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# **The moderating effect of culture on the interactions of internal brand management practices and its outcomes**

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## **Abstract**

**Title:** The moderating effect of culture on the interactions of internal brand management practices and its outcomes

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As the management of the firm's workforce constitutes a strategically important source of its success, both scholars and practitioners are paying increasing attention to the recent field of internal brand management. Up to now, no study has focused on the moderation effects of culture and employee characteristics on the relationship between the three internal brand management practices (brand-oriented human resource management, brand communication, and brand-oriented leadership) and their two outcomes (brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior). To fill the scientific gap, collectivistic Portugal is compared to individualistic Germany by analyzing the data of 319 employees, which has been collected via an online survey. The analysis finds (1) an effect of all three practices on brand commitment while (2) only brand communication and brand commitment affect brand citizenship behavior. Additionally, (3) culture moderates the relationship between brand-oriented leadership and brand commitment whereas (4) educational background functions as a moderator of brand-oriented human resource management and brand citizenship behavior. Due to the study's focus on two-way interactions effects, future research needs to examine the impact of multiple moderators. Moreover, the generalizability of the findings is questionable since the broad spectrum of employees' industries may have incorporated third variables and the sample mainly consisted of Germans. The findings emphasize the benefits of internal brand management and help managers to implement effective tools to increase their employees' emotional bond with the brand and to enhance brand-strengthening behavior in a cross-cultural context.

**Keywords:** Internal brand management | culture | employee characteristics | brand citizenship behavior

## Resumo

**Título:** O efeito moderador da cultura sobre as interações das práticas internas de gestão de marca e os seus resultados  
**Autor:** Jan Felix Lauer

Assim como a gestão dos colaboradores de uma empresa é um fator estratégico de sucesso, também diversos investigadores se têm debruçado sobre o estudo da gestão interna da marca. No entanto, até agora, nenhum estudo se focou nos efeitos das características da cultura e dos colaboradores na relação com as três dimensões de gestão interna da marca – gestão da marca orientada aos recursos humanos, promoção da marca e liderança focada na marca – e nos seus dois resultados – compromisso com a marca e o comportamento cívico da marca. Para colmatar a falta de estudos científicos, este fenómeno é estudado através da comparação entre o contexto Português (país coletivista) e o contexto Alemão, através de um questionário online a cerca de 319 colaboradores. A análise concluiu que existe (1) um efeito significativo das três práticas sobre o compromisso para com a marca, enquanto (2) apenas a comunicação e o compromisso para com a marca afetam o comportamento de cidadania da mesma. Além disso, (3) a cultura modera a relação entre a liderança orientada para a marca e o compromisso da marca, enquanto (4) os antecedentes educacionais funcionam como um moderador da gestão de recursos humanos orientada para a marca e do comportamento da cidadania da marca. As descobertas reforçam os benefícios da gestão interna da marca e ajudam os gestores a desenvolver ferramentas eficazes para aumentar o vínculo emocional dos seus colaboradores com a marca e fortalecer o comportamento da marca num contexto multicultural.

**Palavras-chave:** Gestão interna da marca | cultura | características do colaborador | comportamento cívico da marca

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## IV List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Abbreviated word or term
DV	Dependent variable
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
e.g.	Exempli gratia / for example
HRM	Human resource management
HR	Human resource
InBM	Internal brand management
IV	Independent variable
VIF	Variance-inflation factor

# 1 Introduction

The world we live in is constantly changing: Innovation and modification affect the global markets on a daily basis. The internet shortens innovation cycles and offers countless comparable products. Companies, once only operating regionally, become part of a worldwide competition (Renner 2006). Simultaneously, the customer is changing as well. He becomes more sophisticated, more price-sensitive and wants the full experience with every purchase. He has the opportunity to order almost everything online, which gives him power but also the agony of choice (Esch 2014; Esch, Rempel, and Wicke 2005a).

Precisely in this ever-changing environment, brands prosper. They offer something more than just a tangible product – they provide trust and guidance (Elliott and Yannopoulou 2007). It is their recognizability which not only helps the customer on his journey through the supermarket but also enhances his self-concept (Jamal and Al-Marri 2007). Esch and colleagues (2005a) postulate brands as the absolute mega-topic of our times for a reason.

Despite this all-encompassing significance of brands, current data shows that their importance has not yet entirely arrived in the everyday life of companies. Kupetz and Meier-Kortwig (2017) study the German market and conclude that in 32% of the firms which are studied, the brand does not have a distinct profile – both externally as well as internally. It comes as no surprise that only in 53% of the firms, the employees' have an unclear understanding of the brand.

However, for almost all interviewed managers (95%), the brand constitutes as an essential success factor, necessary to differentiate between competition and to increase the customer's loyalty (Kupetz and Meier-Kortwig, 2017). To unfold this potential, the brand strategy has to be turned into brand-aligned experiences, which rely on the behavior of the firm's employees (Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop 2005; Boone 2000). This brand-strengthening behavior strongly depends on motivated and committed employees (Piehler et al. 2016b). It is not without reason that the Ritz Carlton treats their employees as “the most important resource in [their] service commitment to [their] guests” (The Ritz-Carlton 2017, no page).

Accordingly, the problem statement of this dissertation focuses on the internal part of brand management. Besides research on internal brand management (InBM) still being in its infancy (Burmam, Zeplin, and Riley 2009), even less is known about the influence of culture on InBM specific relationships (Ravens 2014). To fill this gap, the goal of this thesis is to analyze culture- and employee-specific effects on the relationships between InBM practices and InBM

outcomes. This problem statement is derived from a call for papers of the Journal of Brand Management (Piehler et al. 2016a).

## **1.1 Academic and Managerial Relevance**

Firstly, the topic itself is scientifically new (Burmam et al. 2009) and still developing (Devasagayam et al. 2010). Apart from an early mentioning of the necessity of employees knowing and supporting the identity of the brand (Aaker 1996), the academic research started approximately just a decade ago: In the English-speaking literature articles were first published in the mid-2000s (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Burmam et al. 2009; King and Grace 2008, 2012; Punjaisri, Evanschitzky, and Wilson 2009; Punjaisri and Wilson 2007, 2011; Punjaisri, Wilson, and Evanschitzky 2008; Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005, 2006), whereas some earlier concepts can be found in the German-speaking literature (Burmam and Zeplin 2004, 2005a, 2005c; Bruhn 2005, 2008; Brexendorf and Tomczak 2004; Esch et al. 2005b; Tomczak et al. 2012; Wittke-Kothe 2001). The focus on a cultural impact on InBM is especially under-researched (Ravens 2014). Hence, this dissertation will shed light on the impact of cultural influences in the field of InBM.

Secondly, the resource-based theory states that a competitive advantage results from a superior pool of resources and competencies (Kozlenkova, Samaha, and Palmatier 2014; Wernerfelt 1984). Thus, the company's workforce constitutes as a strategically important source for the firm's success (Patrick, Dunford, and Snell 2001; Simi 2014). The InBM approach is embracing this idea by enabling the employees of a firm to live up to the brand promise so that the brand-customer relationship can be cultivated and improved (Harris and De Chernatony 2001; Xiong, King, and Piehler 2013). The personnel functions as the crucial part in establishing a brand-customer relationship and represents the firm's principal source of differentiation (Harris and De Chernatony 2001; Moseley 2007). This dissertation will add insights about the cultural impacts on InBM especially applicable for multinational companies with diverse nationalities employed.

## **1.2 Research Problems**

As stated above, the goal of the present dissertation is to assess the moderating effect of culture and the influence of employee characteristics on the relationships between InBM practices and outcomes. Consequently, four research questions have been derived which will be discussed in the following section.

### *Research Question 1*

What are the central elements of InBM?

The first research question deals with the terminology of InBM and aims at defining a modern understanding of InBM, its practices, and outcomes. As a summary, a conceptual model, based on Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) and Punjaisri and Wilson (2011), is developed to present the InBM relationships (see section 2.4).

### *Research Question 2*

Are the proposed relationships between InBM practices and outcomes significant?

Consequently, the conceptual model is put into practice to assess the suggested relationships between the three InBM practices (i) brand-oriented human resource management (HRM), (ii) brand communication, and (iii) brand-oriented leadership, and the two InBM outcomes (i) brand commitment and (ii) brand citizenship behavior. These relationships are derived from Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) and Burmann and colleagues (2009).

### *Research Question 3*

Does national culture moderate the proposed InBM relationships?

As an almost untapped field in InBM research (Piehler et al. 2016a; Punjaisri and Wilson 2011), the third research question evaluates a potential moderating effect of national culture on the relationship between InBM practices and outcomes.

### *Research Question 4*

Do employee characteristics moderate the proposed InBM relationships?

Following Porricelli and colleagues (2014) and Punjaisri and Wilson (2011), this thesis analyses the effects of employee characteristics on the relationships between InBM practices and outcomes.

### **1.3 Dissertation Structure**

To analyze the previously stated research questions, the present thesis is organized as follows: After the introduction, the literature review covers the theoretical lessons raised by the research questions and presents relevant InBM constructs. Subsequently, chapter three explains the methodology to collect the necessary data, while chapter four presents the major results and findings. Lastly, there is a conclusion with recommendations for future research.

## **2 Literature Review**

This literature review introduces the relevant theory to answer the introduced research questions. The chapter is divided into four sections: Firstly, InBM is introduced to elaborate on two holistic models which represent the framework of the later proposed conceptual model. Additionally, InBM practices and their outcomes are illustrated. Secondly, employee characteristics are described, whilst the concept of culture is discussed in the third section. Finally, the proposed conceptual model is presented in section four.

### **2.1 Internal brand management**

Based on the idea of identity-based brand management<sup>1</sup>, InBM is a new field of brand management (Burmam et al. 2009; Piehler et al. 2016b). The discipline emerged from the idea that the workforce creates value for the customer (Saleem and Iglesias 2016) and influences the customer-brand experience (Berry 2000; Brodie, Glynn, and Little 2006; Payne et al. 2009). King and Grace (2008) argue that the increased importance of the empowered workforce requires them to know the brand to deliver the brand's tangible and intangible aspects consistently. This alignment between employees' actions and the brand values is seen as a sustainable competitive advantage (Pringle and Thompson 2001).

The term InBM embodies all the firm's initiatives which drive brand-employee alignment to: Firstly, support the delivery of the brand promise (Burmam and Scheuermann 2011; Mahnert and Torres 2007), secondly, affect the customers' emotions towards the brand (Davies, Chun, and Kamins 2010), and ultimately, bring the brand to life (Mahnert and Torres 2007). In line with Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) and Wittke-Kothe (2001), InBM is defined as "the integration and entrenchment of the brand and its brand identity within the organization and among all employees to create a behavior that complies with the brand identity and the brand value proposition" (Piehler 2011, 39).

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<sup>1</sup> The identity-based brand management extended earlier brand management models by adding an internal perspective on the brand (Florack, Scarabis, and Primosch 2007).

### 2.1.1 InBM models

Current literature offers a broad variety of InBM models (De Chernatony, Cottam, and Segal-Horn 2006). Therefore, the following section presents just the models of Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) and the one by Punjaisri and Wilson (2011), which both provide the foundation for the later proposed conceptual model (see section 2.4; see Appendix I for a selection of additional models). Both models are briefly described in the following.

Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) state that the three practices (i) brand-centered human resources (HR) activities, (ii) internal brand communication, and (iii) brand-centered leadership increase the outcomes (i) brand commitment, (ii) brand citizenship behavior and finally (iii) brand strength (see figure 1). Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) on the other hand, name the two practices (i) internal communication and (ii) training, which have an impact on (i) brand commitment, but also on (ii) brand identification and (iii) brand loyalty. These three constructs themselves enhance brand-supporting behavior as the ultimate outcome (see figure 2).

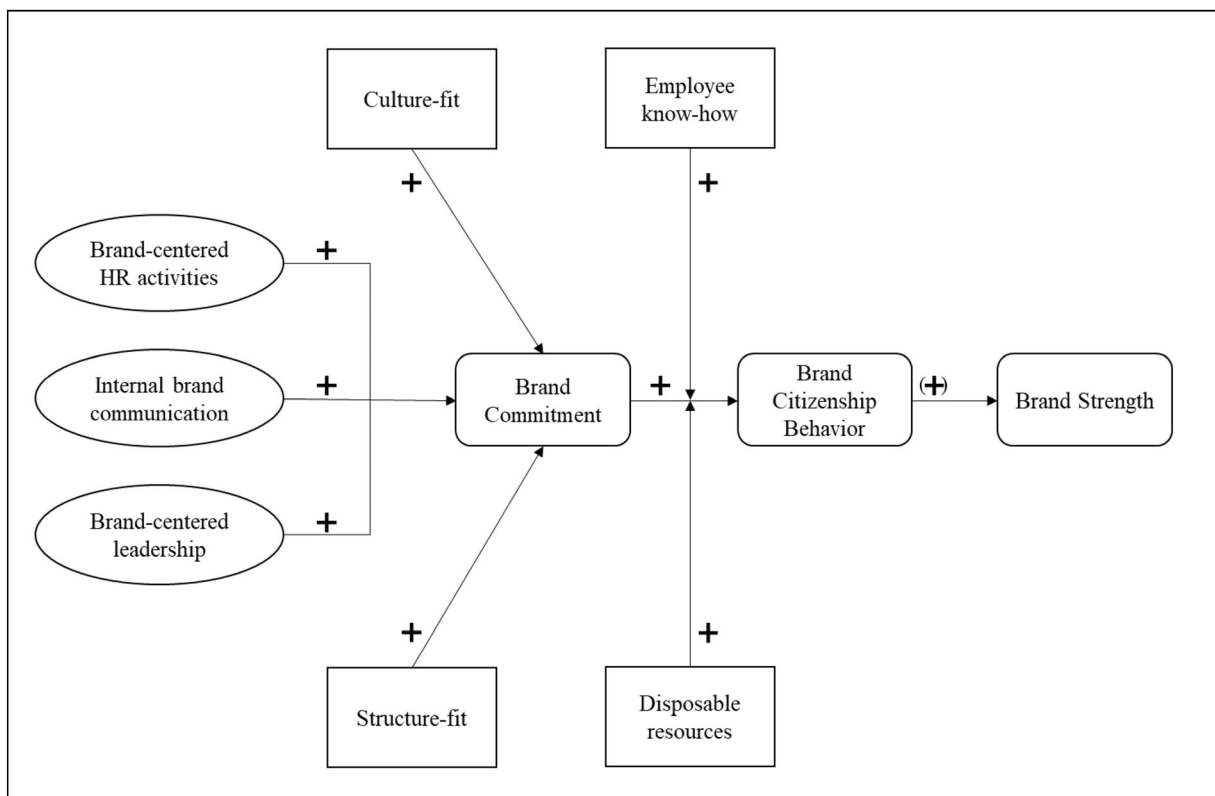


Figure 1: The holistic model of InBM (Burmann and Zeplin 2005b; Burmann and colleagues 2009), adopted by the author.

Additionally, both models incorporate contextual factors: Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) name (i) culture- and (ii) structure-fit, which have an impact on brand commitment, as well as (iii)

employee know-how and (iv) disposable resources which moderate the relationship between brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b). On the contrary, Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) state that (i) situational and (ii) personal factors have an impact on InBM relationships.

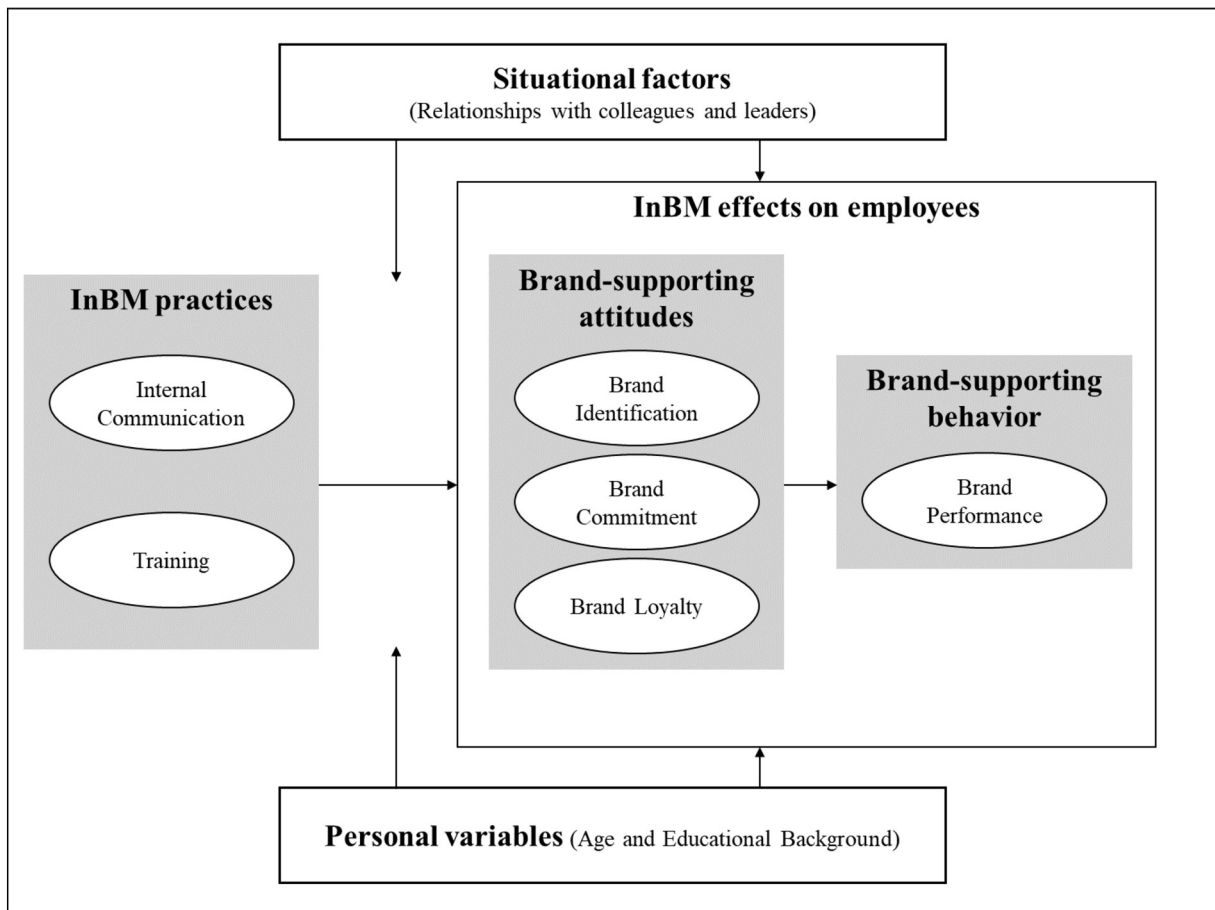


Figure 2: Relationships between InBM practices, employees’ attitudes and behavior (Punjaisri and Wilson 2011), adopted by the author.

The model of Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) is chosen as the foundation for the proposed conceptual model (see 2.4) , since it distinguishes itself by a “strong theoretical and empirical validation and the most exhaustive holistic understanding of internal brand management” while providing the most suitable basis to include cultural aspects (Ravens 2014, 56).

Therefore, the three InBM practices and their impact on brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior are adopted in this thesis. In addition, the element of employee characteristics applied by Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) is incorporated. As a consequence, the three InBM practices, the two outcomes, and the employee characteristics are detailed in the following sections before elaborating on culture and proposing the conceptual model.



### **2.1.2 InBM practices**

Many InBM practices have found their way into InBM literature (see Appendix II). However, the three practices presented by Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) are cited the most (Ravens 2014). Consequentially, the following section elaborates on each of the three practices.

#### *2.1.2.1 Brand-oriented HRM*

Brand-oriented HRM aims at aligning all employees' behavior with the brand values (Burmann and Zeplin 2005b; Mahnert and Torres 2007). Literature lists brand-aligned instruments according to the socialization phase of the employee (Feldman 1976; Klimecki and Gmür 2005; Van Maanen 1976). In the first phase, which starts with the recruiting and selection of employees (Piehler 2011), brand-oriented HRM offers brand-aligned job advertisements or assessment centers among others (De Chernatony et al. 2006; Du Preez, Bendixen, and Abratt 2017). Subsequently, the orientation phase starts, in which brand-aligned mentorship and training can be applied (Brexendorf et al. 2009; Punjaisri et al. 2009). At the last stage, when the employee is working, elements like brand-based employee development and promotion can be drawn on (Brexendorf and Tomczak 2004; Esch and Strödter 2012; Mahnert and Torres 2007).

