1	0,604	31,304	0,635	2,477	0,927
	<---	BCB2	0,865		0,252		
	<---	BCB3	0,868		0,247		
	<---	BCB4	0,861		0,259		
	<---	BCB5	0,804		0,354		
	<---	BCB6	0,789		0,377		
	<---	BCB7	0,804		0,354		
BA	<---	BA1	0,876	11,236	0,233	1,179	0,905
	<---	BA2	0,843		0,289		
	<---	BA3	0,746		0,443		
	<---	BA4	0,887		0,213		
BE	<---	BE1	0,851	19,58948	0,276	1,079	0,948
	<---	BE2	0,876		0,233		
	<---	BE3	0,903		0,185		
	<---	BE4	0,926		0,143		
	<---	BE5	0,870		0,243		
BCM	<---	BCM1	0,841	27,37382	0,293	1,434	0,950
	<---	BCM2	0,871		0,241		
	<---	BCM3	0,892		0,204		
	<---	BCM4	0,854		0,271		
	<---	BCM5	0,912		0,168		
	<---	BCM6	0,862		0,257		

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

7.3.2 Validity

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess convergent and discriminant validity. Factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) were evaluated for convergent validity, and the inter-construct correlation matrix, was assessed for discriminant validity. Convergent validity is used to test the common variance shared by items of a construct (Boley & McGehee, 2014). “It is assessed through examining the strength of an item’s factor loading on its latent construct, the amount of variance extracted from the factor loadings, and lastly, the reliability of the construct” (Boley & McGehee, 2014, p.91). It is recommended that at a minimum, all factor loadings should be statistically significant and have loadings that are 0.5 or higher to confirm convergent validity (Boley & McGehee, 2014, p.91). Table 7.13 presents the factor loadings for this study, and the values range between 0.520 and

0.926. All the values exceed the recommended value of 0.5 or above. Thus, convergent validity is confirmed.

Alarcón, Sánchez and De Olavide (2015) recommend that an AVE value above 0.5 is acceptable and values that are above 0.7 are very good. Hair et al. (2010) also suggest that the AVE value should be above 0.5 because a lower value indicates that there are errors remaining in the items compared to what the variance explains. As presented in Table 7.13, the AVE values are: BC - 0.707, RC - 0.781, IR - 0.811, RW - 0.825, BE - 0.872, BA - 0.813, MS - 0.856, BCB - 0.763, ES - 0.764 and BCM - 0.870. All the values are above 0.7 thus, confirms good validity.

Discriminant validity tests the distinctiveness of each construct in comparison to other constructs in the model (Boley & McGehee, 2014). In this study, the inter-construct correlation matrix was assessed for discriminant validity. The results of the inter-construct correlation matrix are presented in Table 7.15. The highest correlation is 0.0861 (BE & BCM) and it is still below the recommended maximum value of 1 (Boley & McGehee, 2014). Therefore, all the inter-construct correlation values for the paired latent variables confirm the existence of discriminant validity.

Table 7.15: Inter-construct correlation matrix testing discriminant validity

Inter Correlations Matrix										
	BC	**RC**	**IR**	**RW**	**MS**	**ES**	**BCB**	**BA**	**BE**	**BCM**
BC	1									
RC	0.636**	1								
IR	0.605**	0.522**	1							
RW	0.549**	0.467**	0.676**	1						
MS	0.639**	0.577**	0.682**	0.728**	1					
ES	0.562**	0.487**	0.613**	0.741**	0.781**	1				
BCB	0.55**	0.564**	0.414**	0.446**	0.476**	0.487**	1			
BA	0.373**	0.377**	0.407**	0.5**	0.485**	0.614**	0.545**	1		
BE	0.517**	0.506**	0.431**	0.474**	0.461**	0.498**	0.807**	0.659**	1	

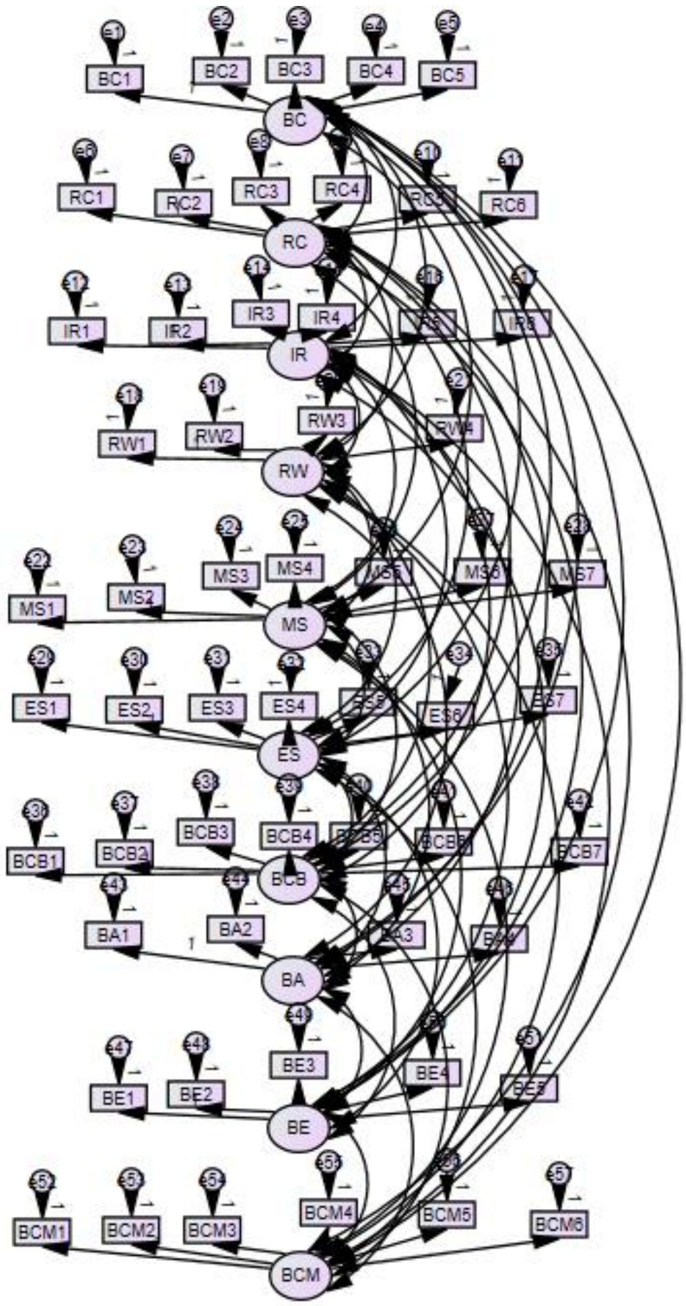
BCM	0.48**	0.492**	0.399**	0.499**	0.499**	0.551**	0.786**	0.699**	0.861**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).										

BC- Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

7.4 MODEL FIT ASSESMENT

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out using AMOS 26 to evaluate the measurement model. Figure 7.1 presents the CFA model of this study.

Figure 7.1: CFA Model



7.4.1 Model Fit Results

The model fit indices were assessed and the results are presented in Table 7.16. The following indices were assessed: the Chi-square, the normed fit index (NFI), the incremental fit index (NFI), the Tucker Lewis index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the goodness of fit index (GFI) and the random measure of standard error approximation (RMSEA). Chapter 6 gives a brief discussion of the acceptable values for each index. The measurement model included all 10 constructs and 57 measurement items. The results obtained are as follows: Chi-Square = 1.50, which is within the acceptable criteria of 3 or lower. NFI = 0.91, which is within the acceptable threshold of 0.9 or higher. IFI = 0.97, which is above the minimum acceptable value of 0.9. TLI = 0.96, which is above the minimum accepted value of 0.9. The CFI = 0.97, which is within the acceptable range of 0.95 or higher. GFI = 0.90, which is the minimum acceptable value. RMSEA = 0.04, which is within the acceptable threshold of 0.08 or lower. All the indices meet the recommended threshold for model fit therefore, these confirm good model fit.

Table 7.16: CFA Model Fit Results

Model Fit Indices	**Acceptable Threshold**	**Study's Values**	**Accepted/Not Accepted**
Chi-Square Value: $\chi 2/df$	<3	1.50	Accepted
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	>0.90	0.91	Accepted
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	>0.90	0.97	Accepted
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	>0.90	0.96	Accepted
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.95	0.97	Accepted
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	>0.90	0.90	Accepted
Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08	0.04	Accepted

The next sections present the model fit result from the structural model as well as the path analysis results.

7.5 STRUCTURAL MODEL AND PATH ANALYSIS

7.5.1 Model Fit from Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

The structural model was obtained from SEM, which is a statistical technique used for testing hypotheses between observed and latent variables (Wu, Taylor & West, 2009). SEM is used to obtain path values for a model, to test the fit of a model and to test the relationships between variables in a model (Vriens, 2006). Fit indices are also obtained through SEM. Absolute fit indices help evaluate how fit the hypothesised model is without comparing it to a baseline model, while relative fit indices measure the model fit improvement of the hypothesised model compared to a baseline model (Wu, Taylor & West, 2009). The fit indices are presented in Table 7.17.

Table 7.17: SEM Model fit results

Model Fit Indices	Acceptable Threshold	Study's Values	Accepted/Not Accepted
Chi-Square Value: $\chi 2/df$	<3	1.50	Accepted
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	>0.90	0.91	Accepted
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	>0.90	0.97	Accepted
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	>0.90	0.96	Accepted
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.95	0.97	Accepted
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	>0.90	0.90	Accepted
Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08	0.04	Accepted

Table 7.17 shows that the Chi-Square = 1.50 which is within the accepted value of 3 or less. NFI = 0.91, which is acceptable as the minimum accepted value for NFI is 0.90

or higher. IFI = 0.97, which is above the minimum acceptable value of 0.90 or higher, therefore, it indicates good fit. The TLI = 0.96, which is above the minimum acceptable value of 0.90. The CFI = 0.97, which is above the minimum acceptable value of 0.95. The GFI = 0.90, which is in line with the minimum acceptable value of 0.90 and the RMSEA = 0.04, which is within the acceptable range of 0.08 or less. All the indices met the acceptable threshold, therefore, a good model is confirmed. The next section presents the results of the hypotheses tests.

7.5.2 Hypotheses Testing

This section presents the results of the hypotheses tested in the study. Figure 7.2 presents the structural equation model with the path coefficients and Table 7.18 presents the path coefficients, p-values and the outcome of each hypothesis. Three significance levels were assessed (<0.01, <0.05, <0.1), with three asterisks (***) representing a <0.01 significance level.

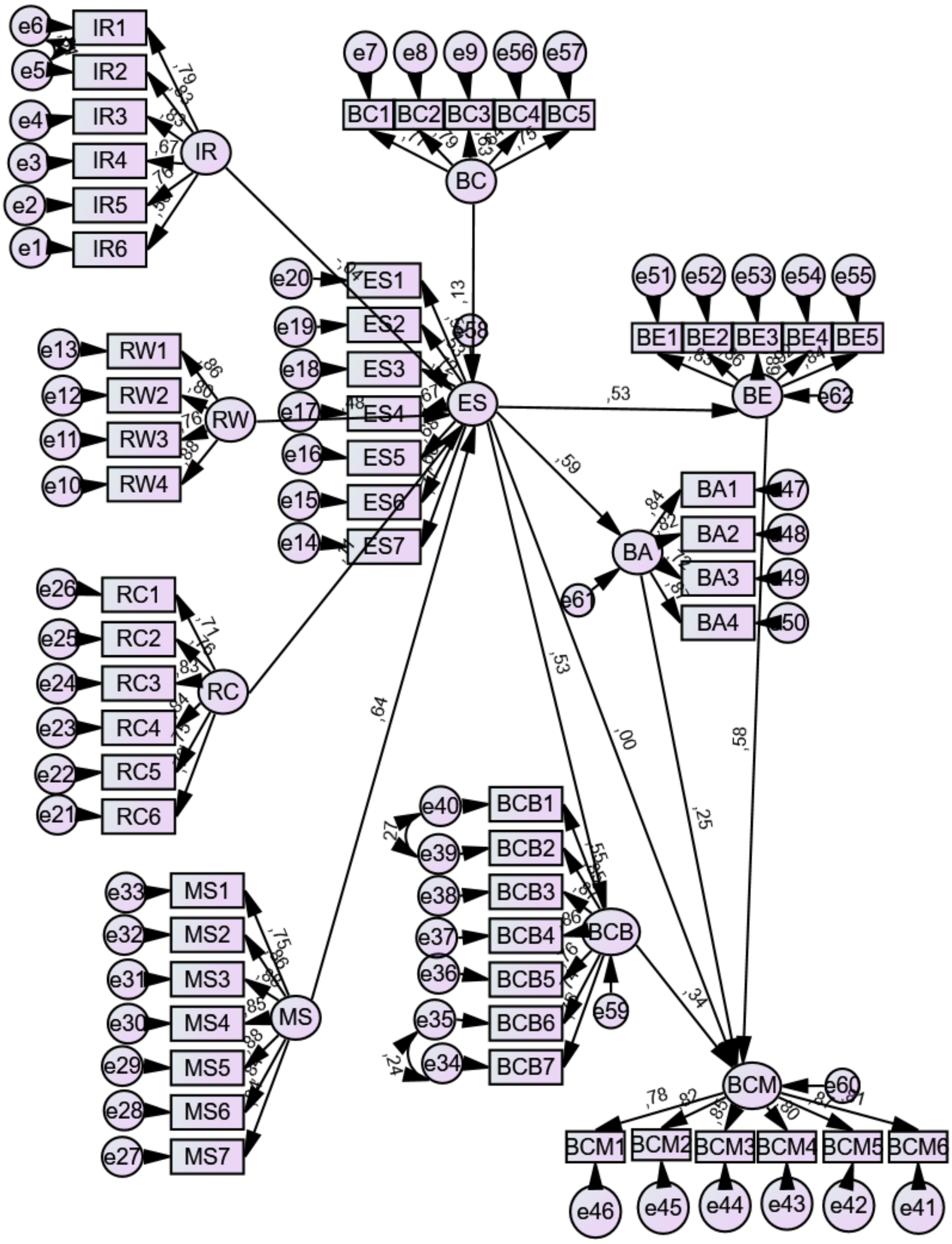
Table 7.18: Hypothesis results

Hypothesised Relationship	**Hypothesis**	**Path Coefficient**	**P-value**	**Outcome**
BC → ES	H1	0.130	***	Significant and supported
IR → ES	H2	-0.037	0.497	Insignificant and not supported
RC → ES	H3	0.111	***	Significant and supported
RW → ES	H4	0.476	***	Significant and supported
MS → ES	H5	0.645	***	Significant and supported
ES → BCM	H6	0.002	0.966	Insignificant and not supported
ES → BCB	H7	0.531	***	Significant and supported
ES → BA	H8	0.591	***	Significant and supported
ES → BE	H9	0.530	***	Significant and supported
BCB → BCM	H10	0.336	***	Significant and supported
BA → BCM	H11	0.254	***	Significant and supported
BE → BCM	H12	0.584	***	Significant and supported

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

Table 7.16 reveals that ten out of the twelve hypotheses were significant and supported, while H2 and H6 were not supported.

Figure 7.2: SEM Model



H5 (0.645) was found to have the strongest relationship and this looked at the relationship between management support and employee satisfaction. H8 (0.591), H9 (0.530) and H12 (0.584) were also found to have strong relationships following H5. The remaining hypotheses, H1, H3, H10 & H11, have path coefficients ranging between 0.111 and 0.476. A brief summary of each of the hypotheses results is provided below.

7.5.3 Summary of Hypotheses Results

H1: There is a positive relationship between internal brand communication and employee satisfaction

H1 has a path coefficient of 0.13, with a p-value of <0.01. Based on the findings, a positive significant relationship is found between the two constructs. This implies that the more an organisation communicates with employees about the brand/organisation, the more likely they are to become satisfied.

H2: There is a positive relationship between internal market research and employee satisfaction

H2 was not supported, with a path coefficient of -0.037 and a p-value is 0.497. These results imply that internal research in an organisation does not necessarily lead to employee satisfaction.

H3: Role clarity will positively impact employee satisfaction

With H3, the relationship was found to be positive and significant, with a path coefficient of 0.111 and p-value <0.01. This positive significant relationship indicates that when employees have clarity on their roles, they are likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

H4: The relationship between rewards and employee satisfaction will be positive

H4 was found to be positive and significant with a path coefficient of 0.476 and p-value of <0.01. This implies that employees who believe they are rewarded well are likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

H5: There is a positive relationship between management support and employee satisfaction

H5 indicates that there is a positive significant relationship between management support and employee satisfaction. The path coefficient is 0.645 with a p-value of <0.01. This implies employees who are supported by management are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

H6: Employee satisfaction will positively impact employee brand commitment

H6 had a path coefficient is 0.002 and the relationship was found to be insignificant and not supported. This indicates that employee satisfaction is not likely to lead to the commitment of employees.

H7: There is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and brand citizenship behaviour

H7 was found to be positive and significant with a path coefficient of 0.531 and a p-value of <0.01. The results imply that employees who are satisfied are likely to display brand citizenship behaviours.

H8: Employee satisfaction has a positive effect on brand allegiance

H8 results showed a positive significant relationship between employee satisfaction and brand allegiance with a path coefficient of 0.591 and a p-value of <0.01. This indicates that employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more likely to have intentions to stay with an organisation.

H9: There is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and brand endorsement

H9 revealed a positive and significant relationship with a path coefficient of 0.530 and a p-value of <0.01. The results indicate that employees who are satisfied are likely to endorse their organisation/brand.

H10: There is a positive relationship between brand citizenship behaviour and brand commitment

H10 showed a positive significant relationship with a path coefficient of 0.336 and a p-value of <0.01. This indicates that employees who display brand citizenship behaviours are likely to become committed to an organisation/brand.

H11: There is a positive relationship between brand allegiance and brand commitment

The relationship between brand allegiance and brand commitment was found to be positive and significant. The strength of the relationship is represented by a path coefficient of 0.254 and p-value of <0.01. This indicates that employees who intend to stay in an organisation are more likely to become committed to the organisation.

H12: There is a positive relationship between employee brand endorsement and brand commitment

The last hypothesis is H12, and it was found to be positive and significant. This indicates that employees who endorse an organisation are more likely to become commited to it. The strength of the relationship is represented by a path coefficient of 0.584 and a p-value of <0.01.

7.5.4 Mediation Test

Table 7.19 presents the results of the mediation test, which looked at the mediating role of employee satisfaction on the relationship between IBM factors (internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards and management support) and EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement). It also provides the results of the mediating role of EBBE benefits on the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment.