Ravens (2014) proposes the construct to be one-dimensional, while it positively affects brand commitment (Brexendorf et al. 2009; Burmann et al. 2009; Piehler 2011; Ravens 2014; Zeplin 2006) and brand citizenship behavior (Chang, Chiang, and Han 2012).

#### *2.1.2.2 Brand communication*

Regarding brand communication, previous studies differentiate between internal and external brand communication (Burmann and Piehler 2013; Du Preez et al. 2017; Miles and Mangold 2005; Ravens 2014).

*Internal brand communication* focuses on all activities that disseminate a shared understanding of the brand within the firm (Burmann and Piehler 2013; Burmann and Zeplin 2005b; Bruhn 1998, 2011; Saleem and Iglesias 2016). It is divided into central, cascade and lateral communication (Burmann and Zeplin 2005b; Zeplin 2006; see Appendix III), while Ravens (2014) conceptualizes it as one-dimensional. Literature indicates that internal brand communication increases brand commitment (Burmann et al. 2009; Maloney 2007; Piehler

2011; Punjaisri et al. 2008; Ravens 2014; Zeplin 2006) and brand citizenship behavior (Du Preez et al. 2017; Özçelika and Fındıklı 2014; Porricelli et al. 2014). Du Preez and colleagues (2015) consider internal brand communication the most significant InBM practice under study.

*External brand communication* is defined as all communication efforts addressing external target groups (Burmam and Piehler 2013). It found its way into InBM literature since it is also perceived by the brand's employees (Brexendorf et al. 2009; De Chernatony et al. 2006; Henkel 2008; Henkel, Tomczak, and Jenewein 2012). Meffert, Burmann, and Kirchgeorg (2012) specify the following instruments: Advertisements, out-of-home media, online communication, direct communication, public relations, promotional activities, fairs and exhibitions, events, sponsoring, and product placement. Ravens (2014) adds word-of-mouth as another possible instrument and conceptualizes it as a one-dimensional construct. Henkel (2008) suggests a positive link to brand commitment, which is validated by Burmann and König (2011) and Piehler (2011).

### *2.1.2.3 Brand-oriented leadership*

Pearce and Conger (2002) define leadership as the social process that occurs in and through the emergent process of social interactions, carried out by a reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers. Applied to InBM, Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) see brand-oriented leadership as an essential element in translating the brand values into brand behavior since employees can experience the brand in action and learn how to live up to the brand promise (Saleem and Iglesias 2016). Brand-oriented leadership is characterized by transformational leadership, empowerment, and role-model behavior (Burmam and Piehler 2013; Burmann and Zeplin 2005b). Firstly, transformational leadership focuses on influencing employees' values and attitudes (Jenewein and Morhart 2008; Morhart, Jenewein, and Tomczak 2011) and on creating the sense of a collective identity and consensus-building (Feinberg, Ostroff, and Burke 2005; Shamir, House, and Arthur 1993). Secondly, the empowering of employees and the provision with decision-making authority is emphasized (Brexendorf et al. 2009; Esch and Knörle 2012; Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak 2009; Vallaster and De Chernatony 2005). Lastly, role-model behavior is exemplifying the brand identity through the brand-oriented behavior of leaders (Brexendorf and Tomczak 2004; Jenewein and Morhart 2008; Morhart et al. 2011). Brexendorf

and colleagues (2009) argue with Bandura's (1977) social learning theory in which learning is described as an outcome of imitation of observed behavior.

Ravens (2014) conceptualizes brand-oriented leadership in one dimension, while the literature identifies an enhancing link to brand commitment (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Felfe, Yan, and Six 2008; König 2010; Morhart et al. 2011; Piehler 2011; Piehler et al. 2016b), since it increases the identification with the brand (Piehler et al. 2016b). Lastly, brand-oriented leadership positively influences brand citizenship behavior (Burmam et al. 2009; Du Preez et al. 2017; Piehler et al. 2016b; Porricelli et al. 2014; Wallace and De Chernatony 2009).

### **2.1.3 InBM outcomes**

As seen in the holistic model of Burmann and Zeplin (2005b), the previously described practices influence specific outcomes, which are detailed in the following section. In current literature, a variety of constructs are applied: The spectrum ranges from less often researched constructs like job satisfaction, intention to stay (Du Preez et al. 2017), and brand loyalty (Punjaisri and Wilson 2011) to more common ones like brand understanding, brand identification, brand commitment, and brand citizenship behavior (see Appendix II for citations). Due to the focus on the two outcomes initially stated by Burmann and Zeplin (2005b), brand commitment is explained at first, followed by brand citizenship behavior.

#### *2.1.3.1 Brand commitment*

The concept of brand commitment has its foundation in organizational research (Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie 2006) and attitudinal literature (Rosenberg and Hovland 1960). It originates from organizational commitment, which is linked to the employees' extra-role behavior, task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior (see Appendix II for citations and further relationships). Translated into the field of InBM, brand commitment describes the involvement and identification an employee perceives with the brand that he is working for (Kimpakorn and Tocquer 2009) – the “reason-to” perform brand citizenship behavior (Piehler et al. 2016b, 1589). In addition, the concept embraces the future-oriented perspectives of motivation to work for the specific brand and the willingness to behave in line with the brand values (Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010). It has been broadly validated, both theoretically and empirically (Ravens 2014) and is defined as “the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand” (Piehler 2011, 200).

Burmann and Zeplin (2005b) outline a positive link between brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior, which could also be established in subsequent articles (Burmann et al. 2009; Du Preez et al. 2015, 2017; King and Grace 2010, 2012; Maloney 2007; Piehler et al. 2016b; Porricelli et al. 2014; Punjaisri et al. 2009; Shaari, Salleh, and Hussin 2012; Strödter 2008).

Even though the understanding is consensual, the conceptualization of the construct differs widely. Two main approaches are applied (Burmann and Zeplin 2005b; Kimpakorn and Tocquer 2009): Meyer and Allen (1991) differentiate between affective, continuance, and normative commitment, whereas O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) use the three dimensions compliance, identification, and internationalization.

Although prior InBM research (Burmann and Zeplin 2005b) uses the conceptualization of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), this research is built upon the concept of Meyer and Allen (1991). Firstly, the reliability of O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) compliance scale is critical, since several studies state that identification and internalization represent just one dimension (Giersch 2008; Sutton and Harrison 1993; Zeplin 2006).<sup>2</sup> Secondly, the approach of Meyer and Allen (1991) is substantiated and replicated more often – even though its conceptualizations range from one dimension up to three (Zeplin 2006).

While Esch, Hartmann, and Strödter (2011) and Hartmann (2010) use all dimensions, Du Preez and colleagues (2017), King and Grace (2012), Piehler (2011) and Piehler and colleagues (2016b) focus solely on affective brand commitment. In this thesis, the unidimensional conceptualization is also applied, since only the dimension affective brand commitment leads to pro-brand-behavior (King and Grace 2009). Affective brand commitment is defined as the emotional attachment to the organization, which also encompasses the organizational commitment, identification, and involvement (Meyer and Allen 1991).

### *2.1.3.2 Brand citizenship behavior*

Like brand commitment, brand citizenship behavior is also adopted from the field of organizational research and in particular from organizational citizenship behavior (Burmann and Zeplin 2005b). Introduced to InBM literature, brand citizenship behavior plays a crucial role in modern InBM research as the preferred outcome of InBM (Piehler et al. 2016b). It

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<sup>2</sup> Later studies do not show the same results (Fischer and Mansell 2009; Sutton and Harrison 1993; Vandenberg, Self, and Jai Hyun 1994).

consists of brand supportive behavior that goes above and beyond the behavior required by the job role and addresses internal and external stakeholders with the intention of bringing the brand to life (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Zeplin 2006). This study defines it as “a global concept that encompasses all brand relevant behavioral performances of internal stakeholders that strengthen the brand identity of the organization” (Piehler 2011, 303). Brand citizenship behavior encompasses intra-role and extra-role behavior<sup>3</sup> (Burmam, Maloney, and Riley 2007; Burmann et al. 2009; Maloney 2007).

Concerning the conceptualization of brand citizenship, prior research offers unidimensional (Baker, Rapp, and Meyer 2014; Helm, Renk, and Mishra 2016; King and Grace 2010, 2012) and multidimensional versions (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Burmann et al. 2009; Chang et al. 2012; Nyadzayo, Matanda, and Ewing 2015, 2016; Piehler, Hanisch, and Burmann 2015; Porricelli et al. 2014; Shaari et al. 2012; Sun, Aryee, and Law 2007).<sup>4</sup>

In compliance with Du Preez and colleagues (2017), the validated conceptualization of Piehler and colleagues (2016b) is applied. It is based on insights from organizational research (Graham 1991; Van Dyne, Graham, Dienesch 1994) and the conceptualization of brand citizenship behavior by Burmann and colleagues (2009). It consists of the three dimensions: Brand endorsement, brand development, and brand compliance.

*Brand endorsement* describes the employee’s active support and loyalty towards the brand, internally and externally. Examples include: Defining and recommending the brand, presenting it favorably and passing it to new employees (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Nyadzayo et al. 2015, 2016; Piehler et al. 2015, 2016b). *Brand development* focuses on the enhancement of employees’ brand-related skills and knowledge to improve the customers’ experience. Specific behaviors include: The suggestions to adapt the brand promise to changing market needs or forwarding of customer feedback (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Chang et al. 2012; Piehler et al. 2016b). Lastly, *brand compliance* explains the obedience of rules and instructions derived from the brand (Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010; Piehler et al. 2015, 2016b).

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<sup>3</sup> Intra-role behavior describes behavior within a specific job description (Brown and Peterson 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne 1998) while extra-role behavior goes beyond that (Organ et al. 2006).

<sup>4</sup> See Appendix IV for empirically validated dimensions of brand citizenship behavior.

## 2.2 Employee characteristics

As mentioned earlier, employee characteristics can play a role in the relationship between InBM practices and their outcomes (Porricelli et al. 2014; Punjaisri and Wilson 2011). The line of research is based on well-studied effects of individual factors on motivation, including age (Simons and Enz 1995) and length of service (Van Woerkom, Nijhof, and Nieuwenhuis 2002). Porricelli and colleagues (2014) and Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) apply these insights in the InBM context. The examined characteristics are presented in the following section.

Firstly, regarding the *frequency of customer interaction*, employees with frequent external contacts show a higher level of brand-oriented leadership than others (Porricelli et al. 2014). Secondly, the *work status* affects brand communication, brand commitment, and brand citizenship behavior – full-timers show higher scores compared to employees in part-time jobs (Porricelli et al. 2014). Thirdly, *managers* tend to have higher scores on scales measuring brand commitment, brand communication, brand citizenship behavior, and brand-oriented leadership than employees (Porricelli et al. 2014).

Fourthly, Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) ascertain that the effects of InBM practices on brand identification and brand performance are stronger for employees over the *age* of 30. Whereas in contrast, the same group shows weaker relationships between InBM practices, brand commitment, and brand loyalty in comparison to a younger group of employees. The authors confirm the view of Simons and Enz (1995)<sup>5</sup> and reason that older people need higher levels of InBM practices to show enhanced levels of brand commitment and brand loyalty (Punjaisri and Wilson 2011).

Fifthly, in regard to *educational background*, Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) identify its moderating effect on the relationships between InBM practices and brand loyalty as well as InBM practices and brand performance. Less educated employees tend to attribute their brand identification and brand performance towards the InBM initiatives rather than the well-educated employees. The authors reason that the well-educated staff sees themselves as a source of higher brand performance while the less-educated employees need the reinforcement to learn how to behave brand-aligned. Moreover, the relationship between InBM practices, brand commitment, and brand loyalty appears to be higher for the well-educated employees. Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) explain these findings by stating that less-educated employees have an advanced level of loyalty towards the brand, while the well-educated staff are rather career-driven. Due to this

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<sup>5</sup> Older people tend to be more loyal and more committed to the brand (Simons and Enz 1995).

reason, InBM practices affect this group of people to a more prominent extent in terms of brand loyalty.

Finally, *tenure* is also found to be a moderator. The longer the employees have been with the firm, the higher the impact of InBM practices on brand identification, brand loyalty, and performance (Punjaisri and Wilson 2011).

## 2.3 Culture

One of the earliest definitions of culture was given by Sir Edward Burnett Tylor in 1871: culture is “the complex whole which include knowledge, belief, art, morals, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man a member of society” (McCort and Malhotra 1993, 97). Subsequent definitions shared the all-inclusive nature of culture, which cannot be explained by other, more tangible aspects (Buzzell 1968; Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham 2007).

*National culture* as an academic topic is heavily influenced by Hofstede (1984) who defines it as the mental software which people use to form cognition, affect, and behavior. He proposes six dimensions to distinguish between different national cultures (see figure 3).

<b>Power distance</b>	Degree of inequality between people with and without power <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hierarchical distribution of power</li> <li>• Authority relations</li> </ul>
<b>Individualism</b>	Strength of the ties between people <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Degree of independence from and responsibility for the group</li> <li>• Degree of loyalty to the group or oneself (I versus we)</li> </ul>
<b>Masculinity</b>	Distribution of gender roles and arising values <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on pride and possessions versus relationships and quality of life</li> </ul>
<b>Uncertainty avoidance</b>	Tolerance of ambiguity / threat of the unknown <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Predictability and conservatism versus openness for innovation and change</li> </ul>
<b>Long-term orientation</b>	Way of fostering and valuing the past or the future <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Normative or short-term goals versus pragmatic and long-term goals</li> </ul>
<b>Indulgence</b>	Valuing of gratification and emphasis on free time <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Measure of happiness</li> <li>• Degree of regulation to people’s conduct and behavior</li> </ul>

Figure 3: The six dimensions of culture based on Hofstede (2005) and Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010).

Burmann and colleagues (2009), Piehler and colleagues (2016a) and Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) claim that culture influences the relationship between InBM practices and outcomes. Although Ravens (2014) pioneers with a cross-cultural study which assesses the relationships between InBM practices and outcomes in the individualistic Germany and North America and the collectivistic China, Ravens (2014) does not test for moderation. To fill this gap in the literature, this dissertation studies the moderation effect of culture in Portugal and Germany (see Appendix V for details about the two cultures) where the countries are seen as a proxy for a collectivistic and an individualistic culture (Dawar and Parker 1994; Hofstede 1984).

Since cross-cultural research exhibits a higher degree of complexity due to theoretical and methodological reasons (Boyacigiller and Adler 1991), see aspects of cross-cultural research and their implication for this thesis in Appendix VI.

## 2.4 Proposed conceptual model

Based on the literature review and different theoretical approaches, the proposed conceptual model and the corresponding research questions are shown in figure 4.

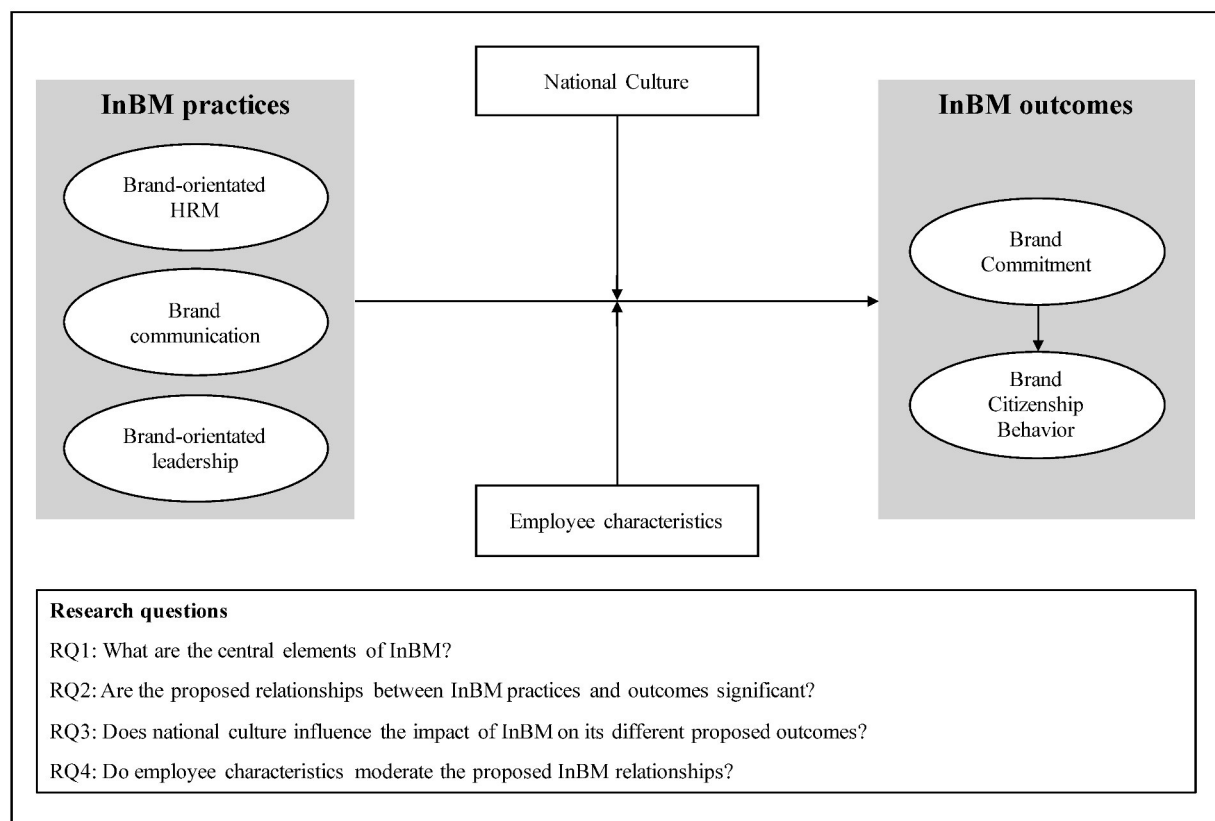


Figure 4: The proposed conceptual model based on Burmann and Zeplin (2005b), Punjaisri and Wilson (2011), and Ravens (2014), adopted by the author.



### **3 Methodology and Data Collection**

The following chapter elaborates on the methodological approach used to answer the research questions. Firstly, the applied method is discussed while secondly, the questionnaire and its measures is introduced. Thirdly, insights from the data collection process are presented.

#### **3.1 Research Method**

To examine the main and moderation effects, this study relies on a self-administrated online-survey. In the following section, the advantages and limitations of this research method are discussed.

Online surveys take full *advantage* of the internet and its global scope (Evans and Mathur 2005). Even the participants who are harder to reach can be assessed (Garton, Haythornthwaite, and Wellman 1999; Wellman 1997). Furthermore, online surveys result in low administration costs (Couper 2000; Llieva, Baron, and Healey 2002; Yun and Trumbo 2000), due to low preparation costs and its self-administered manner (Evans and Mathur 2005). In addition, online surveys show an elevated level of flexibility regarding formats, customization, and integration of other media (Evans and Mathur 2005). Moreover, respondents can choose a time to answer which suits them best (Hogg 2003), and the input of data is straightforward (Evans and Mathur 2005). Lastly, an online survey makes larger samples accessible for researchers who want to control the order of the answers or force the completion of answers (Evans and Mathur 2005).

On the contrary, online surveys face some *limitations*, including the fact that they are subject to low response rates (Fricker and Schonlau 2002). Furthermore, Llieva and colleagues (2002) argue that the researcher has less control over the identity of the participant or the research situation, which can lead to distractions (Evans and Mathur 2005). Finally, online surveys are impersonal (Evans and Mathur 2005) and lack the option to clarify questions, which lead to misunderstandings (Malhotra and Birks 2007).

To conclude, this method was chosen mainly because of its way the target population of Portuguese and German employees could be easily contacted in both countries, as well as in a time- and money-efficient way.

### 3.2 Research measures and questionnaire

In the following section, the survey structure and the used measurements are described. The questionnaire comprises of three main sections and 29 questions (please see Appendix VII for the questionnaire and Appendix VIII for the list of items).