Table 7.19: Mediation results

Indirect Mediation	**Original Sample (O)**	**Sample Mean (M)**	**Standard Deviation (STDEV)**	**T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)**	**P Values**	**2.5%**	**97.5%**	**Decision**
IMR -> ES-> BA	0.007	0.010	0.031	0.226	**0.821**	-0.053	0.069	Not Supported
BC -> ES > BA	0.032	0.032	0.027	1.179	**0.239**	-0.019	0.086	Not Supported
MS -> ES -> BA	0.301	0.299	0.046	6.561	**0.000**	0.215	0.394	Supported
RW -> ES -> BA	0.206	0.206	0.036	5.737	**0.000**	0.137	0.278	Supported
RC -> ES -> BA	0.012	0.013	0.028	0.410	**0.681**	-0.046	0.065	Not Supported
IMR -> ES -> BE	0.006	0.008	0.026	0.226	**0.821**	-0.044	0.057	Not Supported
BC -> ES -> BE	0.026	0.027	0.023	1.154	**0.248**	-0.015	0.073	Not Supported
MS -> ES -> BE	0.248	0.245	0.038	6.439	**0.000**	0.177	0.328	Supported
RW -> ES -> BE	0.169	0.169	0.034	5.050	**0.000**	0.109	0.238	Supported
RC -> ES -> BE	0.009	0.011	0.023	0.404	**0.687**	-0.036	0.056	Not Supported
IMR -> ES -> BCB	0.006	0.008	0.026	0.226	**0.821**	-0.045	0.057	Not Supported
BC -> ES-> BCB	0.026	0.027	0.023	1.146	**0.252**	-0.015	0.074	Not Supported
MS -> ES -> BCB	0.248	0.245	0.039	6.370	**0.000**	0.176	0.328	Supported
RW -> ES -> BCB	0.169	0.170	0.035	4.904	**0.000**	0.107	0.242	Supported
RC -> ES -> BCB	0.009	0.011	0.024	0.402	**0.688**	-0.035	0.057	Not Supported
ES -> BA -> BCM	0.138	0.138	0.024	5.801	**0.000**	0.091	**0.186**	Supported
ES -> BE -> BCM	0.246	0.246	0.037	6.658	**0.000**	0.178	**0.324**	Supported

ES -> BCB -> BCM	0.137	0.139	0.030	4.568	**0.000**	0.085	**0.202**	Supported

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

According to the results in Table 7.19, employee satisfaction was found to mediate the relationships between management support, rewards and brand allegiance, brand endorsement and brand citizenship behaviour. All the relationships were found to be supported. All three EBBE benefits (brand allegiance, brand endorsement and brand citizenship behaviour) were found to mediate the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment. While the direct relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment (H6) was found to be insignificant, Table 7.19 indicates that employee satisfaction will impact brand commitment when mediated by three EBBE benefits (brand allegiance, brand endorsement and brand citizenship behaviour.

7.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the results of the data that was collected and analysed in this study in order to examine the impact of IBM on employee satisfaction; employee satisfaction on brand commitment and EBBE benefits; and EBBE benefits on brand commitment in the food service industry. The results revealed that with the exception of internal market research, all the IBM factors studied (i.e., internal brand communication, role clarity; rewards, management support) positively and significantly impacted employee satisfaction. While the satisfaction did not significantly impact brand commitment, it did positively and significantly impacted brand endorsement, brand allegiance, brand citizenship behaviour, which all significantly influenced brand commitment. Employee satisfaction and the three EBBE benefits played some mediating roles. The next chapter, chapter 8, discusses the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 presented the results of this study. This chapter discusses the results. The chapter commences with a recapitulation of the theoretical objectives and discusses how the study was able to achieve the objectives. Thereafter, there is a recapitulation of the empirical objectives and this leads to a discussion of the hypotheses results in relation to previous studies. This is then followed by the conclusions, which lead to the study's recommendations. Subsequently, the theoretical contributions, empirical contributions and the limitations of this study are discussed. Lastly, the researcher provides recommendations for future research and concludes the chapter.

8.2 DISCUSSION ON THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

This study had five theoretical objectives, which were as follows:

- Case study Famous Brands and understand why they are successful in the food service industry;
- Review literature on the internal marketing and brand management practices and their outcomes;
- Examine the importance of employee brand commitment;
- Investigate the predictors and benefits of EBBE;
- Review theories and models to develop an integrated conceptual model that can be used to examine the sources and outcomes of EBBE.

These theoretical objectives were achieved in chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Chapter 2 reviewed literature and reports on the food and beverages industry and the food services industry, globally and in South Africa. The chapter then looked at the history of Famous Brands and some of the organisation's success factors. It is evident that there have been various success factors for the organisation. Steers was the first brand in the organisation and it became one of the first fast food brands in the country to build a following before many international competitors entered the market. Acquisitions and joint ventures have also been integral in growing the organisation.

When the organisation started, it owned one brand (Steers) and today it has a portfolio of over 24 food service brands. Some of the brands that have been acquired or have become joint venture partners are brands like Debonairs Pizza, FishAways, Wimpy, Mugg n Bean and Tasha's, amongst other brands. FishAways is the biggest fish brand in South Africa, Debonairs Pizza is the biggest pizza brand in the country and Wimpy has one of the largest CDR footprints in the country.

Famous Brands has also integrated into manufacturing and logistics. This has allowed them to have control over the quality of products sold in their restaurants and a level of control over how their products are distributed to their restaurants. Today, they are the biggest food services franchisor in Africa, they are listed on the JSE, and they have over 2800 restaurants with some restaurants in the UK and the Middle East. While the image and value of the Famous Brands are readily recognised and measured, the brand value of the employees who deliver on the brand promises are usually not given much attention and not measured much by practitioners and academics. This study was therefore aimed at measuring the sources (from the internal brand marketing efforts) and the outcomes of EBBE (from the benefits gained from employee satisfaction). The ultimate benefit studied was brand commitment from the employees.

Chapter 3 reviewed literature on IBM and the literature looked at the origins, definitions, outcomes, and sources. From the literature review, it was highlighted that IBM is a subset of internal marketing. In the 1950s the importance of employees in delivering great service to consumers was first highlighted. Later, in the 1970s, the concept of internal marketing was introduced and in 2005, the concept of IBM was introduced as a subset of internal marketing. Over the years, numerous researchers have studied the dynamics and dimensions of IBM. The literature review revealed that IBM can have many benefits for organisations. For example, IBM equips employees with knowledge about the organisation, brand values, their jobs, and it aims to create the best environment for an employee to be able to deliver the brand promise to consumers. This results in employees feeling like the organisation cares about them and they reciprocate by taking care of the customers of the organisation.

The sources/dimensions of IBM that were identified from the literature review are: information generation, knowledge dissemination, employee motivation, openness, the “H” factor, communication, training, feedback, internal market research, rewards, empowerment, recruitment, performance management, development, management support, personnel management, external activities, rewards, working conditions, co-operation and integration, leadership and vision. These sources can contribute in the building of EBBE, provided that they lead to employee satisfaction, according to Du Preez et al. (2015). When looking at the outcomes of IBM, the following were identified: brand citizenship behaviour, employee satisfaction, loyalty, brand commitment, role clarity, brand loyalty and firm performance amongst others.

Chapter 4 gave an overview of EBBE, with specific focus on the predictors and outcomes of EBBE. It was found from the literature review that IBM is a key predictor of EBBE. This is because IBM provides role clarity and facilitates the knowledge of employees and these lead to the organisation benefiting from the knowledge gained, especially in terms of understanding the image of the organisational brand and protecting it (King et al., 2009). Other predictors of EBBE that were identified from the literature review include employee satisfaction, brand psychological ownership, brand commitment, work health culture, environmental orientation and perceived environmental uncertainty. Chapter 4 also investigated the benefits of EBBE and some of the benefits that were identified are brand allegiance, brand endorsement, brand-consistent behaviour, employee satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth. While King and Grace (2010) see brand commitment as a source or predictor of EBBE, Keller’s (2013; 2020) resonance pyramid model suggests that brand commitment and attachment are outcomes of building brand equity. This study therefore examined brand commitment as an outcome of three dimensions of EBBE.

Chapter 4 also reviewed the importance of brand commitment from the perspectives of employees. The chapter highlighted that employee brand commitment enhances the relationship between the employee and employer as well as other stakeholders of the organisation, like manufacturers and distributors. Other benefits of employees who are committed are lower employee turnover, increased, employee motivation, loyalty, productivity, and financial profitability.

Chapter 5 presented the conceptual model that underpins this study. The model was developed by integrating aspects of King and Grace’s (2009; 2010) EBBE and Du

Preez and Bendixen’s (2015) IBM frameworks, as well as ideas from the brand resonance model. From the conceptual model, twelve hypotheses proposing the relationships between the study’s constructs were formulated. The twelve hypotheses were tested and the results are discussed in the following section, which discusses the achievement of the empirical objectives.

8.3 DISCUSSION ON THE ACHIEVEMENT OF EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

This section discusses the extent to which the empirical objectives were achieved through empirical findings. There were four empirical objectives, which were as follows:

- Examine the relationships between internal brand management practices (i.e., internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, internal market research, and management support) and employees satisfaction;
- Assess the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment;
- Determine the extent to which employee satisfaction impacts EBBE benefits (i.e., brand citizenship behaviours, brand allegiance and brand endorsements);
- Examine the impact of EBBE benefits (i.e., brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance in the organisation and brand endorsements) on the brand commitment of the employees.

The following methods and analyses were used to achieve the empirical objectives.

8.3.1 Research Methods and Analyses Conducted to Achieve Empirical Objectives

Chapter 6 discussed the research methodology of this study. Considering the nature of the research problem and objectives, a positivist paradigm was adopted and quantitative methods were used for the collection and analysis of data. To collect data, a survey in the form of a cross-sectional self-administered questionnaire was utilised. Non-probability sampling (convenience sampling) was used to select the sample. The sample consisted of Famous Brands employees aged 18 years and older. A total of 404 employees completed the survey. Validated measurement scales were used to collect data. Constructs’ reliability and validity tests were conducted. The reliability was tested with Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability. All the values met the recommended threshold for reliability. For validity, discriminant validity and convergent validity were assessed. All the constructs' measurements were found valid. After testing the measurement model that also included test of model fits, structural equation modelling was conducted to test the hypotheses. The results from the analyses are presented in chapter 7.

Chapter 7 presented the descriptive statistics, validity, and reliability measurement results, model fit results, followed by the hypotheses test results. The descriptive statistics presented the demographic data of the respondents like age, gender, and race. The employee details which looked at the number of years the employees had been employed by Famous Brands, the department they work in, and the brands they work for were then presented. The results from testing the hypotheses showed that ten out the twelve hypotheses were supported. The hypotheses results are discussed in detail in the next section.

8.3.2 The relationship between IBM (internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, internal market research, management support) and employee satisfaction

H1 – The relationship between internal brand communication and employee satisfaction

The relationship between internal brand communication was found to be positive and significant with a path coefficient of 0.130 and a p-value of <0.01. These findings are consistent with Jacobs, Yu and Chavez (2015) who conducted a study in the manufacturing industry of China amongst managers and executives and found that internal communication had a positive significant relationship with employee satisfaction (β = 0.298, p<0.001). In a study by Huang et al. (2014) that looked at the relationship between internal communication and employee satisfaction in the tourism industry, it was also found that there was a positive relationship between internal communication and employee satisfaction. Men (2014) conducted a study in medium-sized and large corporations in the US and found that symmetrical communication in an organisation has a positive significant relationship with employee relational satisfaction. This is because employees are more likely to be satisfied with management when they are inspiring, visionary, creative, empowering, and interactive (Men, 2014). Based on these findings, marketers or managers should invest developing internal communication platforms as this is likely to result in satisfied employees.

H2 – The relationship between internal market research and the satisfaction of employees

This study proposed that when organisations collect information from employees (internal market research), it would lead to employee satisfaction as employers would likely have a better understanding of their employees' needs. Surprisingly, this study found that internal market research had a negative and insignificant relationship with employee satisfaction ($\beta = -0.037$, $p>0.05$). This result is in contrast with Huang et al. (2014) study conducted in Asia, where it was found that internal market research led to employee satisfaction. The results obtained in the current study may be attributed to the difference in the perception of internal market research by employees and management. While management may view internal market research as important for understanding the needs of employees in order to develop mutually beneficial relationships, employees may see internal market research in a different way, for example, they may construe it as intruding (King, 2008). Rogelberg, Luong, Sederburg and Cristol (2000) argue that employees may not view internal surveys as beneficial if they believe that the information generated from the surveys will not result in any action from the organisation.

Another reason for the negative relationship between internal market research and employee satisfaction, even though not significant, could stem from the fact that employees do not view internal market research positively because they believe that the organisation will not use the data in a responsible manner e.g. a lack of confidentiality (Rose, Sidle & Griffith, 2007). Some employees may treat the surveys they receive as junk mail due to perceived over-surveying in the organisation (Rose, Sidle & Griffith, 2007). This indicates that sometimes employees might not fully understand the objectives of internal surveys or have a negative attitude towards them because of past experiences. Irrespective of what the reasons are, it is generally important that organisations have a good understanding of how employees perceive their work environment in order to understand if they are meeting the expectations of employees or not (King et al., 2010).

H3 – The relationship between role clarity and employee satisfaction

This study found role clarity to have a positive significant relationship with employee satisfaction (β = 0.111, $p<0.01$). The findings in this study are congruent with Green and Rossler (2019) who found that crime analysts were more satisfied with their jobs when they had role clarity. Specifically, when crime analysts were clear about their occupational expectations, their job satisfaction was high and as a result, this increased their productivity and reduced the turnover of analysts. Karim (2017) looked at the relationship between role clarity and job satisfaction in the academic space and found the relationship to be positive and significant (β = 0.32, $p<0.01$). These findings indicate that organisations need to communicate their expectations to employees so that their roles can become clearer and this can lead to increased employee satisfaction.

H4 – The relationship between rewards and employee satisfaction

This study's test of the relationship between rewards and employee satisfaction found a positive and significant relationship (β = 0.476, $p<0.01$). The findings suggest that when employees believe that they are rewarded fairly, they are likely to be satisfied. This finding supports a study that was conducted by Channar and Shah (2017) in the banking industry, the study looked at the impact of tangible and intangible rewards on employee job satisfaction. Tangible rewards were found to have a positive significant relationship with employee job satisfaction (β = 0.604, $p<0.01$) and intangible resources were also found to have a positive significant relationship (β = 0.675, $p<0.01$). Akbar et al.(2017) conducted a study in a Pakistani organisation and they examined the impact of the various non-financial rewards (recognition, flexible working hours, advancement opportunities, feedback to employees, promotion, empowerment, job autonomy, a competitive work environment and individual rewards preference) on employee satisfaction. All the non-financial rewards were found to have a positive significant relationship with employee satisfaction, with promotion (β = 0.546, $p<0.01$) having the strongest relationship, while competitive work environment (β = 0.374, $p<0.01$) had the least strong relationship. These findings and the one in this study support the social exchange theory, which explains the importance of reciprocity in any relationship. The theory posits that healthy relationships occur when there are clear rules of exchange and the exchange is seen as fair by both parties (Chiniara, Bentein, Gebert, Heinitz & Buengeler, 2016). The same rules apply in work environments as organisations need employees to help them achieve their goals, while employees want benefits which come as a result of working for the organisation to be satisfied.

H5 – The relationship between management support and employee satisfaction

The present study found management support to have a positive significant relationship with employee satisfaction (β = 0.645, $p<0.01$). The findings were contrary to a study conducted amongst managers who had studied at Midwestern University, which found that management support had an insignificant relationship with job satisfaction (Kuratko, Hornsby & Bishop, 2005). The findings in this study were consistent with other studies conducted in different countries and industries. Pham, Pham and Pham (2016) conducted a study in Vietnam that found top management support has a positive significant relationship with employee satisfaction (β = 0.537, $p<0.01$). Lambert and Hogan (2009) conducted a study that looked at correctional services employees in the US and found that job satisfaction of employees in private correctional services was linked to management support (β = 0.28, $p<0.001$). Based on these findings, it can be argued that management support leads to employee satisfaction.

8.3.3 The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment

H6 – The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment

In this study, the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment was found to be insignificant (β = 0.002, $p>0.05$) therefore, suggesting that an employee's satisfaction might not be a predictor of brand commitment. The findings contradict a study conducted in a large insurance company in China that found that job satisfaction was linked to the commitment of employees (β = 0.46, $p<0.01$) (Fu & Deshpande, 2014). The results supported a study by De Menezes (2010) that studied British workplaces and found job satisfaction to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment. Although the direct relationship between employees satisfaction and brand commitment was found to be insignificant, when mediated by EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement) the employee satisfaction was found to make a significant impact on brand commitment. This indicates that EBBE benefits strengthen the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment. The next section discusses the outcomes of employee satisfaction and the findings in this study

8.3.4 The relationship between employee satisfaction and EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement)

H7 – The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand citizenship behaviour

In this study, employee satisfaction was found to be a predictor of brand citizenship behaviour. The strength of the relationship is represented by $\beta = 0.531$ and $p<0.01$. The findings align with a study that was conducted in the banking industry of Iran amongst managers, which found that employee job satisfaction has a positive significant relationship with brand citizenship behaviour ($\beta = 0.345$, $p<0.01$) (Ghenaatgar & Jalali, 2016). In a study by Porricelli, Yurova, Abratt and Bendixen (2014) that was conducted at a grocery chain in the US, it was found that job satisfaction has a positive relationship with brand citizenship behaviour ($\beta = 0.228$, $p<0.01$). Du Preez, Bendixen and Abratt (2017) also found that job satisfaction has a positive relationship with brand citizenship behaviour. The results in this study indicate that if organisations would like employees to exhibit behaviours which might not necessarily be stipulated for employees but beneficial to the company, then they need to ensure that employees are satisfied, as this will lead to them reciprocating through their behaviours.

H8 – The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand allegiance

The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand allegiance was found to have a positive significant relationship ($\beta = 0.591$, $p<0.01$). The results illustrate that satisfied employees are more likely to have intentions to stay employed by an organisation. The findings are supported by a university study, which found satisfied employees to have intentions to stay working at the university (Asgarnezhad, Ebrahimpour & Feizi, 2017). Another study was congruent with the findings and it found that nurses who were satisfied with their jobs had an intention to stay working for their workplaces and not change jobs (Andresen, Hansen & Grov, 2017). The study suggested that nursing leaders should improve the working environment in order to improve job satisfaction and reduce the turnover of nurses. In the financial services industry, Zamir (2019) found that satisfied employees had intentions to stay in their organisations ($\beta = 0.400$, $p<0.05$). All these findings indicate that managers should ensure that employees are satisfied, in order to reduce staff turnover.

H9 – The relationship between employee satisfaction and brand endorsement

This study found that employee satisfaction has a positive significant relationship with brand endorsement ($\beta = 0.530$, $p<0.01$). This is because employees who are not satisfied with aspects of their job like their colleagues, benefits, management style, etc. often say negative things about the organisation and happy employees are often seen through saying positive things about an organisation and acting in such a way that benefits the organisation (Arasli & Tumer, 2008). Haghighikhah, Khadang and Arabi (2016) conducted a study in the banking industry of Iran and the results showed that bank employees who were satisfied with their jobs had positive things to say about their workplace ($\beta = 0.907$, $p<0.01$). The results indicate that when employees are satisfied with their jobs, they are likely to endorse the organisation they work for by saying positive things about the company and its products to people inside and outside of the organisation. The next section discusses the findings pertaining to the relationship between EBBE benefits and brand commitment.

8.3.5 The relationship between EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement) and brand commitment

H10 – The relationship between brand citizenship behaviour and brand commitment

This study also looked at the effect of brand citizenship behaviours on the brand commitment of employees. The relationship was found to be positive and significant ($\beta = 0.336$, $p<0.01$). Although many studies have found brand commitment to have an effect on BCB, this study argues that employees who display BCB are likely to become committed to a brand, as suggested by Chinomona and Dhurup (2015). Numerous studies have looked at the impact of brand commitment on BCB. Shaari, Salleh and Hussin (2012) conducted a study across 12 hotels in Malaysia and found that brand commitment led to BCB ($\beta = 0.821$, $p<0.01$). Nouri et al. (2016) looked at the effect of brand commitment on BCB and found a positive significant relationship ($\beta = 0.344$, $p<0.05$). Other researchers have also looked at the effect of brand commitment on BCB (King et al., 2010; Erkman & Hanser, 2014; Zia, 2015; Du Preez, 2017). Brand citizenship behaviours are important because organisations that succeed often need employees who will do more than their normal duties and engage in behaviours that ultimately help the organisation succeed. Inverse to the studies highlighted above, some studies have found that citizenship behaviours lead to the commitment of employees (Yoon, 2012; Jain & Cooper, 2012; Chinomona & Dhurup, 2015).