#### *Introductory text and screening questions*

In the beginning, participants are presented with the study objective and are asked to complete two screening questions (nationality and work status). Both are used to sift out those participants who do not fit into the target population of employed Portuguese or Germans. Skip-logics are employed, which then lead to the end of the survey if anything other than “Portuguese,” “German” or “employed” is chosen. In the end, a thank-you-text closes the questionnaire courteously.

#### *Section 2 and 3: InBM practices and InBM outcomes*

The following two parts focus on InBM practices and outcomes. All 20 questions use a 5-point Likert scale<sup>6</sup> in a matrix table with a randomized order of statements or a multiple-choice question format. Each question asks for the extent to which the participants agree or disagree with certain statements. All statements are borrowed from previous literature, while the ones with the highest loadings on the particular construct are used to provide a short questionnaire with reliable and valid questions (Piehler et al. 2016b; Ravens 2014).

Concerning the *InBM practices*, 15 statements are in use, which Ravens (2014) characterizes as reliable and valid in a cross-cultural context. The three statements of *brand-oriented HRM* are adopted from Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006) and cover: Human resource marketing, reputation, and selection (e.g., “The reputation of the brand/employer initiated my application process.”). Furthermore, the six statements of *brand-oriented leadership* are partially appropriated from Alderfer (1969), Ravens (2014), and Zeplin (2006), and contain aspects of transformational leadership and role model behavior (e.g., “My supervisor/boss motivates people to make suggestions.”). Lastly, the six statements of *brand communication* are borrowed from Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006) and encompass internal (central, lateral, and cascade communication, e.g., “Our headquarter keeps us well informed about our brand.”) as well as

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<sup>6</sup> The scales reach from 1: strongly agree to 5: strongly disagree and are designed with five points, based on Courtenay and Weidemann (1985) and Madden and Klopfer (1978) who argue that a mid-point increases the reliability of scales. After data was collected, all InBM items were recoded so that the highest category in the data set represented the strongest agreement/highest manifestation of the respective InBM practice or outcome.

external communication (advertisement and word-of-mouth, e.g., “Whenever I see ads of our brand, I am proud to work for it.”).

Subsequently, section 3 assesses the two *InBM outcomes*: Brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior. The four statements which measure *brand commitment* are adopted from Piehler and colleagues (2016b) who build on Meyer and Allen (1991; e.g., “I feel like ‘part of the family’ at our brand/employer.”). Previous literature proves the items to be a reliable and valid indicator of affective brand commitment (Piehler et al. 2016b; Ravens 2014; Xiong et al. 2013).

The multi-dimensional construct *brand citizenship behavior* is measured in three dimensions: Brand compliance, endorsement, and development, which are translated into twelve statements according to Piehler and colleagues (2016b). All statements are introduced by “Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...”. Firstly, one statement assesses *brand citizenship behavior in general*, which is adopted from Piehler and colleagues (2016b; “... day-to-day champions our brand/employer and therefore strengthens it.”). Secondly, three statements ask for *brand compliance*, which are based on Morhart and colleagues (2009) and Van Dyne and colleagues (1994; e.g., “... avoids damaging our brand/employer.”). Thirdly, *brand endorsement* is tested through three statements obtained from Van Dyne and colleagues (1994; e.g., “... defends our brand/employer if outsiders criticize it.”). Lastly, the questions regarding *brand development* contain five statements derived from Burmann and colleagues (2009), Morhart and colleagues (2009), and Van Dyne and colleagues (1994; e.g., “... strives to develop expertise by reading manuals, guidebooks or professional journals to improve customers’ brand experience.”). Piehler and colleagues (2016b) postulate reliability and validity of all employed questions.

#### *Section 4: Employee characteristics*

The last section starts with three questions asking for gender, age-group, and educational background of the participants. Subsequently, the last six questions assess the employer, industry, work status, tenure, hierarchical position, and the frequency of customer-contact. All nine questions use a multiple-choice format, except the ones regarding age and tenure which deploy sliders.

### 3.3 Data Collection

Prior to the actual generation of data, several *pretests*<sup>7</sup> were performed to test whether participants might have difficulties in answering the questions.

The subsequent sampling design process was based on Malhotra and Birks (2007): Firstly, the *target population* was defined as Portuguese or German employees. This open approach, without other restrictions, was chosen because previous research mainly builds upon the hotel industry (Chang et al. 2012; Punjaisri and Wilson 2011; Shaari et al. 2012; Sun et al. 2007; Xie, Peng, and Huan 2014) although the InBM constructs, especially the implementation of the practices, might be industry-specific (Du Preez et al. 2017). Further to that, Xiong and colleagues (2013) argue that sampling from specific companies might result in higher degrees of social desirability problems.

Secondly, a *sampling frame* built upon the author's network was created to represent the elements of the target population and to facilitate the easy contactability of subjects. Consequentially, the *sampling technique* could be classified as convenience sampling, since potential participants were approached as they were close to hand and easy to contact. Not only were individual employees approached, but Portuguese and German firms were also asked to distribute the survey among their employees.

Advantages of this sampling technique included few expenses, the accessibility of the sampling units, and the fact that the technique is less time-consuming. On the other hand, limitations included a potential selection bias and the non-representativeness of the sample (Malhotra and Birks 2007).

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<sup>7</sup> Pretest sample: Five Germans, three Portuguese participants, and one German expert in the field of brand management.

## 4 Results

This chapter aims at answering the ab initio stated research questions. Initially, the studied sample and its subsamples are described to give an overview of the research subjects. Following that, the reliability of the applied scales is discussed to evaluate the quality of the measurement. Lastly, the in-depth analysis is presented to elaborate on the three research questions and to test the proposed conceptual model. Firstly, the InBM relationships are analyzed with and without the influence of culture (research question 2 and 3). Secondly, the employee characteristics are integrated to examine their impact on the InBM relationships (research question 4).

### 4.1 Sample characterization

Over the course of 23 days<sup>8</sup>, a total of 629 participants answered the questionnaire. The ensuing dataset was cleaned to provide accurate data for the later in-depth analysis. Firstly, 128 cases were eliminated because the participants completed less than 65% of the questionnaire.<sup>9</sup> Lastly, all participants who did not fit the target population were excluded (see table 1). As a consequence, 330 cases were used for further analysis.

Table 1: Crosstabs table of nationality and work status.

		Work status					Total
		Employed	Self-employed	Unemployed	Retired	Other	
Nationality <sup>a</sup>	Portuguese	<b>93</b>	12	35	2	36	178
	German	<b>237</b>	19	18	6	20	300
Total		<b>330</b>	31	53	8	56	478

**Notes:** Target population in black, bold font; <sup>a</sup>23 participants indicated a nationality other than German or Portuguese.

Consecutive to the first cleaning, an outlier analysis was conducted to identify cases with uncommonly large scores or an unusual sequence of two or more variables:

Firstly, the dataset was tested for *univariate outliers* that exceeded a standardized score of  $\pm 3.29$  ( $p < .001$ , two-tailed), and therefore deviated from the other data entries. After standardizing the scores, an associated test was performed which classified fifteen answers concerning brand compliance (question 10, items BCB\_Com\_1 and BCB\_Com\_3) and brand development (question 19, item BCB\_Dev\_5) to be above the threshold of  $+3.29$ . Although the classified data points represented outliers, they were kept inside the sample since they stood for strong disagreement (lowest response category) with the presented question statements. For this

<sup>8</sup> From the October 5 until the October 28, 2017.

<sup>9</sup> A completion rate of 65% corresponds to answering all questions regarding the InBM practices and outcomes.

reason, these data points provided valuable information on the relationships between InBM practices and outcomes.

Secondly, the dataset was assessed for *multivariate outliers*, which are a combination of unusual scores in a line of two or more variables. The associated test was based on the Mahalanobis distance, which is the distance of each data point from the centroid of the other cases. This point was calculated as the intersection of the means of all InBM variables under study. With the degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables being assessed, eleven outliers could be identified using  $p < .001$  and the corresponding  $\chi^2$  value (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). The outliers were deleted.<sup>10</sup>

After the cleaning, the *sample* consisted of 319 entries, thereof 91 Portuguese (28.52%) and 228 German employees (71.47%), which made the German subsample the predominant one. The full sample represented more predominantly younger participants (M=30.57 years; 64.9%: under 29; 35.1%: 30 or older) of both genders, almost equally (45.1%: male, 54.9%: female). Expectedly, many participants held an academic degree (36.7%: Bachelor's; 39.8%: Master's degree; 1.6%: PhD), while 15.7% stated a high school diploma and 6.3% an apprenticeship as highest educational attainment. Interestingly, the Portuguese participants seemed to be significantly better educated than the German ones ( $M_{\text{Portugal}}=3.54 \approx \text{Master's degree}$ ,  $M_{\text{Germany}}=2.99 \approx \text{Bachelor's degree}$ ,  $t(241.904)=5.830$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Moreover, almost three quarters of the sample worked full-time (72.7%), while the rest (24.5%) were in part-time jobs. Portuguese employees who answered the survey tended to be on a full-time contract (86.4%, in comparison to 70.3% of the German employees;  $\chi^2(1)=8.668$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Due to the convenience sample technique and the younger age of the author, almost six out of ten (57.4%) were in entry-level positions (17.4%: supervisory-level; 12.3%: middle management; 4.5%: senior management; 8.4%: other) and relatively new with the company (M=4.39; Median=2; 16.8%: less than 1 year; 53.5%: between 1–3, 29.7%: 3 or more). More than half the sample (59.4%) had less than 20 customer interactions a day (30%: had more interaction; 10.6%: had a different frequency). Finally, a large share of the participants indicated that they were working within the business services industry (24.7%), in education (12%) or financial services (8.2%). The remaining 55.1% were spread among 16 other industries while the subsamples differed significantly ( $\chi^2(18)=62.771$ ,  $p < .001$ ). See Appendix IX for more details about the sample.

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<sup>10</sup> Since linear regressions are sensitive to outliers (Aljandali 2016), later analyses were performed with and without both types of outliers – in general, the analyses showed similar insights in all four cases (with and without univariate outliers times with and without multivariate outliers).

## 4.2 Reliability analysis

Since prior literature discusses the dimensionality of several InBM constructs (e.g., brand citizenship behavior), several exploratory factor analyses (EFA)<sup>11</sup> were performed to uncover the underlying factors of the InBM practices and outcomes in the context of this study. After that, Cronbach's alpha scores were determined to evaluate the reliability of the applied scales (Cronbach 1951; DeVellis 2012; Tate 2003).

Table 2: EFA on InBM practices.

Items	Brand-oriented leadership	Brand communication	Brand-oriented HRM
BHR 1	.193	.087	<b>.791</b>
BHR 2	.060	.252	<b>.793</b>
BHR 3 <sup>a</sup>	.254	<b>.315</b>	.298
BL 1	<b>.769</b>	.149	.089
BL 2	<b>.778</b>	.093	.232
BL 3	<b>.765</b>	.195	.023
BL 4	<b>.769</b>	.121	.187
BL 5	<b>.751</b>	.089	.207
BL 6	<b>.583</b>	.191	.088
iBCom 1	.457	<b>.507</b>	.005
iBCom 2	.106	<b>.729</b>	-.036
iBCom 3 <sup>a</sup>	<b>.704</b>	.453	-.044
eBCom 4	.311	<b>.675</b>	.343
eBCom 5	.180	<b>.697</b>	.396
eBCom 6	.092	<b>.695</b>	.400

Note: <sup>a</sup>excluded items

First of all, the structure of the instruments to assess the *InBM practices* was tested (see table 2). The Kaiser criterion, the scree plot as well as the previous literature indicated a three-factor solution which accounted for 59.21% of the total variance. Hence, the three factors were named brand-oriented HRM, brand communication, and brand-oriented leadership. Unexpectedly, the item Q3\_BHR\_3 loaded on all three factors to a fair degree while its communality was rather low (.253). Likewise, Q8\_iBCom\_3 highly loaded on brand-oriented HRM and mediocly on brand commitment, although it was designed to measure brand communication. Both items were therefore excluded.

Subsequently, the items measuring the constructs of the *InBM outcomes* were examined (see table 3). Prior literature has proven brand commitment to be a one-dimensional and brand citizenship behavior to be a three-dimensional construct – hence, four factors had been anticipated. In contrast however, the applied EFA revealed a Kaiser criterion and a scatter-plot pointing towards a three-factor-solution. In the case of four factors, two out of five items of the

<sup>11</sup> Using principal component analysis with varimax-rotation.

dimension brand development were scoring high on the fourth factor, showing a very dispersed picture. Therefore, the solution with the following three factors accounted for 60.4% of the variance: Brand commitment, brand compliance, and brand development.

Notably, all brand commitment and all brand endorsement items scored the most on the factor brand commitment. Since all items of brand commitment loaded to a higher degree on the factor, the three items of brand endorsement were excluded from further analysis to prevent interferences. Consequently, brand citizenship was conceptualized as a two-dimensional construct, consisting of brand compliance and brand development.

Table 3: EFA on InBM outcomes.

Indicator	Brand commitment	Brand development	Brand compliance
BC 1	<b>.816</b>	.147	.111
BC 2	<b>.862</b>	.195	.070
BC 3	<b>.842</b>	.207	.064
BC 4	<b>.853</b>	.174	.133
BCB Com 1	.193	.075	<b>.730</b>
BCB Com 2	.141	.126	<b>.622</b>
BCB Com 3	.087	.284	<b>.661</b>
BCB End 1 <sup>a</sup>	<b>.611</b>	.161	.481
BCB End 2 <sup>a</sup>	<b>.658</b>	.153	.359
BCB End 3 <sup>a</sup>	<b>.618</b>	.108	.443
BCB Dev 1	.105	<b>.558</b>	.251
BCB Dev 2	.131	<b>.699</b>	.139
BCB Dev 3	.111	<b>.780</b>	-.005
BCB Dev 4	.268	<b>.743</b>	.100
BCB Dev 5	.159	<b>.695</b>	.205

Note: <sup>a</sup>excluded items

After the assessment of latent variables, the suggestion of Verhoef (2003) was followed by determining the Pearson's Correlation for the two items of brand-oriented HRM and the Cronbach's alpha for all other multi-item scales to assess the *reliability of the scales*. As shown in table 4, all of Cronbach's alpha scores showed respectable to very good reliability (DeVellis 2012) whereas the items of brand-oriented HRM correlated to a large extent (Cohen 1992).

Table 4: Scales reliability assessment.

Scale	Pearson's Correlation	Cronbach's alpha			
	Brand-oriented HRM	Brand communication	Brand-oriented leadership	Brand commitment	Brand citizenship behavior
Number of items	2	5	6	4	9
Scale reliability	.544**	.793	.862	.913	.796

Note: \*\* $p < .01$  (2-tailed)



### 4.3 Aggregated Analysis

After the initial cleaning tests, the assessment of the proposed conceptual model was conducted. For this reason, the following section is split into two parts: First of all, research questions 2 and 3 are addressed simultaneously by examining the relationships between practices and outcomes of InBM, with (research question 3) and without the influence of the moderator culture (research question 2). Secondly, the previously described employee characteristics are tested to see if they have an impact on the InBM relationships (research question 4).

#### 4.3.1 Relationships between InBM practices, outcomes, and the influence of culture

In the following section, the results of research questions 2 and 3 are presented (see figure 5 for the corresponding part of the conceptual model and the research questions). The section is split in two: The first part focuses on the dependent variable (DV) brand commitment while the second highlights the DV brand citizenship behavior.

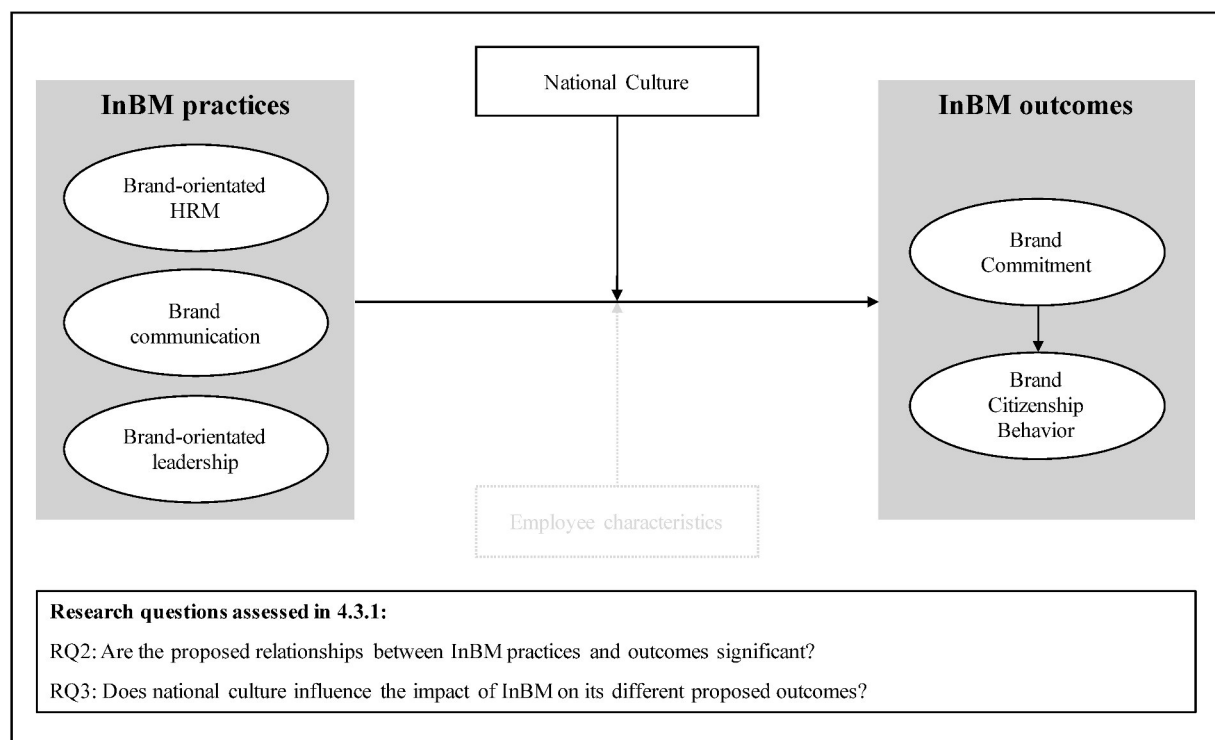


Figure 5: Corresponding part of the proposed conceptual model and research questions under study.

Before testing for the relationships, several *t-tests* were performed to uncover differences between the Portuguese and German means of the InBM constructs. The results demonstrated a significant difference between the means of brand-oriented leadership ( $M_{\text{Portugal}}=3.6392$ ,

$M_{\text{Germany}}=3.9130$ ,  $t(317)=-2.647$ ,  $p<.01$ ) which hinted at brand-oriented leadership being a potential moderator. Differences for all other variables were not significant (see table 5).

Table 5: T-tests for independent samples.

	Means			t-test statistic (Portugal vs. Germany)
	Full sample	Portuguese sample	German sample	
n	319	91	228	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.4906	3.6374	3.4320	$t(317)=-1.588$
Brand communication	3.8000	3.7780	3.8088	$t(317)=-.324$
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8349	<b>3.6392</b>	<b>3.9130</b>	$t(317)=-2.647^{**}$
Brand commitment	3.5995	3.5220	3.6305	$t(317)=-.877$
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8415	3.8742	3.8285	$t(137.892)=-.588$

Note: \* $p<.05$ , \*\* $p<.01$ , \*\*\* $p<.001$

#### 4.3.1.1 The influence of the InBM practices on the DV brand commitment

In the next step, several regression analyses were applied to model the effect of the three InBM practices as independent variables (IVs) on the DV brand commitment in the full and the two subsamples.

$$[\text{Reg1}] \text{Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \varepsilon_i$$

As shown by previous literature, results revealed that the three InBM practices were significant predictors of brand commitment (see table 6;  $\beta_{\text{Brand-orientedHRM}}=.130$ ,  $p<.01$ ;  $\beta_{\text{BrandCommunication}}=.509$ ,  $p<.001$ ;  $\beta_{\text{Brand-orientedLeadership}}=.200$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Interestingly, brand communication seemed to be the best predictor of brand commitment in all samples ( $\beta_{\text{BrandCommunication-Portugal}}=.608$ ,  $p<.001$ ;  $\beta_{\text{BrandCommunication-Germany}}=.468$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Moreover, all models showed high *R*-squared values, which indicated that the three IVs explained around 50% of the variation in brand commitment (47.8–50.9%), which is very high for empirical research.