H11 – The relationship between brand allegiance and brand commitment

This study found brand allegiance to have a positive significant relationship with brand commitment ($\beta = 0.254$, $p<0.01$). Studies have looked at the effect of brand commitment on brand allegiance and found the variables to have a positive relationship. In a study of Zimbabwean SMEs, Chinomona and Dhurup (2015) found committed employees to have intentions to stay working for an organisation ($\beta = 0.819$, $p<0.001$). Nasyira, Othman and Ghazali (2014) conducted a study at casual dining restaurants in Malaysia and found that employees who were committed to their restaurants had intentions to stay working for the restaurant ($\beta = 0.497$, $p<0.01$). While this study also looked at employees in the food services industry, it looked at the reverse relationship and found that employees who had intentions to stay working for the organisation were committed to the organisation. This indicates that an employee's intentions to work for an organisation have an impact on their commitment to the organisation.

H12 – The relationship between brand endorsement and brand commitment

A positive significant relationship was found between brand endorsement and brand commitment ($\beta = 0.584$, $p<0.01$). The relationship between brand endorsement and employee brand commitment is important because employees who are not committed to a brand are more likely to send out inconsistent messages or spread negative word-of-mouth that will affect the brand meaning and name in the minds of stakeholders (Kimpakorn & Tocquer, 2010). This study reveals that employees who endorse an organisation are likely to become committed to it. Therefore, it is important that managers have an understanding of whether employees are currently endorsing the organisation or understand that factors that lead to them endorsing an organisation as this can lead to their brand commitment and have a positive impact on the organisation and its success.

8.4 CONCLUSIONS ON THE EXPLANATORY POWER OF THE TESTED CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The previous section discussed the findings of the twelve hypotheses which were proposed in this study. Famous Brands employees, who work for the largest food services franchisor in Africa, provided valuable insights into how IBM strategies developed by organisations are impacting on the satisfaction of staff. The insights also helped to assess the extent to which the satisfaction impacts brand commitment directly and indirectly through EBBE benefits. This section concludes on the extent to which the developed conceptual model of these relationships explained the dependent constructs by looking at variances explained.

The variance explained of a dependent construct by the independent constructs is judged from the R^2. Brace, Kemp and Snelgar (2016, p.254) contend that the variance explained of a dependent construct with R^2 is the most useful method to assess the explanatory power of a conceptual model. Henseler et al. (2012) consider R^2 values of 0.19 (i.e., 19% explanatory power), 0.33 (i.e., 33% explanatory power) and 0.67 (i.e., 67% explanatory power) as weak, moderate and substantial, respectively. The explanatory power of the independent constructs from testing this study's conceptual model are found in Table 8.1 and Appendix E.

Table 8.1: Extent to which this study's conceptual model explains the dependent constructs

Dependent variable	Independent variables	R Squared	Standard error of the estimate
Employee Satisfaction	BC, IR, RC, RW, MS	0,675	0,47927
Brand Citizenship Behaviour	ES	0,237	0,63324
Brand Endorsement	ES	0,248	0,67718
Brand Allegiance	ES	0,377	0,74509
Brand Commitment	BE, BCB, BA	0,794	0,36534
Overall Brand Commitment	BC, IR, RC,RW, MS, ES, BCB, BA, BE	0,798	0,36440

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

8.4.1 *Conclusion on the degree to which internal brand management sources (internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards, management support) impacted the satisfaction of employees*

Marketers have started to recognise the importance of employees in achieving organisational goals, which is why IBM has been receiving attention. The shift in focusing on employees supports the resource-based view as it suggests that organisations should start by focusing on resources within the organisation (Panda & Reddy, 2016). Researchers have noted that if employees were satisfied, it would increase the likelihood of having satisfied customers (King et al., (2010). Thus, in this study, elements of IBM were identified as tools that can be used to satisfy employees. The elements or sources of IBM tested (i.e., internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards, management support) explained 67.5% of employee satisfaction. Management support made the greatest impact on satisfaction with an explanatory power of 48%, followed by rewards with an explanatory power of 34.9%.

Overall, the explanatory power (67.5%) of the employee satisfaction by the IBM efforts of Famous Brands was substantial as considered by Henseler et al. (2012). This study's integrated conceptual model explains a greater variance of employee satisfaction compared to Chen et al. (2020) and Du Preez et al. (2015) whose single models explained 13.2% and 36.7% respectively. It can therefore be concluded that the IBM by Famous Brands is making a good impact on the employees' satisfaction. Specifically, the acknowledgement and support that employees perceive to receive from management (management support) and the rewards the organisation gives them in terms of gratifications and motivations were found to be the key drivers of employees' satisfaction. Overall, this study demonstrated that when employees believe that they are fairly rewarded, supported, and brand information provided for their roles is made clear, it will result in their satisfaction. The satisfaction will in turn, have beneficial EBBE outcomes for the organisation as will be concluded in the sections that follow.

8.4.2 *Conclusion on the extent that employee satisfaction explains EBBE outcomes (brand commitment, brand endorsement, brand allegiance and brand citizenship behaviour)*

When firms invest in increasing employee satisfaction, there are expectations that the satisfaction will lead to varied benefits to the organisation and external stakeholders, including customers (Wolter et al., 2019). However, Wolter et al. (2019) caution that the benefits should not be assumed but should be measured. Following the assertions that employees who are satisfied with their jobs and organisation tend to be committed to the organisational brand, are unwilling to change organisations (Jahangir, Akbar & Begum, 2006; Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015), from which EBBE benefits can be gained (King & Grace, 2010), this study examined the impact of employee satisfaction on brand commitment, brand endorsement, brand allegiance and brand citizenship behaviour.

It was found that employee satisfaction does not directly explain brand commitment, with an explanatory power of only 4%. However, when mediated by EBBE benefits, it has a significant effect on brand commitment. Employee satisfaction explains brand commitment through brand allegiance, brand endorsement and brand citizenship behaviour, which it does by explanatory power of 37.7%, 24.8% and 23.7% respectively. These findings mean that when employees are satisfied, the benefits that the organisation can derive from the employees include their intention to stay in the organisation (brand allegiance), the positive things they say to others about the organisation (brand endorsement) and their going the extra mile (brand citizenship behaviours) to serve the organisation and its customers. Employee satisfaction was found to have the highest effect on brand endorsement and secondly, on the intentions to stay working for an organisation (brand allegiance) and lastly, brand citizenship behaviour. The findings all support results of previous studies where these relationships were found to be positive and significant (Ghenaatgar & Jalali, 2016; Andresen, Hansen & Grov, 2017; Zamir, 2019). Based on these findings, it can be concluded that if employers increase the satisfaction of employees, they will have employees who have intentions to stay employed in their organisations, spread positive word-of-mouth about the organisation they work for or the brands of the organisations, and they will exhibit behaviours that might not be stipulated in their scope of work but are beneficial to the success of the organisation. Whether all of these can lead to brand commitment is concluded in the section.

8.4.3 Conclusion on the extent to which EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement) drive brand commitment

The commitment of employees can be seen through the psychological attachments that employees have, that drive them to want to work hard to achieve the goals of the organisation (Erkmen & Hancer, 2015). Because organisations strive to achieve their goals, the commitment of their employees is very important. King (2008) suggests that when employees feel like they are important contributors to an organisation, they tend to be highly committed to the organisation. EBBE benefits such as brand citizenship behaviours, brand allegiance and brand endorsements are important contributions that employees can make to an organisation thus, they were proposed as sources of brand commitment. These three sources were found in this study to explain up to 79.4% of the variance in brand commitment, with brand endorsement making the greatest impact (50.8%) followed by brand citizenship behaviour (25.2%) and then brand allegiance (22.7%).

These findings show that if brands want their employees to emotionally attach (brand commitment) to their brands, employees need to have positive things about the organisation (brand endorsements), which will come as a result of satisfaction. They need to ignite the employees' intention to stay in the organisation (brand allegiance) before they worry about the employees giving their support to the brand (brand citizenship behaviours). Overall, the results show that if organisations are looking to drive brand commitment, they need to generate all three EBBE benefits (brand citizenship behaviours, brand allegiance and brand endorsements), which according to this study, can be obtained from employee satisfaction.

8.4.4 Conclusion on the extent to which the tested conceptual model explained the brand commitment (the final dependent construct)

The conceptual model in Figure 5.7 proposed that IBM factors which are internal brand communication, internal market research, role clarity, rewards and management support will positively impact on employee satisfaction. Employee satisfaction will in turn, impact brand commitment directly and through its effects on EBBE benefits, such as brand citizenship behaviour, brand allegiance and brand endorsement. On testing the conceptual model, it was found that the model explained 79.8% of the variance in brand commitment. This is a substantial explanatory power of the conceptual model, which was developed by integrating aspects of the models from King and Grace (2009; 2010) and Du Preez et al. (2015). This study's model explained far greater variance of brand commitment than King and Grace (2010) who explained 42% and Boukis and Christodoulides (2020), whose integrated model explained 43.5% of EBBE outcome (brand value dissemination to co-workers).

The strongest contributors in explaining brand commitment in this study are brand endorsement (45.5%), brand citizenship behaviour (25.5%) and brand allegiance (23.6%). All three EBBE benefits can be realised through satisfying employees and employee satisfaction can be achieved through good IBM. The findings of this study confirms Keller's (2013; 2020) notion of the fact that to achieve brand resonance, the top of the brand equity pyramid where brand commitment is found, there are brand building stages to be followed along the pyramid. The next section gives recommendations based on the findings of this study.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

8.5.1 Recommendation for conclusion 8.4.1 (Internal brand management and employee satisfaction)

In this study, it was revealed that four IBM sources had a direct influence on the satisfaction of employees. The sources were internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, and management support. Organisations should develop internal communication strategies and processes that allow for open communication between the organisation, its management, and employees. When done right, it will allow employees to understand the goals and values of the organisation. This understanding will enlighten employees on the reasons behind strategies of the organisation (Bengaluru, 2017). It is important that the communication is integrated across functions and departments so that employees do not receive mixed messages from the organisation, that way they would all work towards the same goals and ultimately deliver the same brand promise to consumers (King et al., 2010). Electronic communication, face-to-face meetings, video conferencing, internal networking sessions or messages in the workplace can be used as tools that allow the organisation to share their goals, values, share updates and for day-to-day communication amongst the stakeholders of the organisation (Ingvarsson & Strömbäck, 2019).

Another important IBM source that was found to be important in satisfying the needs of employees was role clarity. Employees must be equipped with information on their roles and what is expected of them when joining the organisation as well as throughout the time they are in the organisation (Orgambídez & Almeida, 2020). Organisations can use various ways to ensure that employees have role clarity. These may include training that helps them understand their roles and expectations by the organisation. This can happen in a formal setting with peers or one-on-one with a manager. Mentorship can also be used to increase role clarity (Oslo & Christophersen, 2015). The manager can become the mentor or another individual with experience in the role can be appointed to mentor employees. Status meetings between the employee and management or appraisals can be used as one-on-one sessions where expectations as well as areas of growth are discussed to ensure that there is role clarity (Bekele, Shigutu, & Tensay, 2014).

Rewards and management support were found to have a positive impact on the satisfaction of employees. Organisations should reward employees fairly in order to satisfy their needs. It is important that those rewards are aligned to the values of employees, otherwise they will not be deemed valuable even if they may seem like great rewards. Organisations need to understand their employees, their needs and then design rewards that will motivate employees to work hard. Various rewards can be used to satisfy the needs of employees, these can include pay raises, bonuses, promotions, recognition awards and days off, amongst other rewards (Husain & Batagoda, 2017). The support of management is also important in satisfying employees, managers should develop good relationships with employees as this will allow them to continuously guide and support employees. Managers who are supportive can also encourage employees to think out of the box and that can breed new processes or innovations in the organisation (Gomes et al., 2001). "For managers to adopt effective internal brand management practices, training and development with respect to brand knowledge and managing emotional Intelligence is necessary" (King & Grace, 2010; p.960). Therefore, organisations should ensure that management is well trained to support staff and they should develop key performance indicators that hold management accountable for supporting staff and implementing IBM programmes.

8.5.2 Recommendation for conclusion 8.4.2 (employee satisfaction and EBBE benefits)

This study found that satisfied employees engaged in actions which are not necessarily stipulated in their job specifications but are highly beneficial to the organisation (brand citizenship behaviours), they have intentions to stay working in the organisation (brand allegiance), which is highly beneficial to the organisation as high employee turnover can have negative effects for an organisation and lastly, they say positive things about the organisation or its brands to others which can lead to others believing in the organisation or trying out the brands of an organisation. Brand allegiance is particularly important as it was found to be the most impacted by the satisfaction of employees, therefore, it is important that organisations ensure that their employees are satisfied as this has a big impact on whether or not they stay in the organisation and high employee turnover can be costly for organisations (Kashive et al., 2017). Organisations should continuously invest in IBM as it has been proven to drive employee satisfaction, which in turn, impacts the actions and intentions of employees (EBBE benefits) which can help with the achievement of goals.

8.5.3 Recommendation for conclusion 8.4.3 and 8.4.4 (EBBE benefits and brand commitment)

This study demonstrated that when organisations have employees who display actions and intentions that are beneficial to the organisation, they are likely to become committed. This can be attributed to the fact often employees who say positive things about the organisation, display behaviours that show support for the organisation and intend to stay employed by the organisation are not likely to suddenly change their views, intentions or actions, unless there are compelling circumstances which lead them to change, instead they are likely to become committed to an organisation once they have openly displayed their actions and intentions. Organisations should therefore create a healthy work environment that can allow them to benefit from EBBE benefits in order to have employees who are highly committed. This study demonstrates that brand commitment is interdependent on the actions of the organisation (IBM), which in turn, affect the actions and feelings of employees (employee satisfaction, EBBE benefits and brand commitment). This came through when looking at the relationship between employee satisfaction and EBBE benefits, which was negative. This was also evident when the mediating effects of EBBE benefits were found to mediate the relationship between employee satisfaction and brand commitment. Therefore, organisations must ensure that they fulfil the needs of employees in order for their needs to be fulfilled.

8.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has theoretical and practical contributions, as discussed in the following sub-sections.

8.6.1 Theoretical Contributions

This study contributes to literature on IBM, strategic brand management, human resources, and relationship management. King et al. (2010) highlighted that brand equity and brand management literature has mainly focused on the consumer and the financial perspective, yet not enough literature has focused on employees even though there is increasing proof that employees are key in delivering the brand promise and the success of organisations. King and Grace's (2010) and Kwon's (2013) models have been used by numerous researchers to explain EBBE. While they have suggested relevant sources and outcomes of EBBE, other sources needed to be investigated. To fill the gap, this study integrated King and Grace's (2009; 2010) and Du Preez et al.'s (2015) models to develop and empirically test a model that includes more sources and outcomes of EBBE. The integration of the models provided greater explanation of employee brand commitment and can be used to examine the outcomes of brand building efforts of other organisations in and out of the service sector.

Organisations need to invest in adequate IBM practices in order to satisfy employees (Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015; Piehler, King, Burmann & Xiong, 2016). However, the challenge that often occurs is that there are various IBM sources that are cited in literature, which create the need to identify which ones are effective as resources are often scarce and need to be used effectively. This study contributes by exposing the sources useful for employee satisfaction from an emerging market point of view, particularly in South Africa, where few IBM studies have been conducted. Specifically, the model in this study identified four effective sources of IBM, namely, internal brand communication, role clarity, rewards, and management support.

This study contributes to literature on IBM by empirically showing four sources of IBM that are impactful on employee satisfaction in an emerging market context, with management support being the greatest contributor to employee satisfaction. This study supports the leader-member exchange theory which posits that relationships between leaders and followers are positively related to job attitudes, job performance and ultimate employee satisfaction. It shows here that leaders have an influence on employee satisfaction (Oliveira, Cavazotte & Dunzer, 2019).

Literature has emphasised that employee satisfaction is key for any organisation because when employees are satisfied, they tend to have more positive feelings about their jobs and as a result, they are more willing to help the organisation achieve its goals. In line with the social exchange theory, this means that "if a company takes care of its employees, the employees will take care of the customers. It is true that customers tend to have a better experience with organisations that have higher levels of employee satisfaction and engagement" (Chi & Gursoy, 2009, p.247). Employees who are dissatisfied are likely to leave the organisations for which they are working (Zafar & Zafar, 2019). This study contributes by showing that satisfied employees are able to reciprocate by offering organisations EBBE benefits, which have other outcomes that are beneficial not only to the organisation, but to its customers and other stakeholders.

Researchers have looked at the various outcomes of EBBE benefits and these have included firm performance, and market performance (Kwon, 2013; Poulis & Wisker, 2016; Etim & Uford, 2019). However, few studies have looked at the effect of these EBBE benefits on non-financial outcome like brand commitment. The majority of studies that have studied brand commitment and EBBE benefits have looked at how commitment leads to EBBE benefits but very few have explored the reverse impact (how EBBE benefits affect the commitment of employees). However, and according to Keller's (2013; 2020) brand equity resonance model, brand commitment is one of the final expected outcomes from brand building efforts. This study contributes by demonstrating that after all the efforts in building a brand internally to creating satisfaction and EBBE, the final outcome is indeed brand commitment.

8.6.2 Practical Contributions

There has been increased pressure for management to be accountable for any strategies implemented in the organisation, “the significance of being able to measure one’s actions, particularly when it involves a substantial organisational commitment with respect to time, money and personnel resources, is the increasing emphasis on senior management accountability” (King and Grace, 2010, p.959). Often when management proposes strategies that do not have solid proof that they work, it is often difficult to get buy-in or investment from the organisation. From a consumer perspective, there have been various studies and frameworks developed to show how organisations can achieve CBBE and as a result, it is easier for management to receive buy-in and budget for consumer-related strategies. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said about employee-related strategies. While literature depicts the importance of employees and investing in employees, there are not a lot of measurable frameworks available for management to use to justify investing in IBM.

This study offers managers a framework, whose empirical testing revealed that the investment in IBM significantly lead to employee satisfaction, which promises three good EBBE benefits (brand endorsement, brand allegiance and brand citizenship behaviour). Even though this study shows only how these EBBE benefits lead to only one non-financial firm performance indicator in terms of brand commitment by employees, the benefits can lead to a number of other non-financial and financial outcomes. Other reported outcomes are customer satisfaction (Wolter et al., 2019), executives’ willingness to receive lower pay (Tavassoli et al., 2014), customer-based brand equity, customer orientation brand value dissemination (Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020) and other financial/non-financial performances (Biswas & Suar, 2016). Brand/marketing managers and human resources managers can use the explanatory powers of the antecedents of this study to gauge which factors will be most important for resource allocation to achieve any of the elements of EBBE that drive required financial and non-financial outcomes.

In chapter 2, it was evident that there are a lot of food services brands entering the African market due to the continuous and projected growth of the industry. Many of these players are international brands. For African brands to successfully compete with the established international brands, they should harness the assets in their employees, as opposed to the overt focus on consumers' spending power. This is particularly important because employees play a vital role in getting consumers to support a brand, deliver on its promises and generate further CBBE (Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). Many EBBE studies have been conducted internationally, where the employee needs or dynamics may be different to an emerging market economy like South Africa. However, this study studied the employees of Africa's biggest food services franchisor and insights were gained into the factors that drive the EBBE benefits and brand commitment. Food services businesses and other businesses in Africa and emerging markets can use these findings to develop employees' and customers' retention strategies for their businesses.

Despite the contributions of this study, as with many studies, there are some limitations, which may provide opportunities for future research. The limitations and suggested future research are discussed in the section that follows.