Nevertheless, the difference between the means of brand-oriented leadership highlighted by the t-tests was replicated, as brand-oriented leadership only seemed to be significant in the German sample ( $\beta_{\text{Brand-orientedLeadership-Germany}}=.264$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Similarly, brand-oriented HRM only scored significantly in the German sample ( $\beta_{\text{Brand-orientedHRM-Germany}}=.130$ ,  $p<.05$ ). These findings supported the two notions that the relationships between the two practices and brand commitment are not universal and that the two practices are moderated by culture.

Table 6: Effect of InBM practices on brand commitment.

	Full sample	Portuguese sample	German sample
n	319	91	228
Model	F(3,315)=105.350***	F(3,87)=28.445***	F(3,224)=79.513***
Coefficients	Intercept	-.265	-.326
	Brand-oriented HRM	<b>.130**</b>	.143
	Brand communication	<b>.509***</b>	<b>.608***</b>
	Brand-oriented leadership	<b>.200***</b>	.036
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.496	.478	.509

Notes: DV=Brand commitment (4 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (non-mean-centered); \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

Assumptions: The assumption of normality was violated in all samples while multicollinearity was present in the German sample (see Appendix X for details).

*The influence of the culture on the relationships between InBM practices and the DV brand commitment*

To test for moderation, a second regression analysis was run on brand commitment while incorporating (i) the InBM practices, (ii) nationality, and (iii) its interaction terms with the practices. With the purpose of reducing the correlation between the interaction terms and the variables composing the interactions, all involved metric IVs were mean-centered (Aiken and West 1991; Dawson 2013).<sup>12</sup>

$$[\text{Reg2}] \text{ Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{nationality} + \beta_5 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} * \text{nationality} + \beta_6 * \text{brand communication} * \text{nationality} + \beta_7 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} * \text{nationality} + \epsilon_i$$

In line with previous results, all three InBM practices seemed to be significant predictors of brand commitment while the regression revealed exceptional high  $R$ -squared values (see table 7). More importantly, the interaction term between culture and brand-oriented leadership scored significantly ( $\beta_{\text{Portuguese} * \text{Brand-oriented Leadership}} = -.137, p < .05$ ). This result corresponds with the results of the t-tests and the fact that brand-oriented leadership was significant in the German, but not in the Portuguese, sample. Hence, brand-oriented leadership appeared to be moderated by culture (see figure 6). The dis-ordinal interaction illustrates that in situations where brand-oriented leadership was perceived to be low, German employees tended to show a lower brand commitment than Portuguese employees. In situations where the perception of brand-oriented

<sup>12</sup> I.e., subtracting the mean from the value of the primary variables.

leadership was high, it was vice versa. That also explains the higher manifestation of brand-oriented leadership in the German sample (see t-tests above).

Lastly, even though the results of the first regression also hinted at a moderation of culture on brand-oriented HRM, the interaction term was not significant in the second regression – moderation is therefore excluded.

Table 7: Effect of InBM practices, culture, and interaction terms on brand commitment.

		Full sample	
n		319	
Model		1	2
		F(3,315)=105.350***	F(7,311)=46.318***
Coefficients	Intercept	3.600***	3.607***
	Brand-oriented HRM	.130**	.127*
	Brand communication	.509***	.460***
	Brand-oriented leadership	.200***	.271***
	Nationality		-.036
	Brand-oriented HRM*Nationality		.013
	Brand communication*Nationality		.092
	Brand-oriented leadership*Nationality		-.137*
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.496	.499

Notes: DV=Brand commitment (4 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (metric IVs centered, dummy variable non-mean-centered); \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

Assumptions: The DV was not normally distributed, and multicollinearity was present (see Appendix X for details).

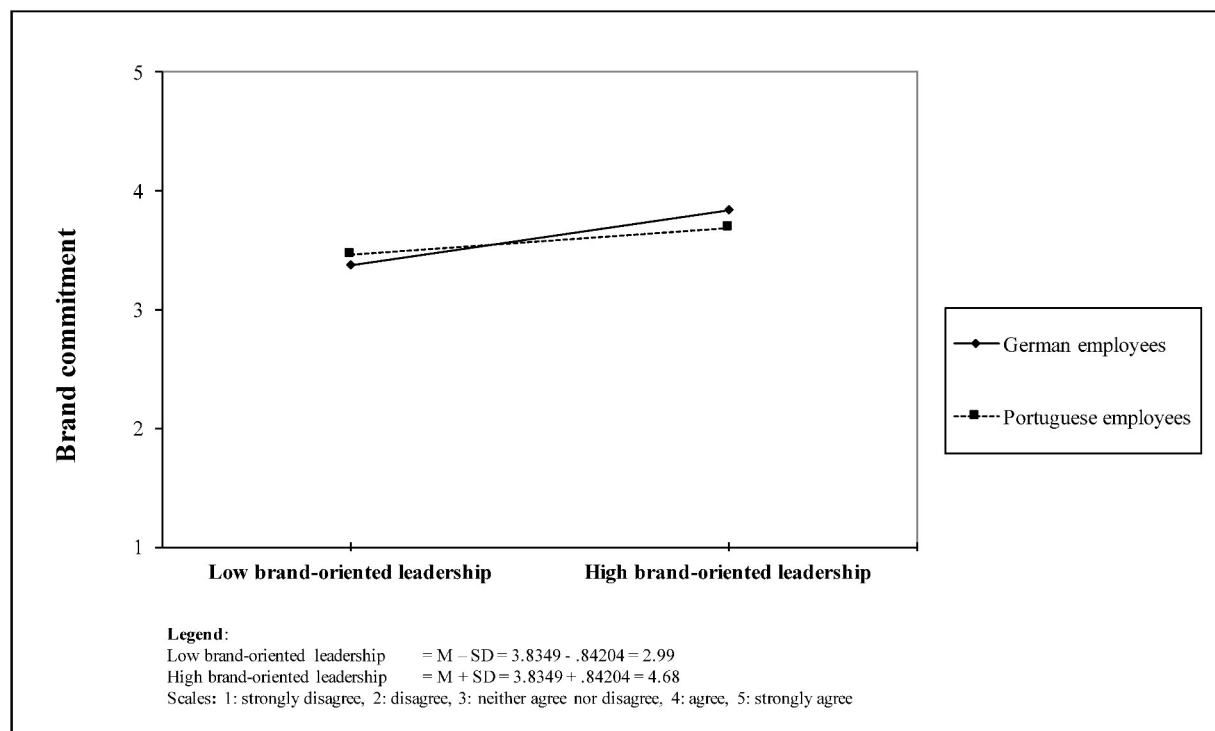


Figure 6: Predicted values of the moderation effect of culture on the relationship between brand-oriented leadership and brand commitment (Dawson 2013).

#### 4.3.1.2 The influence of the InBM practices and brand commitment on the DV brand citizenship behavior

Subsequently, the second part of the InBM relationships was studied: Brand commitment was included as an IV to model the relationships of the now four IVs on the DV brand citizenship behavior.

$$[\text{Reg3}] \text{ Brand citizenship behavior}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \varepsilon_i$$

The third regression did not confirm all assumptions of InBM literature: Brand communication and brand commitment seemed to be explanatory factors of brand citizenship behavior (see table 8;  $\beta_{\text{BrandCommunication}} = .325, p < .001$ ;  $\beta_{\text{BrandCommitment}} = .282, p < .001$ ), while controversially brand-oriented HRM and brand-oriented leadership did not reach significant values. Similar to previous results, brand communication appeared to have the highest impact on the DV.

When comparing the two subsamples, no substantial differences were present – only brand communication ( $\beta_{\text{BrandCommunication-Portugal}} = .352, p < .05$ ;  $\beta_{\text{BrandCommunication-Germany}} = .318, p < .001$ ), and brand commitment ( $\beta_{\text{BrandCommitment-Portugal}} = .284, p < .05$ ;  $\beta_{\text{BrandCommitment-Germany}} = .272, p < .01$ ) appeared to be significant. As a consequence, a moderating influence of culture on the relationships between the InBM practices, brand commitment, and brand citizenship behavior could be excluded. Further analyses focusing on the interaction terms were therefore not conducted.

Table 8: Effect of InBM practices and brand commitment on brand citizenship behavior.

		Full sample	Portuguese sample	German sample
n		319	91	228
Model		F(4,314)=36.870***	F(4,86)=11.307***	F(4,223)=25.469***
Coefficients	Intercept	2.329***	2.136***	2.383***
	Brand-oriented HRM	.051	.068	.036
	Brand communication	<b>.325***</b>	<b>.352*</b>	<b>.318***</b>
	Brand-oriented leadership	-.033	-.068	.003
	Brand commitment	<b>.282***</b>	<b>.284*</b>	<b>.272**</b>
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.311	.314	.301

**Notes:** DV=Brand citizenship behavior (9 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (non-mean-centered); \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Assumptions:** The normality assumption was violated, and multicollinearity was present in all samples (see Appendix X for details).

### 4.3.2 Moderator-effect of employee characteristics

In the second part of the in-depth analysis, employee characteristics and their potential to moderate the InBM relationships are assessed (see figure 7 for the corresponding part of the conceptual model and research question 4). Similar to the previous section, this one focuses on brand commitment first and brand citizenship behavior second. In addition, the third part extends the first two ones, by comparing the full sample and the two subsamples.

To determine a moderation effect, all employee characteristics were included in the regressions on the respective DV. Only those characteristics which functioned as significant predictors of the DVs were used in the next regression analyses, which incorporated (i) the InBM constructs, (ii) the significant characteristic, and (iii) the interaction terms. Additionally, the full sample was split into two subsamples, based on the employee characteristics to assess differences of the means (see Appendix IX).

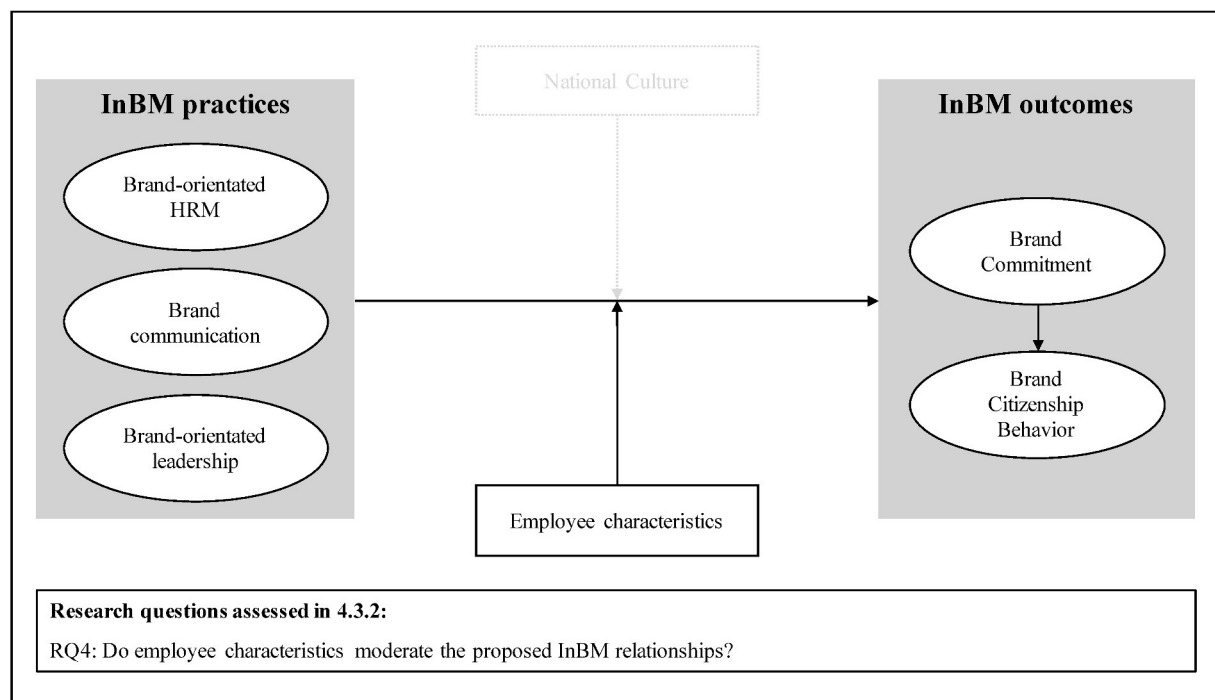


Figure 7: Corresponding part of the proposed conceptual model and research question under study.

Prior to the regressions, some characteristics were recoded into dummy variables (e.g., gender). Out of the six characteristics all but tenure came to use. Firstly, tenure did not lead to significant beta-scores. Secondly, multicollinearity was assumed due to a high correlation with age ( $r=.747$ ,  $p=.000$ ,  $n=310$ ), and associated variance-inflation factor (VIF) scores above the

threshold of 2 (VIF=[2.482, 2.490]). In addition to the five remaining characteristics, gender was also tested (see figure 8 for an overview).

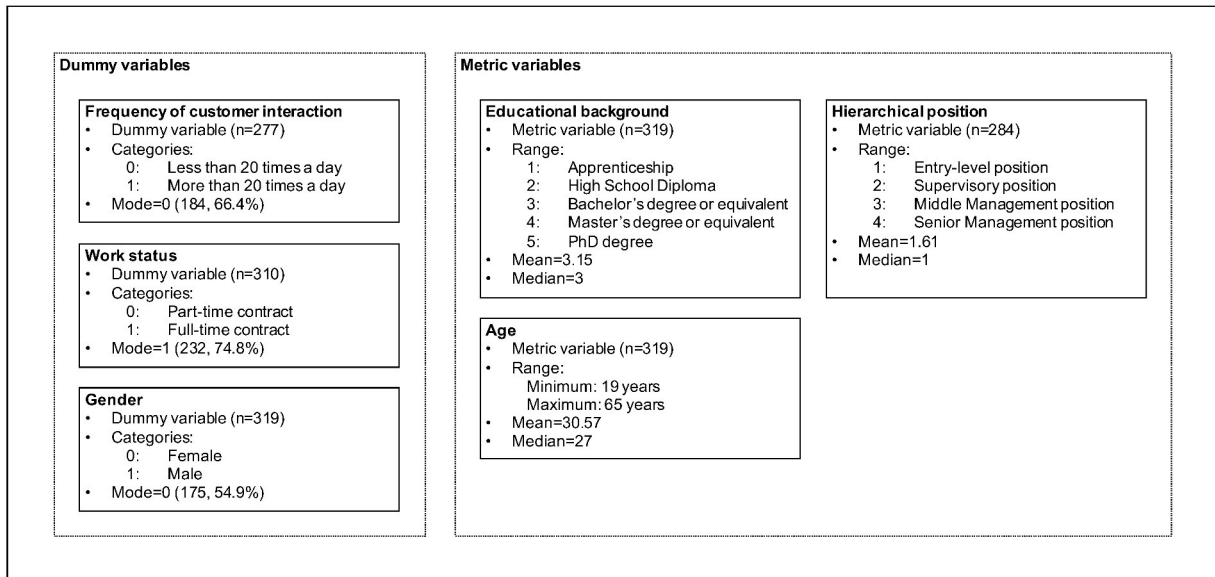


Figure 8: Variables of the employee characteristics.

#### 4.3.2.1 The influence of employee characteristics on the DV brand commitment

As mentioned before, the effect of the employee characteristics on the relationships between the practices of InBM and brand commitment was tested first. Consequently, the previously used regression was extended by the six characteristics and performed stepwise, including one more characteristic with each step.

$$[\text{Reg4}] \text{ Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{frequency} + \beta_5 * \text{work status} + \beta_6 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_7 * \text{age} + \beta_8 * \text{educational background} + \beta_9 * \text{gender} + \varepsilon_i$$

First of all, the results in table 9 replicated the findings of the previous regressions regarding the InBM practices – all three practices of InBM reached significant values in all models. Most noteworthy, all adjusted *R*-squared scores indicated a high Goodness-of-Fit (between 46.8–47.9%), while model 5 explained the most variance. In model 4, however, hierarchical position showed significance ( $\beta_{\text{HierarchicalPosition}}=.116, p<.05$ ), which could not be sustained over the later models. Since no other employee characteristics seemed to be significant, further analysis focused solely on the potential moderation effect of hierarchical position.

Table 9: Effect of InBM practices and employee characteristics on brand commitment.

		Full sample						
n		258						
Model		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		F(3,254)= 76.897***	F(4,253)= 57.631***	F(5,252)= 46.039***	F(6,251)= 40.262***	F(7,250)= 34.731***	F(8,249)= 30.429***	F(9,248)= 27.018***
Coefficients	Intercept	-.097	-.108	-.148	-.290	-.500	-.627	-.648
	Brand-oriented HRM	.134*	.135*	.131*	.131*	.128*	.127*	.124*
	Brand communication	.512***	.505***	.505***	.485***	.490***	.489***	.490***
	Brand-oriented leadership	.168**	.173**	.175**	.184**	.193***	.194***	.194***
	Frequency: More than 20 times		.029	.027	.027	.019	.022	.024
	Work status: Full-time			.026	.022	.026	.022	.018
	Hierarchical position				.116*	.090	.086	.081
	Age					.058	.061	.063
	Educational background						.037	.038
	Gender: Male							.028
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.470	.468	.467	.478	.479	.478	.477

Notes: DV=Brand commitment (4 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (non-mean-centered); stepwise inclusion; \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

Assumptions: Again, normality was not while multicollinearity was present (see Appendix X for details).

*The influence of the hierarchical position on the relationships between the InBM practices and the DV brand commitment*

To test the impact of the hierarchical position, two analyses were conducted. At first, t-tests were performed which revealed a significant difference between the mean of brand commitment of non-managers and managers ( $M_{\text{Non-managers}}=3.4930$ ,  $M_{\text{Managers}}=3.7594$ ,  $t(282)=-2.166$ ,  $p < .05$ ).<sup>13</sup> Following that, a linear regression was run, which incorporated (i) the practices, (ii) the dummy variable hierarchical position, and the (iii) interaction terms. Before the regression, all independent variables were mean-centered again (Dawson 2013; Aiken and West 1991).

$$[\text{Reg5}] \text{ Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_5 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_6 * \text{brand communication} * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_7 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} * \text{hierarchical position} + \varepsilon_i$$

<sup>13</sup> Non-managers were employees in entry-level positions; managers were employees in supervisory, middle or senior management positions.



Table 10: Effect of InBM practices, hierarchical position, and interaction terms on brand commitment.

		Full sample	
n		284	
Model		1	2
		F(3,280)= 93.027***	F(7,276)= 41.344***
Coefficients	Intercept	3.587***	3.588***
	Brand-oriented HRM	.146**	.147**
	Brand communication	.505***	.484***
	Brand-oriented leadership	.186***	.194***
	Hierarchical position		<b>.107*</b>
	Hierarchical position*Brand-oriented HRM		.019
	Hierarchical position*Brand communication		-.005
	Hierarchical position*Brand-oriented leadership		-.033
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.494	.499

**Notes:** DV=Brand commitment (4 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (metric IVs mean-centered, dummy variable non-mean-centered); stepwise inclusion; \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Assumptions:** Only the assumption of normality was violated.

The multiple regressions on brand commitment revealed no moderation effect but replicated the main effect of hierarchical position on brand commitment (see table 10). As seen before, brand-oriented HRM, brand communication, and brand-oriented leadership showed significant values, whereas the Goodness-of-Fit was high in both models. Further research is required to test whether the significant difference between the non-manager and the manager sample concerning brand commitment has an impact on brand citizenship behavior.

#### 4.3.2.2 The influence of employee characteristics on the DV brand citizenship behavior

Subsequently, the impact of the employee characteristics on the InBM relationships concerning brand citizenship behavior was tested.