8.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are various data collection methods and each of them have their pros and cons. This study used a cross-sectional self-administered questionnaire to collect data. While this method has many advantages, such as time-saving and large data collection, it has some limitations like the fact that it does not allow for trends and changes to be studied as data is collected at a single point in time (Sedgwick, 2014). Chapter 6 pointed out that conducting employee surveys can be challenging because employees can view the surveys as junk mail if they receive a lot of internal surveys. Another challenge may be the extent to which employees give honest answers due to a fear of being identified. In addition to fear, some employees may provide desirable answers and dishonest answers, a situation termed as social desirability bias. Social desirability bias is when "respondents provide answers that differ from their actual attitudes, values, or behaviours. If subjects change their answers for impression management (to look better to others), self-deception (to feel good about themselves) or identity definition, social desirability bias (SDB) occurs" (Larson, 2019, p.534). The problem of social desirability can be mitigated by not using face-to-face interviews, "using a survey mode with respondent anonymity and modifying questions to neutralize answers that appear socially acceptable" (Larson, 2019, p.535).

To mitigate these limitations, the researcher communicated with stakeholders in the organisations to ensure that the employees would not receive the survey at a time when they would be receiving other internal surveys and risk seeing this study as junk mail. To mitigate the fear of being identified, the survey was accompanied by a cover letter which provided the purpose of the research and assured the respondents that there would be confidentiality. Nonetheless, future research should look at methods that can be used to increase the participation of employees in research and assure employees that they will not be identified or victimised for providing honest feedback.

Famous Brands has employees in each province of South Africa and some have access to emails while others do not. To try and give as many employees as possible the opportunity to participate in the study, an online survey was distributed via email and a paper-based questionnaire was distributed to the manufacturing and logistics departments around Johannesburg, where many of the employees did not have access to computers or the internet. The emails were distributed to all employees however, only the employees in Gauteng where many of the manufacturing and logistics plants are based, received paper-based surveys due to limited resources to travel to the plants in other provinces like Western Cape. This indicates that there was non-coverage as employees without access to computers in other provinces were not able to participate in the study.

Even though Boukis and Christodoulides (2020) suggest that there are many outcomes of EBBE, this study focused only on brand commitment because the researcher assumed that brand commitment can lead to varied financial and non-financial firm performances. Future studies should examine the extent to which the integrated conceptual model tested in this study can explain other firm performance indicators such as customer retention, market share capture, business profitability brand preference and customers' willingness to pay a price premium. Future research should use the framework developed in this study in different industries, such as telecommunications, banking, and technology, as well as in different countries.

8.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The resource-based theorists see brands and employees as important assets of the business. The social exchange and identity theories postulate that if employees are well taken care of in every important aspect of their work-life and they identify with a company's image and brand, they would be satisfied and give back to the company by delivering on the brand's promises (Boukis & Christodoulides, 2020). With notions and considering the successes of Famous Brands in South Africa, this study integrated King and Grace's (2010) and Du Preez and Bendixen's (2015) models to examine the extent to which various Famous Brands' IBM practices are satisfying its employees and how the satisfaction is impacting brand commitment through its influence on three important EBBE benefits.

This study found that of the five IBM dimensions studied, management support and rewards were the greatest contributors to employee satisfaction. The employee satisfaction influenced brand commitment only through its significant effects on three EBBE benefits studied (brand allegiance, brand endorsement, and brand citizenship behaviour). Theoretically, this study contributes by providing a model that gives great explanation of employee brand commitment and can be used to examine the outcomes of brand building efforts of other organisations in and out of the service sector. Practically, it contributes by offering managers a framework, whose empirical testing revealed that the investment in IBM significantly leads to employee satisfaction, which promises good EBBE benefits (brand endorsement, brand allegiance and brand citizenship behaviour) which then leads to brand commitment. Future researchers should examine other benefits of EBBE and the financial and non-financial outcomes the benefits generate. As well as test the model in other industries and countries.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Participant Information Sheet

The University of Witwatersrand
Name: Boitumelo Sebopa
Cell: 0714586095
Email: boitscarol@yahoo.com

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a post graduate student at the University of Witwatersrand, studying towards a Doctor of Philosophy in Business Sciences (Marketing). As part of my studies I have to undertake a research project and my research topic is “BUILDING BRAND COMMITMENT FROM INTERNAL BRAND MANAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE-BASED BRAND EQUITY FACTORS.”

As part of my research project I would like to kindly request you to complete a questionnaire. This will take around 10 minutes. Your response will be of great value to the research.

Please note that you will not receive any incentives for filling in the questionnaire. There will be no disadvantages or penalties for not participating. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. The information in the questionnaire will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not be asking for your name, we will only require the department you work for. The information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else.

If you have any questions afterwards about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed above. This study will be written up as a research report which will be available online through the university library website (WiredSpace). If you wish to receive a summary of this report, I will be happy to send it to you upon request.

If you have any queries, concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact my supervisor, Professor Helen Duh, on Helen.Duh@wits.ac.za or the University Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical), telephone + 27(0)11 717 1408, email Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za or your line manager.

Please be advised that your identity and feedback will be kept anonymous.

Yours Sincerely,

STUDENT
MS BOITUMELO SEBOPA

STUDY SUPERVISOR
PROFESSOR HELEN DUH

Appendix B: Research Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate answer with an X. This questionnaire is strictly for research purposes only.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

This section is asking about your background information.

A1 Are you a Famous Brands employee?

Yes	1
No	2

A2 How long have you been employed by the organization?

0 – 1 year	1
2 – 4 years	2
4 - 6 years	3
6 years or more	4

A3 Which department do you work in?

Marketing or Product	1
Operations	2
Manufacturing or Logistics	3
Human Resources or Finance	4
Development	5
Other	6

A4 Which brand do you work for?

Quick Service Restaurant (QSR) Brand (Debonairs Pizza, Steers, FishAways, Wakaberry, Giramundo, Milky Lane)	1
Casual Dining Restaurant (CDR) Brand (Wimpy, Mugg n Bean, Fego Café)	2
Signature Brand (Tasha's, Salsa, Vovo Telo, Turn n Tender, Mythos, Lupa, Pauls)	3
More than one brand	4

A5 Please indicate your gender

1 Male	1
2 Female	2

A6 Please indicate your age category

18 – 25 years	1
26 – 35 years	2
36 – 45years	3

46 - 55 years	4
56 years +	5

A7 Please indicate your highest qualification

High School graduate	1
Diploma	2
Degree	3
Post graduate degree	4
Other	5

A8 Please indicate your population group

White	1
Black	2
Coloured	3
Asian/Indian	4
Other	5

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by ticking the corresponding number in the 5 point scale below whereby:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

SECTION B: Internal Brand Management

1. **Internal Brand Communication** (Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015))

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your organisation's/brand's internal brand communication:

		Strongly disagree	**disagree**	**Neutral**	**agree**	**Strongly agree**
BC1	I feel I am well informed by our headquarters about our brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BC2	I feel I am well informed by my direct manager about our brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BC3	I often discuss the importance of our brand/organisation with my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
BC4	In our company there are stories/anecdotes circulating that express what our brand/organisation stands for	1	2	3	4	5
BC5	We are constantly reminded of maintaining the image of our brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5

2. **Role Clarity** (Grace & King, 2010)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your role clarity

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree
RC1	I know how to behave at my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
RC2	I know how to handle unusual problems	1	2	3	4	5
RC3	I know what performance is expected from me	1	2	3	4	5
RC4	I understand what is expected of me because of the information they give us about maintaining our brand/organisational image	1	2	3	4	5
RC5	I know how to make decisions because of the brand/organisational information I have received	1	2	3	4	5
RC6	I understand what is expected of me because of the information they give us about maintaining our brand/organisational image	1	2	3	4	5

3. **Internal Market Research** (Billy & To, 2013; Huang & Rundle-Thiele, 2014)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your organization's/brand's internal market research

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
IR1	My brand/organisation gathers employees' opinions about issues	1	2	3	4	5
IR2	My brand/organisation regularly seeks employee suggestions	1	2	3	4	5
IR3	My brand/organisation collects data on employees' complaints	1	2	3	4	5
IR4	My brand/organisation does a lot of internal market research	1	2	3	4	5
IR5	My brand/organisation talks with me to identify issues that I may have	1	2	3	4	5
IR6	My brand/organisation surveys employees at least once a year to assess their level of satisfaction and the quality of their performance	1	2	3	4	5

4. **Rewards** (Kim, Song & Lee, 2016)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding rewards at your workplace

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
RW1	This brand/organisation fairly rewards an employee's performance	1	2	3	4	5
RW2	This brand/organisation establishes my pay linked to my performance	1	2	3	4	5

RW3	In this brand/organisation, those employees who develop a close relationship with customers are rewarded for their efforts	1	2	3	4	5
RW4	My brand/organisation cares about rewarding efforts put to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5

5. **Management Support** (King & Grace, 2010)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your management's support:

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
MS1	Management shares the brand's/organisation's values	1	2	3	4	5
MS2	Management often considers my goals and values	1	2	3	4	5
MS3	Management often provides me with help	1	2	3	4	5
MS4	Management tries to make my job interesting	1	2	3	4	5
MS5	Management is willing to help me to perform the best I can	1	2	3	4	5
MS6	Management understands my problems	1	2	3	4	5
MS7	Management acknowledges my efforts	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C:

1. **Employee Satisfaction** (Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your satisfaction with your workplace:

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**agree**	**Strongly agree**
ES1	I am satisfied with my fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5
ES2	I am satisfied with the pay I receive for my job	1	2	3	4	5
ES3	I am satisfied with the recognition that I get when I have done a good job	1	2	3	4	5
ES4	I am satisfied with the freedom I have to do the best I can at my job	1	2	3	4	5
ES5	I am satisfied with my opportunities for career advancement	1	2	3	4	5
ES6	I am satisfied with the type of work I do	1	2	3	4	5
ES7	I am satisfied with the support I get at work	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D:

1. **Brand Citizenship Behavior** (King & Grace, 2010)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your brand citizenship behavior:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
BCB1	I sometimes do tasks outside of my own area to satisfy customers	1	2	3	4	5
BCB2	I do things that will consistently keep the brand image of my brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BCB3	I consider my impact on the brand/organisation before acting	1	2	3	4	5
BCB4	I put in extra initiative to maintain the brand/organisational image	1	2	3	4	5
BCB5	I regularly recommend my brand/organisation to customers and other employees	1	2	3	4	5
BCB6	I am always willing to pass on brand/organisational knowledge to new employees	1	2	3	4	5
BCB7	I am interested to learn more about my brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5

2. **Brand Allegiance** (King & Grace, 2010)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your brand allegiance:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
BA1	I plan to work for this company for a while	1	2	3	4	5
BA2	I plan to work in this company in five years' time	1	2	3	4	5
BA3	I would turn down another company's offer since I am okay with my current company	1	2	3	4	5
BA4	I have planned to stay in this company	1	2	3	4	5

3. **Brand Endorsement** (King & Grace, 2010)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your brand endorsement:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
BE1	I say positive things about my brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BE2	I often recommend my brand/organisation to others	1	2	3	4	5

BE3	I enjoy talking about my brand/organisation and what we stand for	1	2	3	4	5
BE4	I talk positively about my brand/organisation and its brand name	1	2	3	4	5
BE5	I am willing the protect the image of my brand/organisation’s name	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E:

1. **Brand Commitment** (Preez & Bendixen, 2015)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your brand commitment:

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
BCM1	I will work harder than I am expected in order to make my brand/organisation successful	1	2	3	4	5
BCM2	I am proud to work for my brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BCM3	I feel loyal to my brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BCM4	I talk about my brand/organisation to my friends as a great brand/organisation to work for	1	2	3	4	5
BCM5	I really care about the future of my brand/organisation	1	2	3	4	5
BCM6	I am committed to my brand/organisation because I feel like I fit in	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

Appendix C: Ethical Clearance Certificate

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Sebopa

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H18/09/35**
PROJECT TITLE	Building brand commitment from internal brand management and employee-based brand quity factors
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Miss B Sebopa
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Business and Economic Sciences/
DATE CONSIDERED	14 September 2018
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	19 November 2022

DATE 20 November 2019 **CHAIRPERSON** ________ (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr H Duh

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

______________________ Signature

_____/_____/_____ Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix D: Path Coefficients and P-Values

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ES	<---	IR	-0,05	0,052	-0,957	0,339
ES	<---	RC	0,109	0,038	2,889	0,004
ES	<---	BC	0,111	0,034	3,266	0,001
ES	<---	MS	0,484	0,037	13,002	***
ES	<---	RW	0,32	0,03	10,736	***
BA	<---	ES	0,682	0,065	10,459	***
BCB	<---	ES	0,505	0,055	9,168	***
BE	<---	ES	0,505	0,053	9,582	***
BCM	<---	BCB	0,327	0,04	8,108	***
BCM	<---	BA	0,204	0,034	6,068	***
BCM	<---	BE	0,567	0,045	12,73	***
BCM	<---	ES	0,002	0,045	0,043	0,966
IR6	<---	IR	1			
IR5	<---	IR	1,612	0,165	9,743	***
IR4	<---	IR	1,387	0,151	9,192	***
IR3	<---	IR	1,737	0,172	10,085	***
IR2	<---	IR	1,745	0,174	10,033	***
IR1	<---	IR	1,672	0,17	9,856	***
BC1	<---	BC	1			
BC2	<---	BC	1,055	0,069	15,201	***
BC3	<---	BC	0,784	0,065	12,029	***
RW4	<---	RW	1			
RW3	<---	RW	0,768	0,042	18,159	***
RW2	<---	RW	0,866	0,044	19,899	***
RW1	<---	RW	0,957	0,043	22,028	***
ES7	<---	ES	1			
ES6	<---	ES	0,787	0,066	11,943	***
ES5	<---	ES	1,038	0,076	13,656	***
ES4	<---	ES	0,889	0,067	13,324	***
ES3	<---	ES	0,996	0,069	14,44	***
ES2	<---	ES	0,794	0,077	10,354	***
ES1	<---	ES	0,768	0,072	10,622	***
RC6	<---	RC	1			
RC5	<---	RC	1,047	0,072	14,56	***
RC4	<---	RC	0,984	0,061	16,22	***
RC3	<---	RC	0,984	0,061	16,052	***
RC2	<---	RC	0,811	0,055	14,72	***
RC1	<---	RC	0,741	0,054	13,837	***

MS7	<---	MS	1			
MS6	<---	MS	0,996	0,047	21,248	***
MS5	<---	MS	0,987	0,044	22,688	***
MS4	<---	MS	0,97	0,045	21,443	***
MS3	<---	MS	1,01	0,044	22,708	***
MS2	<---	MS	1,033	0,047	21,924	***
MS1	<---	MS	0,868	0,049	17,606	***
BCB7	<---	BCB	1			
BCB6	<---	BCB	0,937	0,054	17,431	***
BCB5	<---	BCB	0,996	0,064	15,514	***
BCB4	<---	BCB	1,034	0,058	17,98	***
BCB3	<---	BCB	1	0,055	18,2	***
BCB2	<---	BCB	1,018	0,058	17,614	***
BCB1	<---	BCB	0,851	0,078	10,974	***
BCM6	<---	BCM	1			
BCM5	<---	BCM	0,996	0,048	20,916	***
BCM4	<---	BCM	1,027	0,056	18,38	***
BCM3	<---	BCM	1,086	0,054	19,963	***
BCM2	<---	BCM	0,949	0,05	19,043	***
BCM1	<---	BCM	0,931	0,052	17,817	***
BA1	<---	BA	1			
BA3	<---	BA	0,983	0,061	16,124	***
BA4	<---	BA	1,06	0,051	20,944	***
BE1	<---	BE	1			
BE2	<---	BE	1,118	0,052	21,513	***
BE3	<---	BE	1,117	0,049	22,844	***
BE4	<---	BE	1,147	0,047	24,215	***
BE5	<---	BE	1,005	0,049	20,72	***
BC4	<---	BC	0,796	0,064	12,353	***
BC5	<---	BC	0,93	0,065	14,411	***
BA2	<---	BA	1,086	0,057	19,186	***

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
ES	<---	IR	-0,037
ES	<---	RC	0,111
ES	<---	BC	0,13
ES	<---	MS	0,645
ES	<---	RW	0,476
BA	<---	ES	0,591
BCB	<---	ES	0,531

BE	<---	ES	0,53
BCM	<---	BCB	0,336
BCM	<---	BA	0,254
BCM	<---	BE	0,584
BCM	<---	ES	0.002
IR6	<---	IR	0,504
IR5	<---	IR	0,759
IR4	<---	IR	0,673
IR3	<---	IR	0,826
IR2	<---	IR	0,826
IR1	<---	IR	0,794
BC1	<---	BC	0,775
BC2	<---	BC	0,791
BC3	<---	BC	0,627
RW4	<---	RW	0,879
RW3	<---	RW	0,759
RW2	<---	RW	0,804
RW1	<---	RW	0,858
ES7	<---	ES	0,766
ES6	<---	ES	0,603
ES5	<---	ES	0,681
ES4	<---	ES	0,666
ES3	<---	ES	0,716
ES2	<---	ES	0,528
ES1	<---	ES	0,541
RC6	<---	RC	0,728
RC5	<---	RC	0,751
RC4	<---	RC	0,837
RC3	<---	RC	0,828
RC2	<---	RC	0,759
RC1	<---	RC	0,714
MS7	<---	MS	0,837
MS6	<---	MS	0,843
MS5	<---	MS	0,877
MS4	<---	MS	0,848
MS3	<---	MS	0,877
MS2	<---	MS	0,859
MS1	<---	MS	0,746
BCB7	<---	BCB	0,753
BCB6	<---	BCB	0,739
BCB5	<---	BCB	0,755
BCB4	<---	BCB	0,861
BCB3	<---	BCB	0,87
BCB2	<---	BCB	0,845
BCB1	<---	BCB	0,554

BCM6	<---	BCM	0,808
BCM5	<---	BCM	0,873
BCM4	<---	BCM	0,798
BCM3	<---	BCM	0,845
BCM2	<---	BCM	0,818
BCM1	<---	BCM	0,78
BA1	<---	BA	0,841
BA3	<---	BA	0,722
BA4	<---	BA	0,873
BE1	<---	BE	0,829
BE2	<---	BE	0,859
BE3	<---	BE	0,891
BE4	<---	BE	0,923
BE5	<---	BE	0,84
BC4	<---	BC	0,643
BC5	<---	BC	0,746
BA2	<---	BA	0,817

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour; BCM-Brand Commitment

Appendix E: R Squared Values

Predictors of Employee Satisfaction

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.822[a]	0,675	0,671	0,47984
a. Predictors: (Constant), MS, RC, IR, BC, RW				

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; MS-Mangement Support

Predictors of Brand Citizenship Behaviour

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.487[a]	0,237	0,236	0,63324
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES				

ES-Employee Satisfaction

Predictor of Brand Endorsement

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.498[a]	0,248	0,246	0,67718

a. Predictors: (Constant), ES

ES-Employee Satisfaction

Predictor of Brand Allegiance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.614[a]	0,377	0,376	0,74509
a. Predictors: (Constant), ES				

ES-Employee Satisfaction

Predictors of Brand Commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.891[a]	0,794	0,793	0,36534
a. Predictors: (Constant), BE, BCB, BA				

BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour

Predictors of Overall Brand Commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.894[a]	0,798	0,794	0,36440
a. Predictors: (Constant), BE, IR, RC, ES, BC, RW, BA, BCB, MS				

BC-Internal Brand Communication; RC-Role Clarity; IR-Internal Market Research; RW-Rewards; BE-Brand Endorsement; BA-Brand Allegiance; MS-Management Support; ES-Employee Satisfaction; BCB-Brand Citizenship Behaviour