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\text{Reg6}] \text{ Brand citizenship behavior}_i = & \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} \\
 & + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \beta_5 * \text{frequency} + \beta_6 * \text{work status} \\
 & + \beta_7 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_8 * \text{age} + \beta_9 * \text{educational background} + \beta_{10} * \text{gender} + \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned}$$

As one can see in table 11, the regression uncovered educational background to be a significant predictor of brand citizenship behavior ( $\beta_{\text{EducationalBackground}} = .111, p < .05$ ). Model 6, in which the education background was inserted, showed the highest adjusted  $R$ -squared (31.7%). No other employee characteristic functioned as a significant predictor. As expected, brand communication and brand commitment seemed to be significant in all models. Unlike in previous regressions, in which brand communication was responsible for the greatest increase

of brand citizenship behavior, the findings indicated an almost equal impact of brand communication and brand commitment on brand citizenship behavior.<sup>14</sup>

Table 11: Effect of InBM practices, brand commitment, and employee characteristics on brand citizenship behavior.

n		Full sample						
		258						
Model		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		F(4,253)= 28.946***	F(5,252)= 23.323***	F(6,251)= 19.652***	F(7,250)= 17.299***	F(8,249)= 15.252***	F(9,248)= 14.247***	F(10,247)= 12.776***
Coefficients	Intercept	2.294***	2.305***	2.253***	2.192***	2.313***	2.092***	2.096***
	Brand-oriented HRM	.064	.062	.052	.055	.056	-.053	-.054
	Brand communication	.270***	.280***	.282***	.276***	.269**	.270***	.269**
	Brand-oriented leadership	.039	.030	.036	.046	.036	.042	.041
	Brand commitment	.282***	.285***	.282***	.264***	.269***	.261***	.262***
	Frequency: More than 20 times		-.050	-.053	-.053	-.045	-.036	-.037
	Work status: Full-time			.058	.056	.052	.039	.040
	Hierarchical position				.084	.109	.097	.099
	Age					-.058	-.049	-.049
	Educational background						.111*	.111*
Gender: Male								-.010
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.303	.303	.303	.307	.307	.317	.314

Notes: DV=Brand citizenship behavior (9 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (non-mean-centered); stepwise inclusion; \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .00$ .

Assumptions: Repeatedly, the assumptions of normality and no multicollinearity were violated.

*The influence of the educational background on the relationships between the InBM practices, brand commitment, and the DV brand citizenship behavior*

Since educational background showed sustainable significance over several models, it was then tested to see whether the variable might be a moderator. For this purpose, t-tests were performed which showed a significant difference regarding the mean of brand citizenship behavior between the group of participants having no university degree and the ones having a university degree ( $M_{NoDegree}=3.6794$ ,  $M_{Degree}=3.8871$ ,  $t(317)=-2.724$ ,  $p < .01$ ). As a result, a regression on the DV brand citizenship behavior was run, with the mean-centered IVs (i) InBM practices, (ii) brand commitment, (iii) educational background, and (iv) the multiplicative terms.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{[Reg7] Brand citizenship behavior} &= \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} \\
 &+ \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \beta_5 * \text{educational background} \\
 &+ \beta_6 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} * \text{educational background} + \beta_7 * \text{brand communication} \\
 &* \text{educational background} + \beta_8 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} * \text{educational background} + \\
 &\beta_9 * \text{brand commitment} * \text{educational background} + \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned}$$

<sup>14</sup> This might be due to the different samples the regressions were based on. In regression six a smaller sample was studied (n=258) since some categories of the characteristics were excluded, and some participants did not answer all questions (regression 3, n=319).

Table 12: Effect of InBM practices, brand commitment, educational background, and interaction terms on brand citizenship behavior.

		Full sample	
n		319	
Model		1	2
		F(4,314)= 36.870***	F(9,309)= 18.576***
Coefficients	Intercept	3.842***	3.845***
	Brand-oriented HRM	.051	.047
	Brand communication	.325***	.329***
	Brand-oriented leadership	-.033	-.036
	Brand commitment	.282***	.288***
	Educational background		.136*
	Educational background*Brand-oriented HRM		-.114**
	Educational background*Brand communication		.094
	Educational background*Brand-oriented leadership		.046
	Educational background*Brand commitment		-.066
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.311	.332

**Notes:** DV=Brand citizenship behavior (9 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (metric IVs mean-centered, dummy variable non-mean-centered); stepwise inclusion; \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Assumptions:** Similar to previous regressions, multicollinearity was present while the DV did not follow the Gaussian bell curve.

As one can see in table 12, results indicated three things: Firstly, as seen before, brand communication and brand commitment revealed significant values, while the two remaining InBM practices did not. Secondly, the main effect of educational background was replicated. Lastly, an interaction effect of educational background on brand-oriented HRM could be identified ( $\beta_{\text{EducationalBackground*Brand-orientedHRM}} = -.114, p < .05$ ; see figure 9). The ordinal interaction specified that employees with a low educational background (i.e., high school diploma) showed lower brand citizenship behavior in situations of perceived low brand-oriented HRM than their counterparts (i.e., Master's degree). At the same time, both groups seemed to have almost the same perception of brand citizenship behavior when perceiving high levels of brand-oriented HRM. This effect might be due to the beneficial effect of brand-oriented initiatives on employees with a low educational background, while their counterparts appeared to be adversely affected.

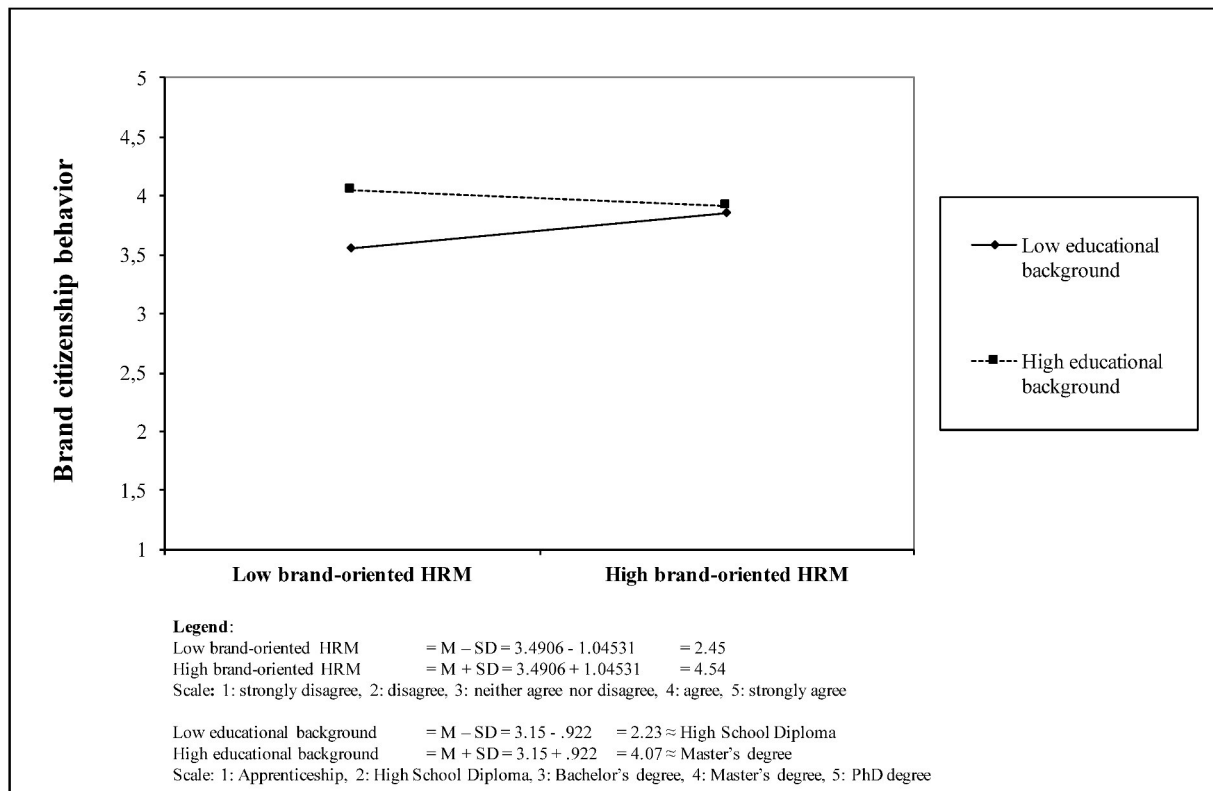


Figure 9: Predicted values of the moderation effect of educational background on the relationship between brand-oriented HRM and brand citizenship behavior (Dawson 2013).

#### 4.3.2.3 The influence of employee characteristics on the DVs in all samples

Finally, the effects of the employee characteristics on the two DVs in the full and the two subsamples were assessed. For this reason, regression analyses four and six were repeated in the full and additionally in the Portuguese and German sample.

$$[\text{Reg4}] \text{Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{frequency} + \beta_5 * \text{work status} + \beta_6 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_7 * \text{age} + \beta_8 * \text{educational background} + \beta_9 * \text{gender} + \epsilon_i$$

Results in table 13 revealed no new findings: In the full and the German sample, all three InBM practices seemed to be significant – while only brand communication reached significant levels in the Portuguese sample. Furthermore, no characteristic appeared to be significant in all samples when incorporating all six characteristics. In all three samples, the adjusted *R*-squared showed a high level of explained variance (46.2–48.7%).

Table 13: Effect of InBM practices and employee characteristics on brand commitment in all samples.

		Full sample	Portuguese Sample	German sample
n		258	76	182
Model		F(9,248)=27.018***	F(9,66)=8.161***	F(9,172)=20.123***
Coefficients	Intercept	-.648	-.050	-.959*
	Brand-oriented HRM	.124*	.084	.157*
	Brand communication	.490***	.689***	.433***
	Brand-oriented leadership	.194***	-.013	.258***
	Frequency: More than 20 times	.024	-.005	.023
	Work status: Full-time	.018	-.060	.033
	Hierarchical position	.081	.048	.071
	Age	.063	.110	.072
	Educational background	.038	-.090	.084
	Gender: Male	.028	.119	.013
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.477	.462	.487	

Notes: DV=Brand commitment (4 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (non-mean-centered); stepwise inclusion; \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Assumptions:** Normality was not while multicollinearity was present (see Appendix X for details).

Afterward, the regression on brand citizenship behavior was repeated in the full, Portuguese, and German sample.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{[Reg6] Brand citizenship behavior}_i = & \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} \\
 & + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \beta_5 * \text{frequency} + \beta_6 * \text{work status} \\
 & + \beta_7 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_8 * \text{age} + \beta_9 * \text{educational background} + \beta_{10} * \text{gender} + \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned}$$

First of all, the regression analyses replicated the findings that brand communication and brand commitment were significant predictors of brand citizenship behavior in the full and the German sample (see table 14). Unexpectedly, only brand commitment scored significantly in the Portuguese sample, while brand communication did not. This is surprising since previous results identified brand communication as the predictor, with the highest impact on brand citizenship behavior in all three samples (see 4.3.1.2). In return, the two characteristics hierarchical position and age appeared to be significant solely in the Portuguese sample ( $\beta_{\text{HierarchicalPosition}} = .357, p < .01, \beta_{\text{Age}} = -.438, p < .01$ ). Lastly, only educational background reached significance in the full sample again, but not in the subsamples. Further research is required to investigate the relationships in more detail.

Table 14: Effect of InBM practices, brand commitment, and employee characteristics on brand citizenship behavior in all samples.

	Full sample	Portuguese Sample	German sample
n	258	76	182
Model	F(10,247)=12.776***	F(10,65)=5.178 ***	F(10,171)=9.571***
Coefficients			
Intercept	2.096***	2.917***	1.854***
Brand-oriented HRM	.054	.020	.075
Brand communication	<b>.269**</b>	.119	<b>.271**</b>
Brand-oriented leadership	.041	-.026	.095
Brand commitment	<b>.262***</b>	<b>.334*</b>	<b>.239**</b>
Frequency: More than 20 times	-.037	-.066	.017
Work status: Full-time	.040	.005	.050
Hierarchical position	.099	<b>.357**</b>	.039
Age	-.049	<b>-.438**</b>	.066
Educational background	<b>.111*</b>	.164	.115
Gender: Male	-.010	-.103	.002
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.314	.358	.321

**Notes:** DV=Brand citizenship behavior (9 items, non-mean-centered); IVs (non-mean-centered); stepwise inclusion; \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Assumptions:** Non-normality was present while the assumption tests hinted at multicollinearity (see Appendix X for details).

## 5 Conclusion

As The New York Times notes: “Companies have become painfully aware that sending the right message to their employees is just as important as making a good impression with customers, vendors and investors.” (Weidlich 2001, no page).

In recognition of this vital role of employees in facilitating a coherent and brand-aligned experience to the customer in an international world, this dissertation pioneers in examining the moderation effect of culture and employee characteristics in the context of InBM. This study is the first to compare this phenomenon among countries with different characteristics (collectivistic Portugal and individualistic Germany) while focusing on the relationships between the InBM practices (i) brand-oriented HRM, (ii) brand communication, and (iii) brand-oriented leadership and the outcomes (i) brand commitment and (ii) brand citizenship behavior.

In the following section, the major findings of each research question are summarized and interrelated. Following this, the theoretical and practical implications of the results are described to critically reflect on the study and narrow down a scope for future research.

### *Research Question 1:*

What are the central elements of InBM?

The constructs described in the literature review are validated by the findings of this study, it was only *brand citizenship behavior* that behaved slightly different. Although the construct is validated (Piehler et al. 2016b), the dimension brand endorsement interferes with brand commitment. This can be explained by using the finding of Burmann and colleagues (2009), that a dimension similar to brand endorsement<sup>15</sup> highly correlates with brand commitment. Theoretically speaking, the emotional attachment of an employee towards the brand – brand commitment – functions as a direct antecedent of loyalty and support towards the brand – brand endorsement (Piehler et al. 2015, 2016b). Lastly, Piehler and colleagues (2016b) validate their conceptualization in an individualistic context,<sup>16</sup> further validation in a collectivistic setting is advised.

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<sup>15</sup> Brand enthusiasm (Burmann et al. 2009).

<sup>16</sup> The sample consisted of Australian employees (Hofstede et al. 2010).

*Research Question 2:*

Are the proposed relationships between InBM practices and outcomes significant?

Expectedly, the antecedents brand-oriented HRM, brand communication, and brand-oriented leadership enhance *brand commitment*. In contrast, only the positive impacts of brand communication (Du Preez et al. 2017) and brand commitment (Burmam et al. 2009; Shaari et al. 2012) on *brand citizenship behavior* are replicated. These results contradict previous literature which states positive effects of brand-oriented HRM and brand-oriented leadership on brand citizenship behavior (Chang et al. 2012; Du Preez et al. 2017; Porricelli et al. 2014). Hence, future research is needed to validate the findings of this thesis.

*Research Question 3:*

Does national culture moderate the proposed InBM relationships?

Although the suggested relationships on *brand commitment* are verified in the full sample, they are not in the Portuguese one. Only brand communication plays a significant role in determining brand commitment, while all three seem to be essential in the German sample. Hence, the suggested relationships between the InBM practices do not seem to be universal but rather moderated by culture (Burmam et al. 2009; Punjaisri and Wilson 2011). The in-depth analysis reveals that culture moderates the relationship between brand-oriented leadership and brand commitment in a dis-ordinal way. In the situation of low brand-oriented leadership, Germans tend to show less brand commitment than Portuguese, while the opposite is the case for high brand-oriented leadership. This is surprising since transformational leadership, as an element of brand-oriented leadership, emphasizes collective goals and achievements, which should rather foster Portuguese employees (Jung, Bass, and Sosik 1995). These results might be due to the potentially confounding variable firm's number of employees: Since role model behavior, as part of the brand-oriented leadership, is harder to perceive in bigger firms, the probability to learn brand-aligned behavior from the top-management is lower (Terjav, Konečnik, and Kaše 2016). In addition, the result could also be due to potential contrasting leadership styles applied in Portugal and Germany, which are outcomes of cultural differences, especially concerning the cultural dimension power distance (Rodriguez 1990; see Appendix V). Finally, culture does not moderate the relationships on *brand citizenship behavior*, which is in line with insights from organizational research (Haybatollahi and Gyekye 2015).



#### *Research Question 4:*

Do employee characteristics moderate the proposed InBM relationships?

Moderation of employee characteristics only seem to play a role concerning *brand citizenship behavior*: Educational background affects the outcome directly and through the moderation of brand-oriented HRM. This extends the findings of Punjaisri and Wilson (2011) by identifying a higher degree of brand citizenship behavior in the group of participants holding a degree compared to the ones without a university education. The ordinal effect of the moderation reveals that low educated employees seem to benefit more from brand-oriented HRM initiatives concerning brand citizenship behavior. A reason might be due to the fact that the lower educated workforce needs additional support through brand-oriented HRM to live the brand (Punjaisri and Wilson 2011), whereas better-educated employees do not require constant reinforcement.

### **5.1 Theoretical implications**

This study contributes to the “still fragmented domain” of (Saleem and Iglesias 2016, 44) InBM literature by examining the impact of culture and employee characteristics on the relationships between the practices and the outcomes of InBM. First of all, this thesis pilots InBM research in Portugal and extends the cross-cultural study of Ravens (2014) by identifying a moderation effect of culture on the relationship between brand-oriented leadership and brand commitment. Additionally, it supplements findings of Porricelli and colleagues (2014) by identifying hierarchical positions as an antecedent of brand commitment. Similarly, the understanding of educational background is broadened (Punjaisri and Wilson 2011) by recognizing its direct and indirect influence via brand-oriented HRM on brand citizenship behavior.

### **5.2 Practical implications**

Studies, like the one of Ries and colleagues (2017), which state that in today’s time people believe that brands can contribute more to solve social ills than governments, show an increasing need to understand the way brands work and how to manage them to deliver a consistent brand experience (Aurand et al. 2005). This study illustrates that an interlocking of the Marketing and the HR department is inevitable to enhance brand-strengthening behavior of employees (Du Preez et al. 2017, Punjaisri et al. 2008).

In that sense, *brand-oriented HRM* practices, like brand-centered recruitment or selection, reduce the socialization phase of new hires (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; De Chernatony, Drury and Segal-Horn 2003). Brand-based training helps to reinforce the brand values, whilst mentoring programs foster brand comprehension. Brand-aligned behavior is further encouraged through reward and promotion structures based on the brand purpose (Hartline and Ferrell 1996; King and So 2015, Piehler et al. 2016b). When planning, executing, and controlling such brand-oriented HRM initiatives, practitioners should keep in mind that the initiatives increase the brand citizenship behavior of employees with lower educational background to a higher degree than the brand citizenship behavior of the well-educated counterpart.

Moreover, *brand communication* supports not only a clear transmission of the brand into the mind of the consumer but also passes crucial information to the internal target group. Central internal brand communication tools like magazines, brand books or the company's intranet, in combination with cascade communication starting at C-level, spread relevant brand information down to each employee (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Esch, Fischer, and Strödter 2012b). This dissertation replicates the effect of brand communication as the most impactful predictor of brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior (Burmam and König 2011; Du Preez et al. 2015). Saleem and Iglesias (2016) argue that the practices are neither unrelated nor mutually exclusive, whereas Burmam and colleagues (2009) ascertain that InBM practices function best when applied in combination.

With the help of *brand-oriented leadership*, managers and especially the top-management can set an example of how to live the brand, since role models are a paramount way to verbalize a brand (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000; Burmam and Zeplin 2005b). This is especially relevant in a cross-cultural context with diverse employee backgrounds (Vallaster 2004). Additionally, the empowerment of each employee and the concomitant shift of brand-related decision making to lower hierarchical levels function as a driver of brand commitment (Burmam and König 2011; Felfe, Yan, and Six 2008; Morhart et al. 2011), since it increases the identification with the brand (Burmam and Zeplin 2005b; Piehler et al. 2016b). Furthermore, transformational leadership and its focus on the employees' values and attitudes should be applied in a brand-related way (Morhart et al. 2011). Notably, managers also have to consider the cultural influence on brand-oriented leadership: Employees of individualistic cultures seem to benefit more regarding brand commitment than employees of collectivistic cultures.

Most of all, the management should focus on a strong emotional bond between the employees and the brand, as *brand commitment* represents an antecedent of brand citizenship behavior and employee brand equity (Xiong and colleagues 2013). It is enhanced through the interplay of the InBM practices and benefits from the employees' brand understanding and their brand identification (Piehler et al. 2016b). Internal market research and professional branding campaigns targeting the employees might help to understand the internal audience and to design appropriate initiatives (Mitchell 2002).

The discussion about the conceptualization of *brand citizenship behavior* gives an overview which brand-aligned behavior should be rewarded: It reaches from willingness to help (Burmam et al. 2009), brand enthusiasm (Piehler et al. 2016b), brand development (Piehler et al. 2015), and brand sportsmanship (Shaari et al. 2012) to brand compliance (Burmam and König 2011). Additionally, brand citizenship behavior is hypothesized to impact brand strength, which is operationalized by Burmann and colleagues (2009) as the quality of the brand-customer relationship, or sales, performance ratings (Piehler et al. 2016b), and customer outcomes such as customer satisfaction (Piehler et al. 2016a).

Finally, practitioners have to incorporate the influence of the *hierarchical position* and the *educational background* in their planning of internal initiatives. Both positively affect brand commitment and brand citizenship behavior, respectively. Therefore, more attention should be paid to employees in entry-level positions or with inferior education to reach the same level of the two InBM outcomes.

To conclude, see Appendix XII for an overview of the process of strategically increasing brand citizenship behavior.

### **5.3 Limitations and Future Research**

Although the present thesis fills a gap in current InBM research and helps practitioners to manage their brand successfully in an international context, the findings need to be understood and reflected in the light of potential limitations. Therefore, the following sections elaborate firstly on the limitations, and secondly on the scope for future research.

### 5.3.1 Limitations

First of all, the *sampling technique* must be criticized: Due to the young age and the German nationality of the author the sample appears to be not normally distributed and therefore non-representative; 64.9% of the participants are under 29 years and 71.47% are German. The same applies to the employee characteristics. A more balanced sample is advisable for future studies. In addition, the diverse industries of the participants might incorporate confounders (Du Preez et al. 2017). Therefore, focusing on a company which has offices in several countries seems to have many advantages since the context is somewhat controlled. For incidence, Ravens (2014) studies a multinational German automobile manufacturer, with a corporate culture which is shared across all employees (increase in conceptual equivalence), while the corporate language is English (increase in instrumental equivalence). In summary, the results of this study are not generalizable to the entire population and thus make it necessary for future research to consider a more representative sample to validate the findings.

Second of all, the *selection of countries* under study profoundly influences the validity of the results. In this thesis, the markets of the two countries differ in many economic factors, e.g., in the GDP growth rate, inflation rate, and government debt (World Bank Group 2017). The indicator unemployment rate (Portugal: 9.1%; Germany: 3.8%; OECD 2017) might function as a confounder since Ashford, Lee, and Bobko (1989) state that the ensuing job insecurity negatively impacts organizational commitment. Future cross-cultural research needs to be attentive to such confounders.

Thirdly, the *research method* is based on self-reported data. Although this type of measurement might be suitable for the three practices and brand commitment, another type might be best for assessing brand citizenship behavior. Chang and colleagues (2012) introduce the idea of quantifying brand citizenship by asking supervisors to rate their inferiors.

Finally, a more appropriate *method of analyzing* the data might be the structural equation modeling. However, in the light of this study being a Master's and not a PhD thesis, the preferred way of assessing the data are regression analyses.

### 5.3.2 Future Research

The combination of the fact that most InBM literature is based on individualistic samples<sup>17</sup> and the fact that collectivistic Portugal did not match all assumptions of current InBM literature, speaks for a future *scientific attention on collectivistic countries*. Primarily, the dimensionality of brand citizenship behavior and its relationship with the other InBM constructs needs to be studied critically in a cross-cultural context. In the same manner, brand-oriented HRM should be further examined in the view of the cultural dimension individualism/ collectivism, since Bernardin and Russel (1993) separate into human resource initiatives which promote individualistic versus collectivistic interests and behaviors.

Secondly, Saleem and Iglesias (2016) describe that InBM can only prosper in a supportive *corporate culture*. Support for this assumption comes also from Mohanty and Rath (2012) who show a substantial impact of corporate culture on organizational citizenship behavior. The transmission of such findings into the area of InBM would help to understand InBM holistically.

Thirdly, previous InBM research is mainly cross-sectional. Since Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning theory postulates that most of the employee's learning occurs in everyday work, a *longitudinal approach* could shed light on this uncovered field of InBM research (Murillo and King 2017).

Finally, the potential *moderation effects*, especially of the employee characteristics, need to be studied in more detail (e.g., the impact of the hierarchical position). This thesis examined two-way interactions – further studies are required to investigate multiple moderation effects (e.g., culture in combination with employee characteristics).

Taking all these points into consideration, it is evident that future research is vital to complement and strengthen the revealed understanding of InBM in general, and more specifically in an international context.

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<sup>17</sup> E.g., US (Sirianni et al. 2013), UK (Wallace and de Chernatony 2009), Australia (Xiong et al. 2013) or Germany (Burmam et al. 2009).

# V Appendix

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## Appendix I: Selection of InBM models (Ravens 2014, 32 et seq.)

Author(s)	Research focus and approach	Methodology	Brand identity-focus
Keller (1999)	Internal brand management with brand mantras	Conceptual	No
Wittke-Kothe (2001)	Process-oriented model focused on antagonisms and stimuli to behavioral change, leading to brand-supporting behavior	Conceptual	Yes
Mitchell (2002)	Inside-out branding to employees/aligning external and internal marketing strategies	Conceptual	No
Davies and Chun (2002)	Analysis of brand perception gaps between external and internal stakeholders	Qualitative interviews conducted with 50 customer-facing department store employees and 50 customers	No
Bergstrom et al. (2002)	Review of internal brand- building process at SAAB	Case study	No
Brexendorf and Tomczak (2004)	Internal brand management process	Conceptual	Yes
King and Grace (2005)	Instruments supporting employees' role in brand promise delivery	Quantitative (n = 10; Australian managers)	No
Aurand et al. (2005)	Role of human resources	Quantitative (n - 201; MBA students)	No
Vallaster and De Chernatony (2005)	Role of leadership	Qualitative (n = 10 middle/senior German-speaking managers); (n = 30 middle/senior managers within marketing and communications)	Yes
De Chernatony and Cottam (2006)	Identifying internal factors; empowerment and brand-culture fit	Qualitative (n - 68 employees of UK financial service firms)	Yes
De Chernatony et al. (2006)	External and internal communication of brand values	Qualitative (n = 28 senior managers of service brands)	Yes
Burmann and Zeplin (2005b); Burmann et al. (2009), Zeplin (2006)	Management-oriented conceptualization of brand behavior, identifying antecedents, stimuli, and contextual modifiers	Qualitative and quantitative (n=1783, 1372, employees of various German organizations)	Yes
Gapp and Merrilees (2006)	Organizational values associated with internal branding	Qualitative (n = 566 employees of Australian healthcare provider)	No
Harris (2007)	Provision of instruments to employees as means of transfer capabilities	Conceptual	No
Brexendorf and Kemstock (2007)	Exploring the link between corporate identity and brand identity	Conceptual	Yes
Henkel et al. (2007)	Analysis of brand behavior determinants; assessment of formal and informal control mechanisms and employee empowerment	Qualitative (n = 167 CEOs and senior marketing managers of Swiss and German firms)	Yes

Burmann et al. (2007); Maloney (2007)	Analysis of channel marketers brand behavior toward manufacturer based on Burmann and Zeplin's model	Qualitative and quantitative (n = 75 channel agents of a German kitchen manufacturer)	Yes
Punjaisri et al. (2008 2009); Punjaisri and Wilson (2007)	Internal branding as an enabler of employee's brand promise delivery	Qualitative (n = 30 customer-facing employees and n = 20 senior/middle managers) and quantitative (n = 699, study of six Thai hotel brands)	Yes
King and Grace (2008)	Effect of externally oriented initiatives on employees and brand	Qualitative (n = 10 employees of service organizations)	No
Wallström et al. (2008)	Translating corporate brand building strategies into a structural approach to internal brand building	Qualitative interviews with an undisclosed number of respondents and case study the approach of three Swedish service firms	Yes
King and Grace (2009, 2010)	Employee-based brand equity model	Conceptual and qualitative (n = 371 employees of service firms)	Yes
König (2010), Burmann and König (2011)	Internal branding in call center	Quantitative (n = 655 call center employees)	Yes
Baumgarth (2010)	Internal anchorage of a B-to-B brand	Quantitative (n = 268, German managers with sales and marketing functions)	Yes
Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010)	Internal brand equity	Quantitative (n = 481, German top management and employees in various industries)	Yes
Piehler (2011)	Internal branding	Qualitative (n = 24 senior management) and quantitative (n = 74, employees of three German service organizations)	Yes
Henkel et al. (2011)	Alignment of organization's activities according to brand values	conceptual	Yes
King et al. (2012)	Employee brand equity; scale development and validation	Qualitative (n = 22, management and front-line employees of service based organization) and conceptual	Yes
Baumgarth and Binckebanck (2010)	Salesforce impact on B-to-B brand equity	Quantitative (n = 201, German top and purchasing managers)	Yes

Note: Full references are not provided by the author unless cited in the main text.



## Appendix II: Selected InBM and organizational constructs

<b>InBM practices</b>	
<b>Brand communication</b> (see section 2.1.2.2 for details)	Aurand and colleagues (2005), Bergstrom and colleagues (2002), Brexendorf and colleagues (2012), Burmann and colleagues (2009), Chong (2007), De Chernatony and Cottam (2006), De Chernatony and colleagues (2006), Du Preez and Bendixen (2015), Du Preez and colleagues (2015, 2017), Gelb and Rangarajan (2014), Hartmann (2010), Henkel and colleagues (2007), Hughes (2013), Ind (2007), Judson and colleagues (2008), Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2009), King and Grace (2008, 2010), König (2010) Mahnert and Torres (2007), Miles and Mangold (2004, 2005), Miles and colleagues (2011), Mitchell (2002), M'Zungu and colleagues (2010), Piehler (2011), Punjaisri and colleagues (2009a), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007, 2011), Punjaisri and colleagues (2008, 2009), Saleem and Iglesias (2016), Thomson and colleagues (1999), Wentzel and colleagues (2010), Zeplin (2006)
<b>Brand ideology</b>	Du Preez, Bendixen, and Abratt (2017), Ind (2003), King and Grace (2008), Miles and Mangold (2005), Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005), Thomson and colleagues (1999)
<b>Brand-fit</b>	Esch and Strödter (2012); Piehler (2011); Zeplin (2006)
<b>Brand-oriented human resource management</b> (see section 2.1.2.1 for details)	Aurand and colleagues (2005), Bergstrom and colleagues (2002), Brexendorf and colleagues (2012), Burmann and König (2011), Burmann and colleagues (2009), Chong (2007), Du Preez and colleagues (2015), Du Preez and colleagues (2017), Esch and Strödter (2012), Gelb and Rangarajan (2014), Hartline and Ferrell (1996), Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2009), Mahnert and Torres (2007), Maloney (2007), Matanda and Ndubisi (2013), Miles and Mangold (2004, 2005), M'Zungu and colleagues (2010), Piehler (2011), Punjaisri and colleagues (2009a), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007, 2011), Punjaisri and colleagues (2008, 2009), Saleem and Iglesias (2016), Vallaster (2007), Zeplin (2006)
<b>Brand-oriented leadership</b> (see section 2.1.2.3 for details)	Bergstrom and colleagues (2002), Brexendorf and colleagues (2012), Burmann, Piehler and Becker (2008), Burmann and colleagues (2009), Burmann and Zeplin (2005), De Chernatony and colleagues (2006), Du Preez and colleagues (2015), Du Preez and colleagues (2017), Ind (2007), König (2010), Maloney (2007), Mahnert and Torres (2007), Merrilees and Frazer (2013), Miles and Mangold (2004, 2005), Miles and colleagues (2011), Morhart, Herzog, and Tomczak (2009), Morhart, Jenewein, and Tomczak (2011), Piehler (2011), Saleem and Iglesias (2016), Strödter (2008), Terglav and colleagues (2016), Tosti and Stotz (2001), Vallaster (2004), Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005, 2006), Wallace and De Chernatony (2009), Wieseke and colleagues (2009), Zeplin (2006)
<b>Employee Receptiveness</b>	King and Grace (2012)
<b>Incorporation of brand messages onto work activities</b>	Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop (2005)
<b>Internal brand communities</b>	Devasagayam and colleagues (2010)
<b>Organizational Socialization</b>	King and Grace (2012)
<b>Personal involvement on the brand</b>	Aurand, Gorchels, and Bishop (2005)
<b>Relationship Orientation</b>	King and Grace (2012)

Note: Full references are not provided by the author unless cited in the main text.

### InBM outcomes

<b>Brand understanding</b>	Burmann and Piehler (2013), Burmann and Zeplin (2005), Chang et al. (2012), Esch, Fischer, and Strödter (2012a), Kimpakorn and Tocqer (2009), Murillo and Kind (2017), Piehler (2011), Piehler and colleagues (2016b), Thompson et al. (1999), Wentzel and colleagues (2012), Xiong and colleagues (2013)
<b>Brand identification</b>	Burmann and colleagues (2009), King and Grace (2010), Piehler and colleagues (2016b), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007), Punjaisri and colleagues (2008)
<b>Brand-fit</b>	Esch and Strödter (2012); Piehler (2011); Zeplin (2006)
<b>Brand commitment (see section 2.1.3.1 for details)</b>	Burmann and Zeplin (2005), Burmann and colleagues (2009), Kimpakorn and Tocqer (2009), King and Grace (2009, 201. 2012), Maloney (2007), Piehler and colleagues (2016b), Porricelli and colleagues (2014), Punjaisri and colleagues (2009a), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007), Shaari and colleagues (2012), Strödter (2008), Xiong and colleagues (2013)
<b>Brand citizenship behavior (see section 2.1.3.2 for details)</b>	Burmann and Zeplin (2005), Burmann and colleagues (2009), Esch and colleagues (2012a), King and Grace (201. 2012), Maloney (2007), Piehler (2011), Piehler and colleagues (2016b), Porricelli et al. (2014), Punjaisri and colleagues (2009a), Punjaisri and Wilson (2007), Shaari and colleagues (2012), Strödter (2008), Wentzel and colleagues (2012), Xiong and colleagues (2013)

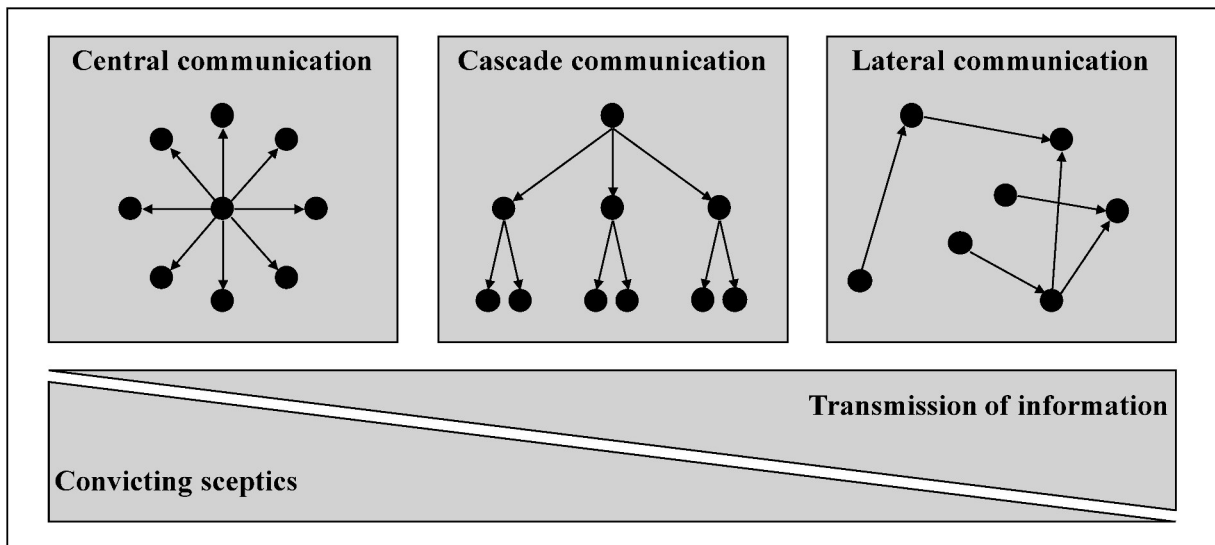
Note: Full references are not provided by the author unless cited in the main text.

### Constructs associated with organizational commitment

<b>Intention to stay</b>	Addae (2006), Bentein and colleagues (2005), Chang (1999), Chen and Francesco (2000), Cohen (1993), Cohen and Freund (2005), DeCotiis and Summers (1987), Heshizer (1994), Marsh and Mannari (1977), Morrison (2008), Porter and colleagues (1974), Tett and Meyer (1993), Tse and Wing (2008), Vandenberghe and Bentein (2009), Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008), Wasti (1999, 2003b), Zhan Xiong and Francesco (2000)
<b>Absenteeism</b>	Cohen and Kirchmeyer (2005), Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), Latham and Locke (1979), Meyer et al. (1991)
<b>Extra-role and task performance</b>	Gunz and Gunz (1994), Heshizer (1994), Kirkman and Shapiro (2001), Kumar and Giri (2009), Lok and Crawford (1999), Markovits (2007), Moorman and colleagues (1993), Morrison (2008), Porter and colleagues (1974), Rosete (2006), Tatt and Meyer (1993), Walumbwa and colleagues (2005), Williams and Anderson (1991), Yousef (2000a)
<b>Customer satisfaction</b>	MacKenzie and colleagues (1998), Ogilvie (1986), Van Dyne and colleagues (1995), Van Scotter and colleagues (2000), Williams and Anderson (1991), Zhong and colleagues (2006)
<b>Sales achievement</b>	Caruana and Calleya (1998), Jaramillo and colleagues (2005), Michaels and colleagues (1988)
<b>Customer satisfaction</b>	Michaels and Cran and colleagues (1988), Jaramillo and colleagues (2005)
<b>Organizational citizenship behavior</b>	Bentein and colleagues (2002), Cohen (2007c), Cohen and Karen (2008), Felfe and colleagues (2008), Gautam and colleagues (2005), Kent and Chelladurai (2001), Kickul and colleagues (2004), Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002), Lavelle and colleagues (2009), Liu and Cohen (2010), Meyer and colleagues (2002), Moorman and colleagues (1993), Nguni and colleagues (2006), Organ (1990), Organ and Ryan (1995), Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), Podsakoff and colleagues (1996), Rego and colleagues (2010), Riketta and Landerer (2005), Williams and Anderson (1991), Yuwen (2009)

Note: Full references are not provided by the author unless cited in the main text.

### Appendix III: Central, cascade and lateral communication (Zeplin 2006)

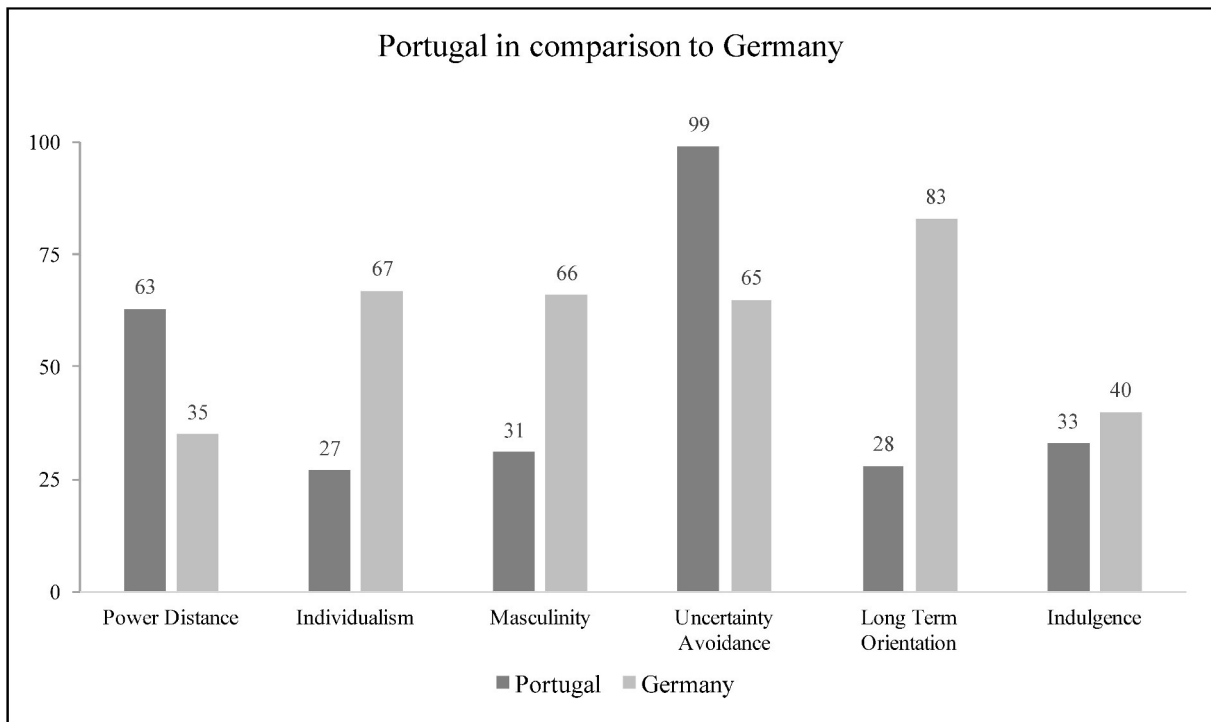


## Appendix IV: Empirically validated dimensions of brand citizenship behavior (Burmam and Piehler 2017)

<b>Helping dimension</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Willingness to help</b> (Burmam et al. 2009)</li> <li>• <b>Helping behavior</b> (Nyadzayo et al. 2015, 2016; Shaari et al. 2012)</li> <li>• <b>Helping behaviors and brand consideration</b> (Chang et al. 2012)</li> <li>• <b>Brand acceptance</b> (Porricelli et al. 2014)</li> </ul>
<b>Brand enthusiasm / endorsement dimension</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Brand enthusiasm</b> (Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010; Burmam et al. 2009; Nyadzayo et al. 2015, 2016)</li> <li>• <b>Brand endorsement</b> (Burmam and König 2011; Nyadzayo et al. 2015; Piehler et al. 2015, 2016; Shaari et al. 2012)</li> </ul>
<b>Development dimension</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Willingness for further development</b> (Burmam et al. 2009)</li> <li>• <b>Willingness to support brand development</b> (Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010)</li> <li>• <b>Self-brand development</b> (Shaari et al. 2012)</li> <li>• <b>Self-development of brand enhancement</b> (Chang et al. 2012)</li> <li>• <b>Brand development</b> (Burmam and König 2011; Piehler et al. 2015, 2016; Porricelli et al. 2014)</li> </ul>
<b>Brand Sportsmanship dimension</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Sportsmanship</b> (Shaari et al. 2012)</li> <li>• <b>Brand sportsmanship</b> (Chang et al. 2012)</li> </ul>
<b>Brand compliance dimensions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Brand-consistent intra-role behavior</b> (Baumgarth and Schmidt 2010)</li> <li>• <b>Brand compliance</b> (Burmam and König 2011; Piehler et al. 2015; 2016)</li> </ul>

Note: Full references are not provided by the author unless cited in the main text.

## Appendix V: Portugal in comparison to Germany (Hofstede et al. 2010)



<b>Power distance</b>	Portugal: 63 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Superiors demand privileges and control inferiors</li> </ul>	Germany: 35 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participative leadership style</li> </ul>
<b>Individualism</b>	Portugal: 27 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Almost most collectivistic countries in Europe</li> <li>• Commitment to the group</li> </ul>	Germany: 67 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Importance of self-actualization and direct communication</li> </ul>
<b>Masculinity</b>	Portugal: 31 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Equality and solidarity more important</li> </ul>	Germany: 66 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Status and performance higher valued</li> </ul>
<b>Uncertainty avoidance</b>	Portugal: 99 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Codified behavior</li> <li>• More effort towards education to prepare for the future</li> </ul>	Germany: 65 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rather codified behavior</li> <li>• Effort towards education to prepare for the future</li> </ul>
<b>Long-term orientation</b>	Portugal: 28 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on normative values like respect for traditions and achieving quick results</li> </ul>	Germany: 83 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pragmatic approach</li> <li>• Long-term perspective</li> </ul>
<b>Indulgence</b>	Portugal: 33 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Less emphasis on leisure time</li> <li>• Rather cynic or pessimistic perspective</li> <li>• Restrained manner</li> </ul>	Germany: 40 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Less emphasis on leisure time</li> <li>• Rather cynic or pessimistic perspective</li> <li>• Restrained manner</li> </ul>

## Appendix VI: Aspects of cross-cultural research

<b>Cross-cultural research approaches</b>	
<b>Emic</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inside perspective to understand the “cultural system as a working whole” (Morris et al. 1999, 783)</li> <li>• Only members can analyze the culture appropriately (Harris 2001)</li> </ul>
<b>Etic</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• External perspective (Morris et al. 1999)</li> <li>• Usage of universal constructs (Herche, Swenson, and Verbeke 1996; Morris et al. 1999) which are linked to antecedent factors like economic or ecological conditions (Harris 1979)</li> </ul>

<b>Concept equivalence – Do “marketing constructs have the same meaning and significance in different cultures” (Malhotra et al. 1996, 19)</b>	
<b>Functional equivalence</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is the the relationship between the focal variable and its antecedents and consequences the same across cultures (Gardberg 2006)?</li> <li>• Does behavior and attitudes have the same purpose (Green and Alden 1988)?</li> </ul> <p>→ In the present study: extensive validation of the primary constructs organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment (Ravens 2014) as well as the InBM model of Burmann and Zeplin (2005).</p>
<b>Conceptual equivalence</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is the recipient’s interpretation of stimuli and behavior the same across cultures (Craig and Douglas 2000)?</li> <li>• Do the interpretations exist and are they expressed in the same way (Craig and Douglas 2000)?</li> </ul> <p>→ In the present study: The pretest of the questionnaire revealed a shared understanding of the analyzed constructs and measurement instruments.</p>
<b>Instrumental equivalence</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do different cultures understand and interpret the instruments in use (scales and response categories) in similar ways (Singh 1995)?</li> </ul> <p>→ In the present study: The pretest of the questionnaire revealed a shared understanding of the analyzed constructs and measurement instruments.</p>
<b>Measurement equivalence</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is the same construct measured across cultures (Ravens 2014, Larkin et al. 2007)?</li> <li>• Is linguistic equivalence ensured (Ravens 2014, Larkin et al. 2007)?</li> </ul> <p>→ In the present study: The same online-questionnaire in English is used in Portugal and Germany</p>

Note: Full references are not provided by the author unless cited in the main text.

## Appendix VII: Questionnaire of the online survey

- Distribution: Online through Qualtrics
- Preview-Link: <https://goo.gl/uuywpp>

### List of labels:

Label	Abbreviated term
S	Section
Nat	Nationality
WS1	Work status: employed
BHR	Brand-oriented human resource management
BHR_MKTG	Brand-oriented human resource management: Marketing
BHR_Rep	Brand-oriented human resource management: Reputation
BHR_Sel	Brand-oriented human resource management: Selection
BL	Brand-orientated Leadership
BL_TL	Brand-orientated Leadership: Transformational leadership
BL_RM	Brand-orientated Leadership: Role-model behavior
iBCom	Internal brand communication
iBCom_CC	Internal brand communication: Central communication
iBCom_CaC	Internal brand communication: Cascade communication
iBCom_LC	Internal brand communication: Lateral communication
eBCom	External brand communication
eBCom_EC	External brand communication: External Communication
eBCom_WoM	External brand communication: word-of-mouth
BC	Brand commitment
BCB	Brand citizenship behavior
BCB_Glo	Brand citizenship behavior: BCB global
BCB_Com	Brand citizenship behavior: Brand compliance
BCB_End	Brand citizenship behavior: Brand endorsement
BCB_Dev	Brand citizenship behavior: Brand development
Gen	Gender
Edu	Educational Background
Emp	Employer
Ind	Industry
WS2	Work Status: kind of contract
Ten	Tenure
HiP	Hierarchical position
Fre	Frequency of customer contact

### Introductory text (S0)

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey for my Master's Thesis at **Católica Lisbon**. I am researching the **effects of internal brand management in a cultural context** by comparing the opinions of **Portuguese and German employees**. While I highly appreciate the willingness of other nationalities to participate in my survey, unfortunately, my research focus requires input from only these two nationalities.

Therefore, every Portuguese and German employee is more than welcome to help me out by completing this survey.

The survey will take approx. **10 minutes** and is split into 3 sections. Since there are **no right or wrong answers**, you can respond to every question impulsively. Please be assured, that all the information provided will be treated with **absolute discretion**.

Moreover, you will also have the chance to win a **20 € Amazon voucher**. You just have to enter your email address at the end of this survey.

Thank you very much for your help,

Jan Lauer

-----



Q1: Nationality (Nat)

Nat: Please indicate your nationality

- Portuguese
- German
- Other nationality → **If** other selected **then** skip to end of survey

Q2: Work status: employment (WS1)

WS1: Please specify what best applies to you:

I am ...

- ... employed
- ... self-employed → **If** employed is not selected **then** skip to end of survey
- ... unemployed → **If** employed is not selected **then** skip to end of survey
- ... retired → **If** employed is not selected **then** skip to end of survey
- Other → **If** employed is not selected **then** skip to end of survey

### **S1 (Q3 – Q5): Internal Brand Management practices**

The following section raises several questions which focus on how you feel as an employee working for your firm.

- All scales are 5-point Likert scales, ranging from:  
1: strongly agree, 2: agree, 3: neither agree nor disagree, 4: disagree, 5: strongly disagree

### **Q3: Brand-oriented human resource management (BHR\_1 – 3)**

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

- I applied based on my already existing identification with the brand/employer.
- The reputation of the brand/employer initiated my application process.
- All new employees starting to work perfectly match our brand/employer.

### **Q4 – Q7: Brand-oriented Leadership (BL\_1 – 6)**

Q4: Brand-oriented Leadership, 1/4 (BL\_1 – 3)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

- My supervisor/boss motivates people to make suggestions.
- My supervisor/boss considers my wishes and desires.
- My supervisor/boss keeps me informed about what is happening in the company and to the brand.

Q5: Brand-oriented Leadership, 2/4 (BL\_4)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

- I can trust my supervisor/boss and his/her decision regarding the brand because he/she can explain the bigger picture and the brand vision.



Q6: Brand-oriented Leadership, 3/4 (BL\_5)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

- My supervisor/boss encourages me to think out of the box and supports creative problem-solving in favor of our brand.

Q7: Brand-oriented Leadership, 4/4 (BL\_6)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

- Our top and senior management represent our brand adequately both internally and externally – they really live the brand.

**Q8: Internal brand communication (iBCom\_1 – 3)**

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

- Our headquarter keeps us well informed about our brand.
- My co-workers and I speak frequently about our brand.
- My supervisor/boss provides us with adequate information regarding our brand.

**Q9: Extern brand communication (eBCom\_1 – 3)**

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

- Whenever I see ads for our brand, I am proud to work for it.
- I am motivated by what I read or see about our brand in the media.
- I am motivated by what I hear about our brand from friends, family, and neighbors.

**S2 (Q10 – Q19): Internal brand management outcomes**

The following section asks you some questions to assess how you feel towards the brand.

- All scales are 5-point Likert scales, ranging from:  
1: strongly agree, 2: agree, 3: neither agree nor disagree, 4: disagree, 5: strongly disagree

**Q10: Brand Commitment (BC\_1 – 4)**

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

- I feel like “part of the family” at our brand/employer.
- I feel “emotionally attached” to our brand/employer.
- Our brand/employer has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- I feel a strong sense of belonging to our brand/employer.

**Q11 – Q19: Brand citizenship behavior**

Q11: Brand citizenship behavior global (BCB\_Glo\_1)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... day-to-day champions our brand/employer and therefore strengthens it.

*Q12 & Q13: Brand Compliance (BCB\_Com\_1 – 3)*

Q12: Brand compliance, 1/2 (BCB\_Com\_1 & 2)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... avoids damaging our brand/employer.
- ... sees that my actions are not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behavior.

Q13: Brand compliance, 2/2 (BCB\_Com\_3)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... pays attention that my personal appearance is in line with our brand/employer's appearance.

*Q14: Brand endorsement (BCB\_End\_1 – 3)*

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... defends our brand/employer if outsiders criticize it.
- ... tells outsiders our brand/employer is a good place to work.
- ... defends our brand/employer when employees criticize it.

*Q15 – Q19: Brand development (BCB\_Dev\_1 – 5)*

Q15: Brand development, 1/5 (BCB\_Dev\_1)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... strives to develop expertise by reading manuals, guidebooks or professional journals to improve customers' brand experience.

Q16: Brand development, 2/5 (BCB\_Dev\_2)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... regularly takes the initiative to participate in training to improve customers' brand experience.

Q17: Brand development, 3/5 (BCB\_Dev\_3)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... takes initiative to develop ideas for new products, services or processes to improve customers' brand experience.

Q18: Brand development, 4/5 (BCB\_Dev\_4)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... takes over extra duties and responsibilities to improve customers' brand experience.

Q19: Brand development, 5/5 (BCB\_Dev\_5)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:

Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ...

- ... makes constructive suggestions on how to improve customer's brand experience.

### **S3 (Q20 – Q28): Employee characteristics**

You have almost finished the survey. Only a few more questions concerning your **job and yourself** will follow.

Q20 Gender (Gen)

Please specify your gender:

- Female
- Male
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_
- Rather not say

Q21 Age-group (Age)

Please slide so that the slider shows your age:

- Slider from 0 to 100 with a 10-point grid

Q22 Educational background (Edu)

What is your highest educational attainment?

- Apprenticeship
- High School Diploma
- Bachelor's degree or equivalent
- Master's degree or equivalent
- PhD degree
- None
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

Q23 Industry (Ind)

Please indicate the industry you are working in (if nothing applies, please select "Other" and specify):

- Agriculture and mining (farming, fishing, etc.)
- Business Services (Accounting, Marketing, Legal Service, Security Services, etc.)
- Computer and Electronics Manufacturing (Audio, Computer, IT Services, etc.)

- Consumer Services (Automotive Repair, Laundry Services, Personal Care, etc.)
- Education (Universities, Schools, Sports, Museums, etc.)
- Energy and Utilities (Energy, Waste Management, Water Treatment, etc.)
- Financial Services (Banks, Credit Unions, etc.)
- Government (International Bodies, Governments, etc.)
- Health, Pharmaceutical, and Biotech (Health Care Practitioners, Hospitals, Medical Supplies, Veterinary Clinics, etc.)
- Manufacturing (Beverages, Chemicals, Food, Paper, Plastics, etc.)
- Media and Entertainment (Newspapers, Recording, etc.)
- Non-profit (Charitable, Religious Organizations, etc.)
- Real Estate and Construction (Architecture, Construction, Real Estate agents, etc.)
- Retail (Department Stores, Restaurants, etc.)
- Telecommunication (Cable Provider, Wireless, and Mobile, etc.)
- Transportation and Storage (Airport, Postal Delivery, Warehousing, etc.)
- Travel Recreation and Leisure (Hotels, Rental Cars, etc.)
- Wholesale and Distribution (Office equipment and supplier wholesale, etc.)
- Other industry: \_\_\_\_\_

Q24 Work status: kind of contract (WS2)

What is your current work status?

- Full-time contract
- Part-time contract
- Other kind of contract: \_\_\_\_\_

Q25 Tenure (Ten)

For how many years you have been with your brand?

(If less than a year, leave it a 0)

- Slider from 0 to 50 with a 5-point grid

Q26 Hierarchical position (HiP)

What describes your current position?

- Entry-level
- Supervisory / team leader
- Middle management
- Senior management
- Other position: \_\_\_\_\_

Q27 Frequency of customer contact (Fre)

How often do you interact with clients on average per day?

- More than 20 times a day
- Less than 20 times a day
- Different frequency of customer contact: \_\_\_\_\_

Q28 Employer (Emp)

Please name your employer: \_\_\_\_\_

(Please be ensured, that your employer will only see aggregated data. No-one will be able to trace back your individual answers)

Q29 Understanding (U)

To what extent did you understand the previous questions

- To a great extent
- To a moderate extent
- To a small extent
- Not at all

**S4: Thank-you-text**

Dear participant,

You have reached the end of the survey. As I stated at the beginning, I am very thankful that you took the time to help me. It is the time that you can take something home.

Please **enter your email address** in the field below for the chance to win a **20 € Amazon voucher**,



End of survey message

Thank you very much for completing the survey.

If you have any questions or comments feel free to contact me at the following email address:

[internalbrandmanagement@gmail.com](mailto:internalbrandmanagement@gmail.com)

## Appendix VIII: List of items

Construct of interest	Label	Item	Source
Nationality	Nat	Please indicate your nationality: - Portuguese - German - Other nationality	-
Work Status: Employment	WS1	Please specify what best applies to you: I am ... - ... self-employed - ... unemployed - ... retired - Other	-
<i>The following items are always introduced with the following phrase: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statement(s):"</i>			
Brand-oriented human resource management	BHR_1	I applied based on my already existing identification with the brand/employer.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	BHR_2	The reputation of the brand/employer initiated my application process.	Ravens (2014)
	BHR_3	All new employees starting to work perfectly match our brand/employer.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
Brand-oriented Leadership	BL_1	My supervisor/boss motivates people to make suggestions.	Alderfer (1967) and Ravens (2014)
	BL_2	My supervisor/boss considers my wishes and desires.	Alderfer (1967) and Ravens (2014)
	BL_3	My supervisor/boss keeps me informed about what is happening in the company and to the brand.	Alderfer (1967) and Ravens (2014)
<i>The following items are always introduced with the following phrase: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with:"</i>			
Brand-oriented Leadership	BL_4	I can trust my supervisor/boss and his/her decision regarding the brand because he/she can explain the bigger picture and the brand vision.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	BL_5	My supervisor/boss encourages me to think out of the box and supports creative problem solving in favor of our brand.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	BL_6	Our top and senior management represents our brand adequately both internally and externally – they really live the brand.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
<i>The following items are always introduced with the following phrase: "Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statement(s):"</i>			
Internal Brand Communication	iBCom_1	Our headquarter keeps us well informed about our brand.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	iBCom_2	My co-workers and I speak frequently about our brand.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	iBCom_3	My supervisor/boss provides us with adequate information regarding our brand.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
External Brand Communication	eBCom_1	Whenever I see ads of our brand, I am proud to work for it.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	eBCom_2	I am motivated by what I read or see about our brand in the media.	Ravens (2014) and Zeplin (2006)
	eBCom_3	I am motivated by what I hear about our brand from friends, family, and neighbors.	Ravens (2014)
Brand Commitment	BC_1	I feel like "part of the family" at our brand/employer.	Meyer and Allen (1997), Ravens (2014), and Pichler and colleagues (2016b)

	BC_2	I feel “emotionally attached” to our brand/employer.	Meyer and Allen (1997), Ravens (2014), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BC_3	Our brand/employer has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	Meyer and Allen (1997), Ravens (2014), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BC_4	I feel a strong sense of belonging to our brand/employer.	Meyer and Allen (1997), Ravens (2014), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
<i>The following items are always introduced with the following phrase:</i> “Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Other people (colleagues, friends, family, and neighbors) would characterize me as an employee who ... “			
Brand Citizenship Behavior - Global	BCB_Glo	... day-to-day champions our brand/employer and therefore strengthens it.	Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
Brand Citizenship Behavior - Brand Compliance	BCB_Com_1	... avoids damaging our brand/employer.	Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), Morhart and colleagues (2009), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_Com_2	... sees that my actions are not at odds with our standards for brand-adequate behavior.	Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), Morhart and colleagues (2009), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_Com_3	... pays attention that my personal appearance is in line with our brand/employer’s appearance.	Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), Morhart and colleagues (2009), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
Brand Citizenship Behavior - Brand endorsement	BCB_End_1	... defends our brand/employer if outsiders criticize it.	Van Dyne and colleagues (1994) and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_End_2	... tells outsiders our brand/employer is a good place to work.	Van Dyne and colleagues (1994) and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_End_3	... defends our brand/employer when employees criticize it.	Van Dyne and colleagues (1994) and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
Brand Citizenship Behavior - Brand development	BCB_Dev_1	... strives to develop expertise by reading manuals, guidebooks or professional journals to improve customers’ brand experience.	Burmann and colleagues (2009), Morhart and colleagues (2009), Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_Dev_2	... regularly takes the initiative to participate in trainings to improve customers’ brand experience.	Burmann and colleagues (2009), Morhart and colleagues (2009), Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_Dev_3	... takes initiative to develop ideas for new products, services or processes to improve customers’ brand experience.	Burmann and colleagues (2009), Morhart and colleagues (2009), Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_Dev_4	... takes over extra duties and responsibilities to improve customers’ brand experience.	Burmann and colleagues (2009), Morhart and colleagues (2009), Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
	BCB_Dev_5	... makes constructive suggestions on how to improve customer’s brand experience.	Burmann and colleagues (2009), Morhart and colleagues (2009), Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), and Piehler and colleagues (2016b)
<i>The following items are always not introduced with any phrase</i>			
Gender	Gen	Please specify your gender: - Male - Female - Other: _____ - Rather not say	-
Age	Age	Please slide so that the slider shows your age:	-
Education	Edu	What is your highest educational attainment? - Apprenticeship - High School Diploma - Bachelor’s degree or equivalent - Master’s degree or equivalent - PhD degree - None - Other: _____	-
Industry	Ind	Please indicate the industry you are working in (if nothing applies, please select “Other” and specify): - Agriculture and mining (farming, fishing, etc.)	-

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Business Services (Accounting, Marketing, Legal Service, Security Services, etc.)</li> <li>- Computer and Electronics Manufacturing (Audio, Computer, IT Services, etc.)</li> <li>- Consumer Services (Automotive Repair, Laundry Services, Personal Care, etc.)</li> <li>- Education (Universities, Schools, Sports, Museums, etc.)</li> <li>- Energy and Utilities (Energy, Waste Management, Water Treatment, etc.)</li> <li>- Financial Services (Banks, Credit Unions, etc.)</li> <li>- Government (International Bodies, Governments, etc.)</li> <li>- Health, Pharmaceutical, and Biotech (Health Care Practitioners, Hospitals, Medical Supplies, Veterinary Clinics, etc.)</li> <li>- Manufacturing (Beverages, Chemicals, Food, Paper, Plastics, etc.)</li> <li>- Media and Entertainment (Newspapers, Recording, etc.)</li> <li>- Non-profit (Charitable, Religious Organizations, etc.)</li> <li>- Real Estate and Construction (Architecture, Construction, Real Estate agents, etc.)</li> <li>- Retail (Department Stores, Restaurants, etc.)</li> <li>- Telecommunication (Cable Provider, Wireless, and Mobile, etc.)</li> <li>- Transportation and Storage (Airport, Postal Delivery, Warehousing, etc.)</li> <li>- Travel Recreation and Leisure (Hotels, Rental Cars, etc.)</li> <li>- Wholesale and Distribution (Office equipment and supplier wholesale, etc.)</li> <li>- Other industry: _____</li> </ul>	
Work Status: kind of contract	WS2	What is your current work status? - Full-time contract - Part-time contract - Other kind of contract: _____	-
Tenure	Ten	For how many years you have been with your brand? (If less than a year, leave it a 0)	-
Hierarchical position	HiP	What describes your current position? - Entry-level - Supervisory / team leader - Middle management - Senior management - Other position: _____	-
Frequency of customer contact	Fre	How often do you interact with clients on average per day? - More than 20 times a day - Less than 20 times a day - Different frequency of customer contact: _____	-
Employer	Emp	Please name your employer: _____ (Please be ensured, that your employer will only see aggregated data. No-one will be able to trace back your individual answers)	-
Understanding	U	To what extent did you understand the previous questions - To a great extent - To a moderate extent - To a small extent - Not at all	-



## Appendix IX: Sample characteristics and differences

		Full sample (n=319)		Portuguese sample (n=91, 28.5%)		German sample (n=228, 71.5%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Gender</b>	Male	144	45.1	43	47.3	101	44.3
	Female	175	54.9	48	52.7	127	55.7
Chi-squared test statistic				$\chi^2(1)=.229, p=.632, n=319$			

		Full sample (n=319)		Portuguese sample (n=91, 28.5%)		German sample (n=228, 71.5%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Age-groups</b>	Under 29	207	64.9	58	63.7	149	65.4
	30 or older	112	35.1	33	36.3	79	34.6
	Mean	30.57		30.36		30.66	
	Median	27		27		27	
T-test statistic				t(317)=-.259, p=.796			

		Full sample (n=319)		Portuguese sample (n=91, 28.5%)		German sample (n=228, 71.5%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Educational background</b>	Apprenticeship	20	6.3	0	0	20	8.8
	High school diploma	50	15.7	7	7.7	43	18.9
	Bachelor's degree	117	36.7	29	31.9	88	38.6
	Master's degree	127	39.8	54	59.3	73	32
	PhD	5	1.6	1	1.1	4	1.8
	Mean	3.15≈Bachelor's degree		3.54≈Master's degree		2.99≈Bachelor's degree	
	Median	3≈Bachelor's degree		4≈Master's degree		3≈Bachelor's degree	
T-test statistic				t(241.904)=5.830, p=.000			

		Full sample (n=310)		Portuguese sample (n=88, 28.4%)		German sample (n=222, 71.6%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Work status</b>	Full-time	232	74.8	76	86.4	156	70.3
	Part-time	78	25.2	12	13.6	66	29.7
Chi-squared test statistic				$\chi^2(1)=8.668, p=.003, n=310$			

		Full sample (n=284)		Portuguese sample (n=81, 28.5%)		German sample (n=203, 71.5%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Hierarchical position</b>	Entry-level	178	62.7	54	66.7	124	61.1
	Supervisory	54	19	11	13.6	43	21.2
	Middle Management	38	13.4	9	11.1	29	14.3
	Senior Management	14	4.9	7	8.6	7	3.4
	Mean	1.61≈Supervisory		1.62≈Supervisory		1.60≈Supervisory	
	Median	1≈Entry-level		1≈Entry-level		1≈Entry-level	
T-test statistic				t(282)=.138, p=.890			

		Full sample (n=310)		Portuguese sample (n=88, 28.4%)		German sample (n=222, 71.6%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Tenure</b>	Less than 1 year	52	16.8	18	20.5	34	15.3
	Between 1–3 years	166	53.5	49	55.7	117	52.7
	Between 3–5 years	30	9.7	5	5.7	25	11.3
	More than 5 years	62	20	16	18.2	46	20.7
	Mean	4.39		4.15		4.49	
	Median	2.00		2.00		2.00	
T-test statistic				t(282)=.138, p=.890			

		Full sample (n=277)		Portuguese sample (n=81, 29.2%)		German sample (n=196, 70.8%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Customer interactions</b>	More than 20 times a day	94	33.6	32	39.5	61	31.1
	Less than 20 times a day	184	66.4	49	60.5	135	68.9
	Chi-squared test statistic				$\chi^2(2)=2.774, p=.250, n=310$		

		Full sample (n=316)		Portuguese sample (n=89, 29.2%)		German sample (n=227, 70.8%)	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>Industry</b>	Business services	78	24.7	16	18	62	27.3
	Education	38	12	13	14.6	25	11
	Financial services	26	8.2	12	23.5	14	6.2
	Energy and Utilities	17	5.4	17	19.1	0	0
	Health, Pharmaceutical, and Biotech	25	7.9	4	4.5	21	46.3
	Remaining industries	132	41.8	27	30.3	43	48.3
Chi-squared test statistic				$\chi^2(18)=62.771, p=.000, n=316$			

## Appendix X: Details on the assumptions of regression analyses 1–7

$$[\text{Reg1}] \text{ Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \varepsilon_i$$

Full, Portuguese, and German sample

Due to the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk tests, multivariate normality was neither present in the full nor in the two subsamples. Furthermore, the German sample showed a slight degree of multicollinearity (conduction index=15.005). No other assumption was violated.

$$[\text{Reg2}] \text{ Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{nationality} + \beta_5 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} * \text{nationality} + \beta_6 * \text{brand communication} * \text{nationality} + \beta_7 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} * \text{nationality} + \varepsilon_i$$

Full sample

Although the applied variables were mean-centered, the following four showed VIF values above the threshold: Brand communication (VIF=2.301), brand-oriented leadership (VIF=2.111), brand communication\*Portuguese (VIF=2.284), brand-oriented leadership\*Portuguese (VIF=2.201). No correlation, tolerance or condition index exceeded, were below appropriate levels. In the same line as before, the DV brand commitment did not follow a normal distribution. Further assumptions were not violated.

$$[\text{Reg3}] \text{ Brand citizenship behavior}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \varepsilon_i$$

Full, Portuguese, and German sample

Associated Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed non-normality for the full and the two subsamples. However, in the German sample the Kolmogorov-Smirnov, but not the Shapiro-Wilk test also revealed a significant test statistic. Furthermore, all three samples showed signs of slight to moderate multicollinearity.

Full sample: brand communication (VIF=2.135), brand commitment (VIF=2.003), condition index=18.763. Portuguese sample: brand communication (VIF=2.338), condition index=19.217. German sample: brand communication (VIF=2.075), brand commitment (VIF=2.065), condition index=18.865. No other assumption was violated.

[Reg4] Brand commitment<sub>i</sub> =  $\alpha + \beta_1$ \*brand-oriented HRM +  $\beta_2$ \*brand communication +  $\beta_3$ \*brand-oriented leadership +  $\beta_4$ \*frequency +  $\beta_5$ \*work status +  $\beta_6$ \*hierarchical position +  $\beta_7$ \*age +  $\beta_8$ \*educational background +  $\beta_9$ \*gender +  $\varepsilon_i$

Full sample

Model 2 to 7 show slight to moderate degrees of multicollinearity, since the condition index exceeded the threshold of 15 (condition indexes=[1.000, 26.028]). A later iteration of the same regression analysis with mean-centered metric IVs reveals no multicollinearity (condition indexes below 15). In addition, associated Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed non-normality for the DV brand commitment. No other assumption was violated.

[Reg4] Brand commitment<sub>i</sub> =  $\alpha + \beta_1$ \*brand-oriented HRM +  $\beta_2$ \*brand communication +  $\beta_3$ \*brand-oriented leadership +  $\beta_4$ \*frequency +  $\beta_5$ \*work status +  $\beta_6$ \*hierarchical position +  $\beta_7$ \*age +  $\beta_8$ \*educational background +  $\beta_9$ \*gender +  $\varepsilon_i$

Full, Portuguese and German sample

All samples showed high condition indexes: Full sample=26.028, Portuguese=30.201, German sample=25.790, while all mean-centering brought all down below the threshold of 15: Full sample=4.883, Portuguese=8.034, German sample=4.408). Moreover, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk indicated non-normality of brand commitment in all three samples. No other assumption was violated.

$$[\text{Reg5}] \text{ Brand commitment}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_5 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_6 * \text{brand communication} * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_7 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} * \text{hierarchical position} + \varepsilon_i$$

Full sample

The associated Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed non-normality for the DV brand commitment.

$$[\text{Reg6}] \text{ Brand citizenship behavior}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \beta_5 * \text{frequency} + \beta_6 * \text{work status} + \beta_7 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_8 * \text{age} + \beta_9 * \text{educational background} + \beta_{10} * \text{gender} + \varepsilon_i$$

Full sample

Similar to the first regressions with the employee characteristics, all the presented models show slight to moderate degrees of multicollinearity ( $VIF_{\text{brand communication}}=[2.133, 2.205]$ , condition index= $[1.000, 28.824]$ ). However, the high condition indexes could be lowered in a later regression with mean-centered metric IVs, while the VIF values of brand communication remained at their levels. In addition, the associated Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed non-normality for the DV brand citizenship behavior, too.

$$[\text{Reg6}] \text{ Brand citizenship behavior}_i = \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} + \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \beta_5 * \text{frequency} + \beta_6 * \text{work status} + \beta_7 * \text{hierarchical position} + \beta_8 * \text{age} + \beta_9 * \text{educational background} + \beta_{10} * \text{gender} + \varepsilon_i$$

Full, Portuguese, and German sample

All three samples indicated multicollinearity: First, several VIF values were above the threshold (full:  $VIF_{\text{BrandCommunication}}=2.205$ , Portuguese:  $VIF_{\text{BrandCommunication}}=3.035$ ,  $VIF_{\text{BrandCommitment}}=2.113$ , German:  $VIF_{\text{BrandCommunication}}=2.098$ ,  $VIF_{\text{BrandCommitment}}=2.053$ ). Second, the condition indexes exceed the value of 15, but could be lowered by employing mean-centered variables (full: condition index= $(28.824, 4.903)$ , Portuguese: condition index= $(32.859, 8.060)$ , German sample: condition index= $(29.089, 4.437)$ ). Moreover,

associated Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed non-normality for the full and the two subsamples. No other assumption was violated.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{[Reg7] Brand citizenship behavior} &= \alpha + \beta_1 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} + \beta_2 * \text{brand communication} \\ &+ \beta_3 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} + \beta_4 * \text{brand commitment} + \beta_5 * \text{educational background} \\ &+ \beta_6 * \text{brand-oriented HRM} * \text{educational background} + \beta_7 * \text{brand communication} \\ &* \text{educational background} + \beta_8 * \text{brand-oriented leadership} * \text{educational background} + \\ &\beta_9 * \text{brand commitment} * \text{educational background} + \varepsilon_i \end{aligned}$$

Full sample

Brand communication (VIF=2.144), brand commitment (VIF=2038), and the interaction brand communication\*education background (VIF=2.359) exceeded the threshold, pointing towards multicollinearity. However, neither indicated a correlation, another VIF, tolerance, or condition index multicollinearity. As presented before, the DV brand citizenship behavior did not completely follow a normal distribution (shown by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests).

## Appendix XI: Differences between subsamples based on the employee characteristics

In the following, the results of t-tests are illustrated, which focus on the differences of the means between subsamples, based on the employee characteristics.

### Frequency of customer interaction

	Means			t-test statistic (less than 20 times vs. more than 20 times)
	Full sample	Less than 20 times a day	More than 20 times a day	
n	277	184	93	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.5126	3.4810	3.5753	t(275)= -0.719
Brand communication	3.7884	<b>3.7130</b>	<b>3.9376</b>	t(317)= -2.297*
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8285	3.8605	3.7652	t(156.517)= 0.826
Brand commitment	3.5803	3.5285	3.6838	t(275)= -1.227
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8404	3.8267	3.8674	t(275)= -0.548

Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

### Work status

	Means			t-test statistic (full-time vs. part-time)
	Full sample	Part-time	Full-time	
n	310	78	232	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.4887	3.3077	3.5496	t(308)= 1.775
Brand communication	3.8013	3.7231	3.8276	t(308)= 1.041
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8258	3.8697	3.8111	t(308)= -0.529
Brand commitment	3.5992	3.4936	3.6347	t(308)= 1.079
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8498	<b>3.7393</b>	<b>3.8870</b>	t(308)= 1.987*

Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

### Hierarchical position

	Means			t-test statistic (non-manager vs. manager)
	Full sample	Non-manager <sup>a</sup>	Manager	
n	284	178	106	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.5018	3.5169	3.4764	t(316)= 0.316
Brand communication	3.8127	3.7551	3.9094	t(316)= -1.628
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8140	3.8399	3.7704	t(316)= 0.655
Brand commitment	3.5924	<b>3.4930</b>	<b>3.7594</b>	t(316)= -2.166*
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8599	<b>3.8052</b>	<b>3.9518</b>	t(316)= -2.131*

Notes: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; <sup>a</sup> Entry-level positions; <sup>b</sup> Supervisory, Middle Management, and Senior Management positions

## Age

	Means			t-test statistic (younger vs. older sample)
	Full sample	Younger sample <sup>a</sup>	Older sample <sup>b</sup>	
n	319	222	97	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.4906	3.5248	3.4124	t(317)= .883
Brand communication	3.8000	3.8315	3.7278	t(317)= 1.115
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8349	<b>3.9099</b>	<b>3.6632</b>	t(317)= 2.425*
Brand commitment	3.5995	3.5495	3.7139	t(317)= -1.356
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8415	3.8358	3.8545	t(317)= .269

Notes: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; <sup>a</sup> participants who were 19 – 30 years old; <sup>b</sup> participants who were 31 – 65 years old

## Educational background

	Means			t-test statistic (no degree vs. degree)
	Full sample	No university degree	University degree	
n	319	70	249	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.4906	3.3857	3.5201	t(317)= -.950
Brand communication	3.8000	3.7429	3.8161	t(317)= -.707
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8349	3.7357	3.8628	t(317)= -1.116
Brand commitment	3.5995	3.5929	3.6014	t(317)= -.063
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8415	<b>3.6794</b>	<b>3.8871</b>	t(317)= -2.724*

Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

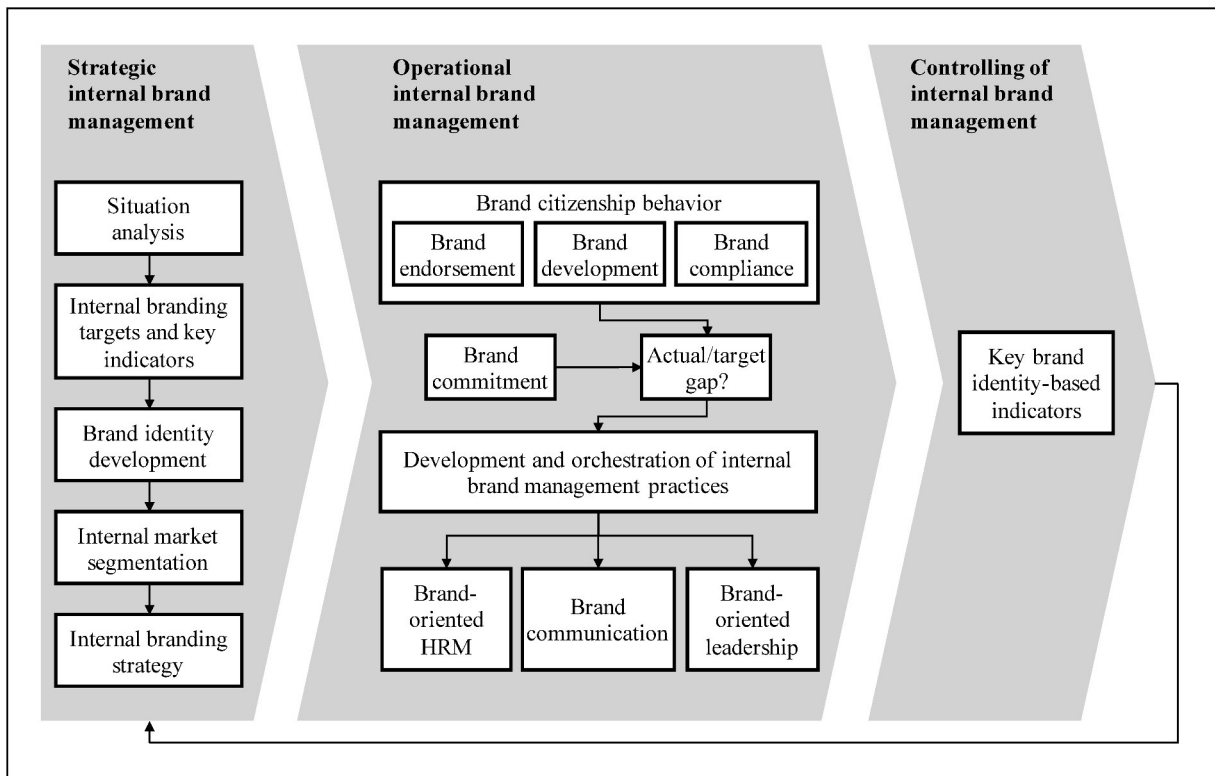
## Tenure

	Means			t-test statistic (short vs. long tenure)
	Full sample	Short tenure	Long tenure	
n	310	178	132	
Brand-oriented HRM	3.4887	<b>3.5983</b>	<b>3.3409</b>	t(308)= -2.158*
Brand communication	3.8013	<b>3.9112</b>	<b>3.6530</b>	t(308)= -2.966**
Brand-oriented leadership	3.8258	<b>3.9925</b>	<b>3.6010</b>	t(237.767)= -3.986***
Brand commitment	3.5992	3.6853	3.4830	t(308)= -1.770
Brand citizenship behavior	3.8498	3.8826	3.8056	t(247.694)= -1.142

Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$



## Appendix XII: The process of increasing brand citizenship behavior



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